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AN INVESTIGATION OF TURKISH PARENTS' BELIEFS AND PERCEPTIONS  
FOR INVOLVEMENT IN THEIR YOUNG CHILDREN'S EDUCATION

A Dissertation in  
Curriculum and Instruction

by

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## Abstract

The purpose of this study was to discover Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in young children's education. Specifically, this study sought to assess Turkish parents': (1) motivational beliefs, including their role activity and self-efficacy beliefs about involvement, (2) perceptions of invitations, including general school and teacher-specific, to be involved, and (3) perceptions of life context variables, including personal knowledge and skills and personal time and energy for involvement activities. This study also explored the impact of demographic characteristics on the psychological factors of parent involvement. The demographic variables in this study included parents' age and gender, parents' income and education levels, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children. The investigator used quantitative research techniques to address the topic.

Participants were 374 Turkish parents who had young children. Parents' beliefs and perceptions about their involvement were measured by using the adapted Turkish version of the related Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler parent involvement model. The researcher ensured the validity and reliability of the measures prior to their use in the main study. The related scales used as the first instrument in this study were based on parents' self-report, and included: (1) Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children's Education, (2) Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School, (3) Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School, (4) Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child's Teacher, (5) Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge

and Skills for Involvement Activities, and (6) Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities. A total of 44 items were included in this instrument. Moreover, a demographic survey that contained seven questions about participants' age and gender, marital and employment status, education and income levels, and number of children, was developed and used as the second instrument in this study.

The investigator used both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques to analyze the data. The results of descriptive statistics suggested that Turkish parents as a group tend to have positive beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in their young children's education. Multiple linear regression analysis (MLRA) was also deployed to understand the relationship between these beliefs and perceptions and demographic characteristics. The results revealed that parents' monthly family income is the strongest predictor of their beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in their young children's education. Parents with higher incomes tend to have more positive beliefs and perceptions about involvement than the lower-income parents. It was also found that parents' educational backgrounds influence their self-efficacy beliefs about helping their children succeed in school. Parents with higher education levels are more likely to have stronger self-efficacy beliefs than the parents with lower educational backgrounds.

Several recommendations were made based on the results. The researcher suggested several directions for further research. Implications were also described for policy and practice.

## Table of Contents

List of Tables.....	x
Acknowledgements.....	xii
Chapter 1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	3
Need for the Study.....	4
Purpose of Study and Research Questions.....	6
Significance of the Study.....	8
Limitations.....	10
Delimitations.....	10
Definition of Terms.....	10
Chapter 2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	12
Importance of Parent Involvement in Children’s Education.....	12
Academic Achievement.....	13
Literacy Skills.....	15
Mathematics Skills.....	17
Other Academic-related Issues.....	19
Child’s Development.....	20
Brief Historical Foundations: Background of Parent Involvement.....	22
Background on Parent Involvement in the United States.....	22
Background on Parent Involvement in Turkey.....	25
Theories and Parent Involvement.....	28

Cognitive Development Theory.....	28
Sociocultural Theory.....	29
Ecological Systems Theory.....	30
Parent Involvement Models.....	33
Epstein’s Parent Involvement Model.....	33
Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler’s Parent Involvement Model.....	36
Psychological Factors of Parent Involvement.....	41
Parents’ Motivational Beliefs Regarding Their Involvement.....	41
Parental Role Construction for Involvement in Children’s Education.....	42
Parental Self-Efficacy for Helping the Child Succeed in School..	45
Parental Perceptions of Invitations for Involvement from Others.....	49
Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School.....	50
Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child’s Teacher.....	52
Parental Perceptions of Life Context Variables.....	55
Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities.....	55
Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities.....	57
Demographic Factors of Parent Involvement.....	59

Chapter 3. METHODOLOGY.....	66
Design of the Study.....	66
Population and Sample.....	68
Instrumentation.....	68
Validity.....	70
Evidence Based on Test Content.....	71
Evidence Based on Response Processes.....	80
Evidence Based on Internal Structure.....	80
Evidence Based on Relations to Other Variables.....	81
Evidence Based on Consequences of Testing.....	81
Reliability.....	82
Pilot Study.....	84
Research Hypotheses.....	86
Data Collection for the Main Study.....	87
Data Analysis.....	88
Chapter 4. RESULTS.....	92
Reliability Analysis of Main Study for the Scales.....	92
Demographic Description of the Participants.....	94
Research Question One.....	97
Research Question Two.....	105
Research Question Three.....	111

Chapter 5. DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	119
Discussion of the Findings.....	120
Research Question One.....	120
Research Question Two.....	126
Research Question Three.....	129
Recommendations.....	133
Recommendations for Future Study.....	133
Implications for Policy and Practice.....	136
References.....	141
Appendix A. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler’s Model of Parent Involvement Process (1995, 1997).....	155
Appendix B. Level 1 from the Revised Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler Model of Parent Involvement Process (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005; Walker et al., 2005).....	157
Appendix C. Original Versions of Level 1 Scales from Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler’s Revised Parent Involvement Model (2005).....	159
Appendix D. Adapted Level 1 Scales from the Revised Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler Model of Parent Involvement Process (English & Turkish).....	166
Appendix E. Demographic Survey (English & Turkish).....	179
Appendix F. Information Sheet for the Pilot Study (English & Turkish).....	182
Appendix G. Implied Informed Consent Form for the Pilot Study (English & Turkish).....	185
Appendix H. Information Sheet for the Main Study (English & Turkish).....	188



Appendix I. Implied Informed Consent Form for the Main Study (English & Turkish).....191

Appendix J. Recruitment Letter for the Main Study (English & Turkish).....194

## List of Tables

Table 3.1 Differences between Items in the Original and Back-translated Versions.....	78
Table 3.2 Reliability Analysis of Original Scales.....	83
Table 3.3 Reliability Analysis of Pilot Study for Each Scale.....	85
Table 4.1 Reliability Analysis of Main Study for Each Scale.....	93
Table 4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants.....	96
Table 4.3 Correlation Matrix for Independent Variables.....	98
Table 4.4 Descriptive Statistics for Parents' Motivational Beliefs Regarding Their Involvement.....	99
Table 4.5 Regression Results for Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children's Education.....	101
Table 4.6 Regression Results for Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School.....	103
Table 4.7 Descriptive Statistics for Parental Perceptions of Invitations for Involvement from Others.....	106
Table 4.8 Regression Results for Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School.....	108
Table 4.9 Regression Results for Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child's Teacher.....	110
Table 4.10 Descriptive Statistics for Parental Perceptions of Life Context Variables.....	113

Table 4.11 Regression Results for Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills  
for Involvement Activities.....115

Table 4.12 Regression Results for Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for  
Involvement Activities.....117

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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **Introduction**

Parents are known as the primary educators in their children's immediate environment during the early years of life (Gestwicki, 2007). Although parents' involvement in their young children's education is a relatively new research area, it has been commonly accepted that parents play a vital role in their children's education (Hartley, 2000). Therefore, involving parents in their children's education is inevitable and beyond dispute (Henderson & Berla, 1994).

Growing evidence demonstrates the benefits of parent involvement in their children's education (Henderson & Mapp, 2002), not only for students, but also for parents, teachers, and educational settings (Epstein et al., 2002). These positive outcomes include children's academic achievement (Wright, Stegelin, & Hartle, 2007), cognitive-intellectual development (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994), social and emotional development (Prior & Gerard, 2007), and behavioral development (Kratochwill, McDonald, Levin, Bear-Tibbets, & Demaray, 2004).

Research (e.g., Henderson & Mapp, 2002) indicates that when parents participate in their children's education, students have higher grade point averages (Gutman & Midgley, 2000), and increased achievement in reading (Buchen, 2004), writing (Sheldon & Epstein, 2005a), and mathematics (Van Voorhis, 2001). Children whose parents are involved in their learning also have higher levels of social skills (Gestwicki, 2007), more positive attitudes and behavior (Pong & Ju, 2000), higher homework completion rates

(Cancio, West, & Young, 2004), and fewer placements in special education (Henderson & Berla, 1994).

Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997) introduced a theoretical model of the parent involvement process in order to fully understand why parents get involved and in what way the psychological factors relate to parents' basic involvement decisions. This model was revised (Walker, Wilkins, Dallaire, Sandler, & Hoover-Dempsey, 2005; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005). The revised model provides a direct link between psychological factors (i.e., parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement, parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others, and parents' perceived life context) and parents' choice of involvement forms. Simply, this model focuses more on the reasons for parent involvement. This theoretical model sets the basis for this study.

Although there has been substantial investigation of the outcomes of parent involvement on children's education, the research on psychological factors is inadequate (Walker et al., 2005). Particularly, the effects of demographic variables (e.g., parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children) on these psychological variables have not been a major focus of a comprehensive study. In Turkey, where increased parent involvement is sought, there is a lack of such research. Thus, this study's focus is the psychological factors in Turkish parents' involvement in their children's education and the influence of demographic variables on that involvement.

### *Statement of the Problem*

Although the Ministry of National Education (MONE) in Turkey has declared that preschool education will be mandatory in 2013 (Kotan, 2007), the majority of Turkish children begin their formal schooling in elementary school when they are six years old. According to Şahin and Ünver (2005), involving children's parents in their education has numerous positive outcomes for students at this age. Parents want their children to be successful in their education (Kainz & Aikenz, 2007) and wish to be involved because doing so helps children with their learning and achievement (Comer & Haynes, 1991).

The Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model of parent involvement offers four forms of parent involvement, including values and goals, home involvement, school communication, and school involvement (Walker et al., 2005). By couching this model on a psychological perspective, they also sought to examine the psychological factors of parent involvement in order to understand their effect on the parent involvement process, beginning with their choice of involvement forms (Walker et al., 2005).

To date, the focus of most research on predictors of parent involvement has been on demographic factors (Grolnick, Benjet, Kurowski, & Apostoleris, 1997). For example, studies have shown that lower-income, less educated (Lareau, 2000), and single parents (Epstein, 1990) are less involved than are more educated, higher-income, or married parents (Grolnick et al., 1997). However, little work (e.g., Hoover- Dempsey & Sandler, 2005) has touched on the relationship between these demographic factors and psychological predictors such as parents' motivational beliefs about their involvement, parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others, and parents' perceived

life context. Therefore, there seems to be a gap in research regarding the effects of demographic factors on the psychological predictors of parent involvement.

These findings are also relevant in the Turkish context with respect to Turkish parents' involvement in young children's education. For instance, Gürşimşek (2003) studied the effects of demographic factors on types of parent involvement. Unfortunately, there has been no research in the Turkish context of psychological factors and parent involvement and the effects of demographic variables on psychological predictors. Such an examination is essential in order to fully understand the relationships between significant variables and aspects of parent involvement. This analysis will provide an indepth look at the parent involvement process and a better picture of it. It is assumed that an advanced understanding of parents' involvement in education may lead to improvements in the parent involvement philosophy as well as its practice in the field.

In summary, psychological predictors of parent involvement, including parents' beliefs and perceptions of their involvement and how these factors are affected by demographic variables in the Turkish context, remain unknown. Examining Turkish parents' beliefs about and perceptions of their involvement in their young children's education and how these factors are affected by demographic variables is the main focus of this study.

#### *Need for the Study*

The three specific needs for this research provide the rationale for it. The needs are: (1) the importance of parent involvement in young children's education, especially in the Turkish context, (2) the importance of psychological and demographic factors in parent involvement, and (3) the lack of adequate research on psychological factors,



including parents' beliefs and perceptions, and lack of study of the relationship between these psychological and demographic factors in Turkey. These three needs are delineated below.

First, in Turkey, the schooling rate in pre-primary education is 17% (MONE, 2007). There are currently over 640,000 children and 24,775 teachers, according to educational statistics from MONE (2007) for Turkey. Hence, most Turkish children start their schooling at the age of six by entering primary schools. Parent involvement in children's education has a tremendous influence on students who experience a critical transition from home to school or from pre-primary education to primary education (Gestwicki, 2007). Therefore, it is essential to the involvement of Turkish parents in their young children's education.

Second, the psychological factors proposed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sanders (1995, 1997, 2005) and Walker et al. (2005), such as parents' motivational beliefs about their involvement (i.e., role activity beliefs and parental efficacy), parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others (i.e., general school invitations and specific teacher invitations), and parents' perceived life context (i.e., knowledge and skills and time and energy) are significant in parents' involvement in their children's education. Although some studies (e.g., Gürşimşek, 2003) have attempted to investigate the parent involvement process in Turkey, none has used Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's parent involvement model and focused on psychological factors such as degrees of Turkish parents' role activity and parental self-efficacy beliefs, their perception of invitations to become involved from schools and teachers, and their perceptions of their knowledge, skills, and time, and the energy they put into their involvement. Thus, research on

Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions of their involvement in young children's education will allow us to better comprehend parent involvement in young children's education in Turkey.

Third, parents' demographic characteristics (e.g., age and gender, income and educational level, and marital and employment status) have impacts on their involvement in education (Lareau, 2000). Although there have been many studies of the influences of these variables in the parent involvement process in the United States (e.g., Epstein, 1990) and some studies in Turkey (e.g., Gürşimşek, 2003), there has been no research in Turkey on the effects of these demographic variables on the psychological factors of parent involvement. The lack of such a study on the relationship between demographic and psychological variables in the parent involvement process in Turkey makes the need this research relevant as well.

In summary, the importance of parent involvement in young children's education, in the Turkish context, the significance of psychological and demographic factors in parent involvement, and the lack of adequate research studies focusing on psychological factors, including parents' beliefs and perceptions and how they are influenced by demographic factors, were the reasons for this study. The main objective of this study is to provide sufficient information on these issues so that a better picture of the parent involvement process in Turkey is available and the gap in research on the topic can be filled.

#### *Purpose of Study and Research Questions*

Following the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) parent involvement model, the purpose of this research was to assess psychological factors involved in parent

involvement in Turkish young children's education. Specifically, this study aims to assess Turkish parents': (1) motivational beliefs, including their role activity and self-efficacy beliefs about involvement, (2) perceptions of invitations, including general school and teacher-specific, to be involved, and (3) perceptions of life context variables, including personal knowledge and skills and personal time and energy for involvement activities. This study also sought to ascertain the impact of demographic factors on the psychological factors of parent involvement.

The primary research question was: What are Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in their young children's education and how do their demographic characteristics influence these psychological factors?

The study attempted to answer this primary research question by examining several ancillary questions. These questions were as follows:

1. What are Turkish parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement?

The following information helped answer this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents' role activity beliefs, that is, the extent to which they believe that they should be actively involved in the child's education? (b) What are Turkish parents' beliefs about their efficacy in helping their children succeed in school? and (c) How do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children affect parental role activity and self-efficacy beliefs?

2. What are Turkish parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others? The following issues helped answer this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the

school? (b) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of specific teacher invitations for involvement? (c) How do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children influence these parental perceptions of general and specific invitations for involvement?

3. What are Turkish parents' perceptions of life context with respect to their involvement in their children's education? The following issues provided information for this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of their knowledge and skills for involvement? (b) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of their available time and energy for involvement? (c) In what way do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children relate to these parental perceptions of time and energy and knowledge and skills and their involvement in their children's education?

In sum, the purpose of this research was to examine Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in their young children's education. The questions related to this purpose and answers were sought accordingly.

#### *Significance of the Study*

This study is significant for three reasons. These reasons are delineated below.

First, parent involvement is an important aspect and an opportunity for children's success in school as well as their personal development. The growing interest in parent involvement in early childhood education in Turkey, where initiatives to increase parent involvement have been accelerated since Turkey began to engage in discussion about full

membership in the European Union, makes it a necessity to investigate parent involvement in a comprehensive in-depth manner. Therefore, this study is very important because it contributes to this major contemporary topic.

Second, most children in Turkey begin their education by entering first grade in elementary school. Parent involvement is considered a crucial element in the beginning years of children's formal schooling since it is a critical phase for children as they experience one of the most important transitions of their lives (Gestwicki, 2007), either from their home or pre-school environment to a formal educational setting.

Third, psychological (Hooever-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005) and demographic factors (Lareau, 2000) on the parents' side very much influence their involvement in their child's education. However, no research has been done in Turkey on the psychological factors of parent involvement and how they are influenced by demographic variables. Since this study sought to examine psychological factors, including parents' beliefs and perceptions of their involvement and the effects of demographic variables (i.e., parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children) in the Turkish context, findings may provide sufficient information and fill in the research gap on the subject-matter.

In summary, by making such current in-depth information available on the factors of parent involvement, this study is of great importance. It makes an essential contribution to the domain by filling a vacuum in the Turkish context. All stakeholders in the parent involvement process in Turkey, such as parents, teachers, administrators, and researchers, may find benefits from study findings in their theoretical or practical efforts.

More to the point, professionals and researchers from other countries can also use this research in local or international comparisons.

#### *Limitations*

This study was limited to the province of Yozgat, Turkey. Yozgat is located 170 miles east of Ankara. Accordingly, findings may not be representative of other cities in or those external to Turkey.

#### *Delimitations*

There were two delimitations in this study. First, the study sample included only the parents of first- and second-grade students. Therefore, the outcomes of this study cannot be generalized to specific understanding of parent involvement for students in other grade levels. Second, the subjects in this study were limited to parents of children enrolled in the elementary schools in the Yozgat province in Turkey from May to June 2008.

#### *Definition of Terms*

Three concepts had critical importance in this study: (1) parent involvement, (2) self-efficacy, and (3) young children. Each term is defined below.

##### *Parent Involvement*

The term “parent involvement” has been defined differently by different people. In this study, the researcher used the definition of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1997) to address parent involvement. Their definition of parent involvement incorporates the range of parent activities cited in the involvement literature. “They include home-based activities related to children’s learning in school – for example, reviewing the child’s work and monitoring the child progress, helping with homework, discussing school

events or course issues with the child, providing enrichment activities pertinent to school success, and talking by phone with the teacher. They also include school-based involvement, focused on such activities as driving on a field trip, staffing a concession booth at school games, coming to school for scheduled conferences or informal conversations, volunteering at school, and serving on a parent-teacher advisory board.” (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997, p. 6).

### *Self-Efficacy*

Self-efficacy is defined as “People’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance” (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Specifically, this study used this term to mean parental sense of efficacy, which includes parents’ beliefs about their personal ability to make a difference in the child’s educational outcomes through their involvement (Bandura, 1997; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, & Brissie, 1992; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005; Walker et al., 2005).

### *Young Children*

The U.S. Department of Education states that children in prekindergarten through third grade are defined as “young children”. This study was done with the parents of first- and second-grade students. As such, the researcher ensured that first- and second-grade students in the Turkish context were “young children”.

## CHAPTER 2

### Literature Review

This chapter includes a review of the literature related to: (1) the importance of parent involvement in children's education, (2) background on parent involvement, (3) theories and parent involvement, (4) parent involvement models, (5) psychological factors in parent involvement, and (6) demographic factors in parent involvement. First, it begins with an explanation of the importance of parent involvement in children's education with a focus on children's academic achievement and development. Second, it continues with a brief history and background of parent involvement efforts and programs both in the United States and Turkey. Third, major theories related to parent involvement in the literature are discussed. Next, information about the psychological factors in parent involvement is provided. Last, demographic factors in parent involvement are delineated. This chapter provides an in-depth review of the related research findings in accord with the purpose and scope of the study. Thus, each part includes related research evidence in the literature.

#### *Importance of Parent Involvement in Children's Education*

Parent involvement in young children's education has many aspects. First, one needs to understand why parent involvement is so important. This understanding requires analysis of the full process of parent involvement in order to obtain a better picture of it. The purpose of this dissertation study was to investigate the psychological and demographic factors that are crucial elements of parent involvement. By covering the



literature on the significance of parent involvement with research evidence, the researcher provides information on the importance of examining the related elements of parent involvement in depth, such as the psychological and demographic variables. Therefore, this section provides a review of selected literature on the importance of parent involvement on children's (1) academic achievement and (2) development.

### *Academic Achievement*

Parents are considered to be the most important primary role models in their young children's immediate surroundings. Assuring their children's academic achievement and success in school is one of the most important aspirations of every parent. Therefore, most parents who wish to play a critical role in their children's academic achievement (Anderson & Minke, 2007) wish to be more involved in their young children's education so that they are successful in their education both at present and in later periods of their life.

A research study conducted by Caplan, Choy, and Whitmore (1992) showed that parents contribute to their children's academic achievement by emphasizing the significance of education, encouraging a joy of learning, believing in their ability, and stressing the importance of homework. For example, improvements were detected in children's overall achievement when their parents participated in specific programs aimed at increasing their involvement (Shaver & Walls, 1998). Likewise, a study (Clark, 1993) indicated that children with high achievement scores have parents who set high standards for their children's educational activities and create a home environment that supports learning. Clark's (1993) study showed that the parents of high achiever children

were more involved in home learning activities and that their children spent more time on homework.

Claiming that the most research on the relationship between parent involvement and children's academic achievement was qualitative and unclear, Fan and Chen (2001) conducted a quantitative meta-analytic study to investigate this relationship. Findings from their study indicated a small to moderate, and practically meaningful, relationship between parent involvement and academic achievement. However, results of another meta-analysis of 41 studies by Jeynes (2005) revealed a significant relationship between parent involvement overall and academic achievement.

In an extensive literature review of parent involvement by Henderson and Berla (1994) and in a longitudinal study (Reynolds, 1999), it was found that the most accurate predictor of a children's success was not the other factors, but the extent to which their parents become involved in their education. Hence, when parents are involved, their child's academic achievement is improved (Carter, 2002).

In sum, there has been a consensus in the literature that parents who are involved in their children's education are likely to have children who do well in school. Furthermore, the research on the effects of parent involvement on children's school success have focused not only on overall academic achievement as explained in this section, but also on specific academic domains such as children's literacy skills, math skills, and other explicit academic related skills which are revealed in the following subsections.

### *Literacy Skills*

Gaining literacy skills is at the center of young children's education and accepted as one of the major domains in most parent involvement programs and practices (Edwards, 2004). For that reason, it is crucial to look at the research on the relationship between parent involvement and children's literacy skills. There has been an overwhelming agreement in the research literature (e.g., O'Connor, 2007) that effective parent involvement is linked with increased literacy skills for children. Parent involvement has been shown to significantly improve their children's reading and writing skills (Gestwicki, 2007).

As Sheldon and Epstein (2005a) asserted, children's entry into formal schooling is an important transition period in learning and development. This transition to elementary school also has considerable outcomes for parents' roles in their children's literacy development (Wollman-Bonilla, 2000). In fact, young children's achievement in literacy skills has been shown to improve if their parents are involved in their educational experience (Prior & Gerard, 2007). For example, storybook reading is considered an important parent involvement activity for children in school and at home in the primary grades and parent-child storybook reading has long-term, multi-faceted effects on children's language development (Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002).

Leslie and Allen (1999) found in their research study that the degree of parent involvement in a reading intervention for children in first through fourth grades who were nonreaders or were behind by one or two grade levels predicted children's reading growth. Likewise, in a longitudinal study done with 168 children, Sénéchal and Lefevre investigated the relations among early literacy experiences, subsequent receptive

language and emergent skills, and reading achievement. They determined that parent involvement in teaching children about reading and writing words was significantly associated with the development of early literacy skills. In addition, results from another longitudinal study conducted by Miedel and Reynolds (1999) demonstrated that even when family background was controlled, the number of activities in which parents participated in preschool and kindergarten was significantly related with higher reading achievement.

On the other hand, in Hartley's (2000) study, most parents reported that although they were reasonably comfortable with supporting their children's reading, some expressed concerns about their children's writing. According to Hartley, this might be a consequence of either a lack of communication or a misunderstanding between the methods of parents and the way writing is taught in schools. However, in a study by Epstein, Simon, and Salinas (1997), writing samples collected from 683 students in the Teachers Involve Parents in Schoolwork (TIPS) program were used and studied. They claimed that parents' participation in TIPS activities positively influenced the quality of students' holistic writing, even after socioeconomic status (SES), grade level, and school attendance were taken into account. Similarly, Bassett, DeVine, Perry, and Rueth (2001) conducted an intervention study with first- and third-grade students on their writing skills. They found that effective parent involvement strategies, such as encouraging at-home writing, is one reason for targeted students' increased writing abilities.

In sum, parent involvement has positive impacts on young children's early literacy achievement. Parents' participation in activities such as reading aloud together and at-home writing activities allow children to start their lifelong involvement in literacy

in a joyful manner. Consequently parents' contributions to this domain will remain a major aspect of involvement programs and research.

### *Mathematics Skills*

Important debates continue about making student achievement in mathematics a high priority in schools. Since parents are one of the major stakeholders in education, the relationship between parents' involvement and their children's performance in mathematics has been a major topic of some research. Although parents and teachers may not be aware of it, the home environment is full of mathematical learning opportunities. For example, children enjoy real-life problem-solving when they are exposed to mathematics in stores and geometric shapes in their everyday home lives (Prior & Gerard, 2007). Also, home environments influence children's attitudes toward mathematics (Balli, 1998). Further, parents' beliefs and expectations for their children in mathematics were found to be predictive variables for student achievement in mathematics at the school level (Entwisle & Alexander, 1996).

Educators are likely to support the parent involvement idea; thus, some teachers work collaboratively with parents and encourage their participation in their children's mathematics education and learning (Sheldon & Epstein, 2005b). Those efforts are supported by research that indicates positive relationships between parent involvement and multifaceted student outcomes, including mathematics (e.g., Van Voorhis, 2001). In a longitudinal study involving data on 1,205 kindergarten through third-grade students for three years, Izzo, Weisberg, Kaspro, and Fendrich. (1999) examined how parent involvement and children's academic functioning were related. The results showed that

most parent involvement variables, particularly parent-teacher contact and home participation, were positively correlated with children's mathematics achievement.

Additionally, Sheldon and Epstein (2005b) carried out another study to explore the connections between parent involvement and student achievement in mathematics at the school level, using longitudinal data. Findings showed that effective parent involvement activities that encourage parents to help their children's learning of mathematics were positively related with higher scores on mathematics achievement tests. They also pointed out that parent-school partnerships helped educators improve students' mathematics skills and achievement.

Moreover, Cancio et al. (2004) investigated the effect of parent participation on students' academic achievement. They discovered increases in perceived homework problem ratings and mathematics achievement from parent involvement programs. Likewise, Pfannenstiel, Lambson, and Yarnell (1991) examined the outcomes of the Parents as Teachers Program (PAT), a parent education and support program for families with children from birth to age three, and concluded that PAT children scored significantly higher than comparison group children on standardized tests of math at the end of the first grade.

In sum, administrators, teachers, politicians, and parents value mathematics skills and consider them to be one of the top priorities in children's education. Parent involvement has proven to be a positive influence on children's mathematics achievement and it is mainly parents who foster the home environments that encourage learning of mathematics. Hence, parental perceptions and beliefs about their involvement reveal their importance in this regard.

*Other Academic-related Issues*

The home is believed to be central to children's learning and success in school (Kellaghan, Sloane, Alvarez, & Bloom, 1993). There has been research (e.g., Epstein & Van Voorhis, 2001) on the influence of parent involvement on academic outcomes other than literacy and mathematics skills in children's education. For example, Cancio et al. (2004) found that students needed to be supervised and reminded frequently to complete their homework and to have adults in the environment in order to complete their assignments. Assistance with homework is regarded as beneficial for students if their parents obtain guidance in working effectively with their children (Carter, 2002). It was also reported that making effective use of parent involvement in the homework process resulted in higher homework completion rates and improved achievement in language arts and science (Van Voorhis, 2001).

Moreover, in a comprehensive literature review by Henderson and Berla (1994), it was reported that other benefits of parent involvement for students included higher grades and test scores, and better attendance. They also showed that higher graduation rates and greater enrollment in postsecondary education were correlated positively with parents' participation in their children's education. Supporting their findings, Gutman and Midgley (2000) found that students with high levels of parent involvement had higher grade point averages.

When Stevenson and Baker (1987) examined the relationship between parent involvement and school performance, they found that as long as parents participate in school activities, teachers provide higher assessments of their children's abilities and potential. In turn, Miedel and Reynolds (1999) conducted a longitudinal study and found

that a high level of parents' involvement was connected with fewer retentions and special education placements.

In sum, parent involvement has multifaceted effects on children's academic success. Parent involvement reinforces and strengthens school learning (Carter, 2002). The outcomes for students include higher homework completion rates, higher grade point averages, fewer retentions and placements in special education, better attendance, and greater enrollment in further education. The importance of parent involvement is not only limited to academic achievement but also extends to developmental domains for children, which are explained in detail in the next section of this literature review.

### *Child's Development*

One important area of a child's life that is dramatically impacted by family is education (Lee, Kushner, & Cho, 2007) and parents' participation in their young children's learning is critical. However, the significance of parent involvement is not limited to children's academic skills (Seda, 2007). Parent involvement has also tremendous importance for children's development. For example, when parents are involved in their education, children experience increased feelings of security in the new school environment, enhanced feelings of self-worth (Gestwicki, 2007), and higher levels of social skills (Bennett & Hay, 2007).

When parents are involved appropriately, beneficial outcomes for children such as regular attendance (Sheldon, 2007) and good behavior were proven to occur (Epstein, 2001). Supporting this statement, Brody, Flor, and Gibson (1999) conducted a study with 139 parents of six- to nine-year-old children and found that parent involvement practices in their children's schools were linked with children's ability to regulate their own



behavior. Similarly, Kratochwill et al. (2004) examined the consequences of parent involvement for children's emotional and behavioral developments and reported that effective parent involvement resulted in less anxious/depressed emotions, diminished attention problems, and decreased aggressive behaviors. They also asserted that children whose parents were involved in their education exhibited improved classroom behavior, and social and intellectual skills.

Moreover, Comer's (1988) research study also indicated similar results—students whose parents were involved had significantly greater positive changes in attendance, and teacher ratings of classroom behavior, attitude toward authority, and group participation, when compared to others. More to the point, children whose parents are involved with school exhibited positive behavior (Henderson & Berla, 1994), positive attitudes toward school, and increased positive interactions with peers (Koonce & Harper, 2005). Consequently, parents who participate in their children's academic and social development at school helped to increase the incidence of children's suspensions and inappropriate school behaviors (Koonce & Harper, 2005).

In sum, parent involvement has been found to be an important factor in children's behavioral, socioemotional, and cognitive development. Further, children of involved parents developed positive attitudes toward school and enjoyed positive interactions with their peers. To conclude, parent involvement impacts children's development, which in turn has beneficial outcomes for students' learning process and environment as well as social spheres.

*Brief Historical Foundations: Background of Parent Involvement*

Knowledge of the history of parent involvement efforts and programs both in the United States and Turkey provides a useful context before engaging in an in-depth analysis of Turkish parents' perceptions and beliefs about their involvement in their young children's education. The historical overview is important because the historical developments in the subject matter have shaped the understandings, philosophy, perceptions, and beliefs about parent involvement issues today. Thus, this section contains background on parent involvement efforts both in the United States and Turkey.

*Background on Parent Involvement in the United States*

The importance of parent involvement in their children's education is not a new issue. Parents began to become involved in nursery schools at the beginning of 20<sup>th</sup> century in the United States. Parent cooperative nursery schools bloomed from the 1920s to the 1960s. Most of these educational centers were located in college or suburban towns and welcomed primarily stay-at-home mothers who served as paraprofessionals in the classrooms, assisting a teacher and taking physical care of the facility (Gestwicki, 2007). The major notion of parent involvement was that parents know what they want for their children and thereby should be involved in the school. Parent involvement in school helped those educational settings to decrease budget costs and build a tie between parent and school (Gestwicki, 2007). However, these parent involvement efforts were limited to middle-class families.

While involving parents from lower socioeconomic and culturally and ethnically diverse background began during the Depression and grew during World War II through programs that supported parent involvement in activities such as parental self-

development training and learning, extensive parent involvement was introduced via Head Start in the 1960s and 1970s (Wright et al., 2007). Head Start was designed for particularly disadvantaged families. Nevertheless, educators were uneasily tolerant of parents perceived as lacking knowledge and skills (Gestwicki, 2007).

Later, Head Start was required to ensure the utmost level of participation by the families served. Parent involvement and empowerment were seen as Head Start characteristics (Goldberg, 1997). The main philosophy of the Head Start program was that parents were equal partners with education professionals in children's education (Zigler, 1992). Both parents and teachers were considered to be experts on children, with each bringing different types of expertise (Gestwicki, 2007). Parents began to decide on a level of involvement well-suited to their lives and commitments. According to the rationale, if children are to achieve their fullest potential; there must be an opportunity for Head Start parents to influence the character of programs that affect the development of their children (Henrich & Blackman-Jones, 2006). Parents were offered education activities to engage in with their children (Kellaghan et al., 1993). For example, parents began to work with their own children along with the staff, plan parent activities by themselves, participate as volunteers in classrooms, and set standards for the hiring of professional staff. Thus, the Head Start program was able to actively reach out to parents (Stein & Thorkildsen, 1999).

Chapter I of the Title I initiative, called Even Start, was eventually brought in as a family-centered education program that funded local efforts to improve educational opportunities for children, with an emphasis on a family-centered literacy program, and mandated involvement of parents via an agreement signed by parents. In this agreement,

parents agreed to ensure that their children attended school, attended orientation sessions for parents, participated in parent/child/staff events during the year, read with the child, and attended at least five hours of family-school partnership workshops offered by the school (Gestwicki, 2007).

Parent involvement was also mandated by the Education of All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, later reauthorized as the Individuals with Disabilities Act in 1990 Amendments of 1997, and Individuals with Disabilities Educational Improvement Act of 2004. Parents of children with special needs were required by these programs to monitor whether the individualized education program (IEP) for their children was in line with state standards for achievement. Families were also required to be involved in all aspects of the planning process for their children's education (Gestwicki, 2007).

Additionally, Goals 2000 was passed into law. Its emphasis was on parent involvement. The Goals 2000 project required every state to develop policies that help local schools and agencies to increase parent-school partnerships (Patte, 2002). Goals 2000 also aimed to have every school actively engage parents and families in a partnership that sustains the academic work of children at home and shared educational decision-making at school, including parents of children who were disadvantaged or bilingual, or parents of children with disabilities (Epstein et al., 2002).

Lastly, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation was signed into law in 2002. One of the major goals of NCLB was to provide more choices for parents, including new options for making changes for children in low-performing schools (Thurston, 2005). Parents have been given more rights by law. For example, schools are required to provide parents with more information about their child's progress in school and the performance

of the school (U.S. Department of Education, 2003). In addition, the NCLB requires parent involvement programs in schools and obliges them to develop a written parent involvement policy that includes parents in creating and evaluating the policy and in planning, evaluating, and improving the various programs for parents. It also mandates that schools give parents understandable descriptions and explanations of the curricula, offer a flexible number of meetings, and use funds for transportation, child care, and home visits to facilitate parent attendance. Schools are also directed to provide training for parents to enhance the involvement of other parents and coordinate parent involvement activities with other programs such as Head Start (Gestwicki, 2007). Another new regulation for parent involvement programs introduced by this legislation was to establish parental information and resource centers (PIRC) that assist parents of children identified for improvement under Title I.

#### *Background on Parent Involvement in Turkey*

In the Turkish context, parent involvement in children's education was scarce but occurred even in the Ottoman periods. In the Sıbyan Schools, for example, which was an educational setting for young children; parent involvement took place mostly in fund-raising and volunteer activities relating to school maintenance (Erdem, 2005). After the collapse of the Ottoman State and establishment of the Turkish Republic, the educational system went through a number of reforms as an important aspect of the westernization process. Educational settings, programs, and activities were regulated by the MONE. The MONE predominantly controlled the parent involvement programs and mandated every school's formation of a school-family association (SFA). SFAs in Turkey are required to have a plan each year. Parent involvement in Turkish schools through SFAs includes the

following types of activities: assisting in school, volunteering, parental education, parent-teacher conferences, organizing events for parents and students, parent-to-parent communication and training activities, fund-raising activities, collaborating with the other agencies to improve the opportunities in schools, communicating with alumni, and so on.

In addition to the MONE's regulations and efforts, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as the Mother-Child Education Foundation (MCEF) appeared. Established in 1993, the major philosophy of the MCEF is that parents are the primary educators of children—it is not possible to achieve better educational outcomes for children without working with their parents and establishing learning environments in the homes. The MCEF provided more choices especially to mothers by introducing several parent involvement programs that focus mainly on literacy activities, parenting, volunteering, and home visits. Although the MCEF initially targeted work with mothers, it began to develop programs for fathers as well. The MCEF recruited programs for parents, including mother and child education programs, summer programs, family training, women literacy, and father support programs. Following the EU perspective, the MCEF also employed several projects designed to empower limited-resource families. These programs emphasized gender equality in social life, sexual health and rights, and father involvement. The MCEF has a working relationship with the Turkish government on the domestic level, and with institutions like the World Bank and UNICEF, for instance, in the international arena. Some of the programs (e.g., mother and child education programs) developed by the MCEF were also exported to and implemented in other countries, including Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany, France, Switzerland, Saudi Arabia, and Bahrain.

Another effort that included parents' involvement in Turkey was the Turkish Early Enrichment Project (TEEP). This project focused on a Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY) and the Mother Enrichment Program (MEP). HIPPY provided the mothers with the knowledge needed to administer cognitive materials such as toys, puzzles, and books to children in home settings. The MEP included information about a variety of topics for the mother, such as the importance of the early years, mother-child interactions, the role of the mother, child development, and so on. The fourth-year results for the TEEP showed very positive results for children's overall development and school achievement as measured by cognitive tests and school records. (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1991). Also the results of the tenth-year follow-up revealed a high number of enrollments in the experimental group for formal schooling, and higher primary school academic performance when compared to the control group. The standardized WISC-R vocabulary score was found to be higher for the experimental group than the control group. The experimental group was also more pleased with school, teachers, and peers. However, the difference between the experimental and control groups was not statistically significant after primary school (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1993).

Although Turkish culture has been characterized as patriarchal, authoritarian, and traditional (Çakır & Aydın, 2005), these characteristics are subject to change due to the social transformation caused by westernization, urbanization, and industrialization (Sunar & Fisek, 2005). For example, the majority of Turkish families have become nuclear type of families, a growing number of mothers have joined the workforce, and the fertility rate has decreased (Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, 2002). For these reasons, the division of labor and the relationships between spouses have changed (Ataca, Kağıtçıbaşı, & Diri, 2005) in the

household. The parent involvement programs introduced by government institutions and NGOs (e.g., MCEF) have begun to adapt their agendas and programs to a greater focus on nuclear families and are targeting not only mothers but fathers, as well.

In sum, the history of parent involvement efforts and programs in both the U.S. and Turkey shows that the significance of parent involvement is well understood and still gaining momentum. Parents are now seen as experts on their children and partners in their children's education. Consequently, the partnership philosophy is leading policy makers and NGOs to take steps to develop programs that involve parents in ways that positively benefit educational and social outcomes.

#### *Theories and Parent Involvement*

Theoretical perspectives provide the basis for research and inspire scholars to go further in the social sciences. This is also true in the field of parent involvement. This section delineates three major theories related to parent involvement: (1) Piaget's cognitive development theory, (2) Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, and (3) Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory. These three theories have a great impact on the research field, and thus are discussed with respect to parent involvement.

#### *Cognitive Development Theory*

Having been called a constructivist as well as an interactionist, Jean Piaget proposed a theory of cognitive development in children and emphasized the constructive role of experience with peers and family members. The basic assumption of his theory was that young children are active learners with a constant drive to match their internal constructions (their own view of the real world) and external constructions (the external realities they face with in their surroundings) (Piaget, 1981).



Children, as agents in his term, continually rework and revise-assimilate and accommodate their internal constructions with each new experience (Prior & Gerard, 2007). Other people and the social milieu are important elements influencing the children's environment. Within this environment social interaction and context are "indissociable" from their cognitive development. Children assimilate new learning and accommodate their own incorrect views of the world more quickly if they are more actively involved with people and things in their surroundings. In this regard, children learn best when they have opportunities to interact with their environments, and particularly with their parents who are a vital part of children's environments (Athey, 2007). For example, parent involvement activities such as practicing interactive homework creates opportunities for children to interact meaningfully with their parents such that children construct their own knowledge within both a social and physical environment through this process (Bailey, Silvern, Brabham, & Ross, 2004). As a consequence, Piaget's social development theory supports the idea that parent involvement is a crucial factor in children's development and achievement.

### *Sociocultural Theory*

Affected partially by Piaget's views, Lev Vygotsky emphasized the relationship between human beings and their environment, both physical and social, in his sociocultural theory. To him, the influences of social and cultural factors on development and learning are abundant (Vygotsky, 1978). Human beings are surrounded by family members and are impacted by the culture in which they live (Rieber & Robinson, 2004). Children's interaction with their family members in the community is so important for their learning and development since their first teacher is the family and their first

learning takes place in the community. For this reason children gain knowledge about the world through this interaction.

Vygotsky focused on the internationalization of knowledge (knowing how) by addressing the zone of proximal development (ZPD) as a concept to argue that children have levels of problem-solving ability (Prior & Gerard, 2007). He defined ZPD as: “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by the independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). He claimed that children can learn and achieve by themselves at one level. However, he introduced another level that refers to the child’s abilities when working under the guidance of an adult or a more able peer (Vygotsky, 1978). For example, riding a bicycle is a tool of the society and beyond the child—that is why it can be learned through working with more capable peers or an adult. Accordingly, by emphasizing interrelatedness and interdependence in learning and development, his theory supports the idea that a child’s home life is of importance (Prior & Gerard, 2007) and parents contribute greatly to the development and academic achievement of a child.

### *Ecological Systems Theory*

Another theory, advocated by Urie Bronfenbrenner, is known as the Ecological Systems Theory. It has to do with the rationalization of parent involvement and impact on research studies (e.g., Hung, 2007) on the subject-matter. According to this theory, the development of children is affected not only by factors within the child but also by their family and surrounding world (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Social, political, biological, and economic conditions also affect the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). In his masterpiece, *The*

*Ecology of Human Development* (1979), he described ecology as the settings and institutions that impact humans as they grow. The ecological environment is pictured as a nested arrangement of concentric structures, with each of these structures contained within the next. He arrayed these ecological systems as micro-, meso-, exo-, and macrosystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This theoretical approach focuses on the developing child and the child's interactions with people, objects, and symbols in "proximal processes" across multiple settings, contexts, and environments (Prior & Gerard, 2007).

"A microsystem is a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics" (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p. 22). This is the layer that affects the child most closely (Gestwicki, 2007). Family, school, teachers, peers, child health services, and the neighborhood are some of the main settings and institutions that he mentioned in his definition. Children experience a reciprocal face-to-face relationship with these immediate surroundings. These institutions within the microsystem also interact with and influence each other. For example, school affects neighborhood and neighborhood affects the family members of the child.

The exosystem consists of one or more settings that do not involve the child as an active participant. Extended family member, parents' workplaces, local school board, and the media are considered some of the settings and institutions in the exosystem. These elements indirectly influence the child. For example, if extended family members support the parent psychologically and financially, this parent tends to have a more positive attitude at home.

The mesosystem connects the microsystem and exosystem. This system includes the interrelations among two or more settings in which the child is an active participant. For example, the relations among school, home, and neighborhood comprise the mesosystem. The development of a child is enhanced when the linkages among components of this system are strong and positive (Prior & Gerard, 2007).

Another layer is called the macrosystem, which refers to consistencies “in the form and content of lower-order systems (micro-, meso-, and exo-) that exist at the level of the subculture or the culture as a whole” (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p. 26). This system includes attitudes and ideologies of the cultures such as laws, morals, values, customs, and worldviews. Although these elements of the culture are not readily parts of children’s immediate world, they can be very prominent in their development. For example, family values in Turkish society certainly affect childrearing practices, which have a direct impact on children’s development in that culture.

Moreover, Bronfenbrenner inserts another system known as the chronosystem. This system refers to change or consistency over time in the life of a person. For example, changes in family structure over time, such as its demographic characteristics, which also were taken into account in this study, have effects on a child’s development.

In conclusion, based on Bronfenbrenner’s theory, one can easily argue that children’s school experience is not just made up of interactions between them and the school or teacher. It also includes a broader system involving parents, family, and community. As a result, understanding the influences of a child’s environment provides theoretical support for the idea of parent involvement in young children’s education.

### *Parent Involvement Models*

In order to understand parent involvement in education and make better use of it in both research and practice areas, several parent involvement models have been developed that are accepted in the field. Some of these models are more popular and considered as more practical than others. For example, Epstein and Hoover-Dempsey are two major figures in the field whose parent involvement models are the most widely recognized and broadly used. Thereby, the investigator provided information on these two perspectives in the following subsections.

#### *Epstein's Parent Involvement Model*

Epstein (1995), a main figure in parent involvement research and practice, introduced six types of parent involvement: (1) parenting, (2) communicating, (3) volunteering, (4) learning at home, (5) decision making, and (6) collaborating with the community. These six types of involvement have been recommended for employment in a comprehensive program of school, family, and community partnerships (Sheldon & Epstein, 2005a). These six types of involvement are explained below.

*Parenting* is helping all families establish supportive home environments for children as students. Suggestions for home conditions that serve to improve learning, parental education activities, and family support programs are some practice examples of this type. Results for children include good and improved attendance, awareness of importance of school, and develop respect for parents (Epstein et al, 2002).

*Communicating* is establishing effective two-way communication about school programs and children's progress. Parent-teacher conferences, clear information on school policies and programs, and phone calls are some of the examples of this kind of

communication. Some of the benefits for children are awareness of own progress, understanding school policies, and improving communication skills (Epstein et al, 2002).

*Volunteering* is recruiting and organizing parent help and support at school, home, or other locations. Helping with school maintenance via volunteering for safety and operations of schools, assisting educators and helping other parents are examples of this type of involvement. Children can improve communicating skills with adults and increase learning skills from tutoring by means of these volunteering activities (Epstein et al, 2002).

*Learning at home* is providing information and ideas to families about how to help their children at home with their learning. For example, information on homework policies and how to supervise children, family reading activities at school are included in this involvement type. Results for children contain higher homework completion rates, increased view of parent as more similar to teacher, and enhanced self-concept as learner (Epstein et al, 2002).

*Decision making* is having parents serve as representatives and leaders on school committees. PTA/PTO organizations and networks to link all parents are examples of this type. Awareness of representation of families and understanding that student rights are protected are some of the outcomes for children (Epstein et al, 2002).

*Collaborating with the community* is defined as identifying and integrating resources and services from the community to improve school programs. Information on community activities and services that link to learning skills, participation of alumni in school, and service integration through partnerships with organizations such as civic, cultural, and health agencies in the community are considered as sample practices of this

type of involvement. Increased skills and talents, and specific benefits linked to community programs are some of the results for children (Epstein et al, 2002).

Consequently, Epstein's parent involvement model is comprehensive and helpful but it is more focused on educators' side of the process and is like a manual for practitioners. In turn, it does not help the researchers to understand the subject-matter from the parents' perspectives. For example, most of the parent involvement activities mentioned above can be initiated by school staff, mainly teachers. However, the main actor is the parent—for this reason, parents' side needs to be a major domain in a model if their involvement is to be analyzed and enhanced. In fact, parents' decisions to be involved or not are imperative for this aspect of children's educational lives. How their decisions about involvement are formed is a significant issue for study. Although several scholars in the research field have proposed several models (e.g., Eccles & Harold, 1996; Grolnick et al., 1997; Smith, Connell, Wright, Sizer, & Norman, 1997) to look at how parents decide to be involved in their children's education, they have underestimated the presence and impact of psychological and demographic factors in parents' decisions about involvement. Nevertheless, there is one model that emphasizes the parent aspect of the issue with respect to reasons for involvement, introduced by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995). Their model is more than a typology and helps researchers wanting to analyze the perceptions and beliefs of parents' involvement in their children's education which is so important in their decisions and the entire parent involvement process. Therefore, this model was used by this researcher since the aim of this study was to examine Turkish parents' perceptions and beliefs about their involvement in addition to

their demographic characteristics' relationship with these psychological factors. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model is delineated in the next section.

#### *Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's Parent Involvement Model*

Although parent involvement is a critical factor in children's educational lives, much less is known about the psychological factors that motivate parents' involvement practices (Green, Walker, Hoover-Dempsey, & Sandler, 2007). Therefore, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997) presented a comprehensive model from the perspective of parents about the parent involvement process grounded in psychological and educational research (e.g., Sheldon, 2002) which has been empirically tested by researchers (e.g., Reed, Jones, Walker, & Hoover-Dempsey, 2000).

Based on a psychological perspective, this model not only contends with specific types of parent involvement but also endeavors to explain why parents choose to be involved (Fan & Chen, 2001), how they choose specific forms of involvement, and how parent involvement makes a difference (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). By focusing on the most prominent specific variables of the parent involvement process from parents' perspectives, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997) suggested that parents often become involved in their children's education for three reasons: (1) they build up a parental role construction about their participation in their children's education; (2) they develop a positive parental efficacy for helping their children succeed in school; and (3) they perceive opportunities or demands for involvement from children and school.

According to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997), their model can address parent involvement process in a multifaceted and dynamic way. They offered a framework for their model (see Appendix A) to depict and analyze the parent



involvement process in a holistic way. To answer the questions about parent involvement mentioned above, they outlined five levels of parent involvement in this model. Some ingredients of these five levels were also drawn from Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

In the first level of the model, Hoover-Dempsey, Walker and Sandler (2005) suggested that parents become involved in their children's education for four major reasons: (1) parental role construction for involvement (Do parents believe they should be involved?), (2) parental efficacy for helping the child learn (Do parents believe that their involvement will make a difference?), (3) parental perception of invitations to involvement from the school (Do parents believe that the school wants their involvement?), and (4) parental perception of invitations to involvement from the child (Do parents believe that the child wants or needs their involvement?).

Level 2 includes three factors that shape parents' choices of involvement, such as home-based or school-based activities. These three constructs are: (1) parents' perceptions of their own skills, interests, and abilities (e.g., Do they believe they have the knowledge to help the child with reading assignment?); (2) parents' perceptions of other demands on time and energy (e.g., Do their work schedule allow time to read together?); and (3) parents' perceptions of specific invitations to involvement from children, teachers, and schools (e.g., Do teachers invite them to volunteer at school) (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

In Level 3, the model suggests that parents' involvement influences students' outcomes through the mechanisms (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). These mechanisms are: (1) modeling of appropriate school-related skills (e.g., showing the child

how to solve a specific type of math problem), (2) reinforcement of learning (e.g., praising the child verbally when he or she solves a problem), and (3) instruction (e.g., offering teaching help with specific homework) (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005a).

Level 4 of the model focuses on the tempering/mediating constructs influenced by Level 3 variables to the extent that parents use developmentally appropriate strategies (e.g., supervising child's homework) and the fit between parents' choice of activities and the school's expectations for involvement (e.g., parent and teacher make similar assumptions about appropriate student learning habits) (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005a). Level 5 of the model addresses the outcomes of parent involvement for the child (e.g., achievement, skills and knowledge, and personal sense of efficacy for succeeding in school) (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

Later, the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler parent involvement model was revised (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005). These revisions were also reported in Walker et al. (2005). However, because examination of the full model is ongoing, the researchers (e.g., Walker et al., 2005) published and discussed only revisions in first two levels and made the findings available for other researchers. The lack of publications about the other levels of the model does not affect this study since the researcher focused on and was interested in only the first level of the model. The revised model's framework is depicted in Appendix B.

Ideas displayed in levels 1 and 2 in the previous version are subsumed under three overarching constructs in Level 1 of the revised version of the model (Walker et al., 2005). First, parental role construction and parental self-efficacy are organized in one broad construct, which is called parents' motivational beliefs (personal motivation).

Second, parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school (formerly at Level 1) and perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child and from the child's teacher (formerly at Level 2) now comprise a second overarching construct which is parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others (invitations). Third, two constructs originally at Level 2, parents' perceptions of their available time and energy, and specific skills and knowledge for involvement, are now organized in the third broad idea at Level 1: parents' perceived life context (life context) (Walker et al., 2005). There are also several studies (e.g., Grolnick et al., 1997) that looked at the interactions among the domains of these three constructs. The researchers (e.g., Green & Hoover-Dempsey, 2007) found that all domains were positively correlated with each other with the only exception demonstrated by the study of Green et al. (2007), which found that parental self-efficacy and specific teacher invitations for involvement were correlated negatively.

These three overarching constructs of Level 1 of the model were addressed by Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2005b) as the psychological contributors and major sources of motivation for involvement. Thus, the model offered a strictly psychological perspective of parent involvement (Walker & Hoover-Dempsey, 2006) proposing a strong theoretical framework from which to examine specific dynamic psychological variables (Green et al., 2007) of parents' involvement in their children's schooling.

Moreover, it is essential to mention the major indicators taken into account by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler to understand what parent involvement meant to them. While developing and revising this model their understanding of parent involvement practices included parent-child communication about schoolwork, supervision of

homework (Walker, Hoover-Dempsey, Whetsel, & Green, 2004), educational aspirations for children, school contact and participation, provision of school supplies, parent-teacher conferences, parent involvement in classroom volunteer work, parent involvement in tutoring at home (Green & Hoover-Dempsey, 2007) and parent involvement in carrying out home instruction programs designed or suggested by teachers to supplement regular classroom instruction which were also focused on in part by Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, and Brissie (1987).

Consequently, by putting forth a multidimensional parent involvement model based on a psychological perspective, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's model provides a very valuable framework for researchers who want to do research on the psychological factors of parent involvement. Since this dissertation study examined the psychological factors of parent involvement in the Turkish context, the psychological constructs from the first level of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's model reported in Walker et al. (2005) were followed by the author except for "specific child invitations". The absence of other variables such as parents' SES was not meant to indicate that they were not important to a full explanation of parent involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). However, exclusion of these kinds of demographic variables can limit the analysis and outcomes of a research study. For example, three major psychological factors can be considered as a set of variables having direct effects on parents' involvement behaviors and demographic variables of parents may be another set influence on involvement behaviors alone. The relationship between these two sets of variables is worth study and indepth analysis. Therefore, this research study not only investigated the psychological factors of parent involvement from parents' perspectives by using Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995,

1997, 2005) model, but also focused on the relationship between these constructs and demographic variables.

### *Psychological Factors of Parent Involvement*

According to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's (2005) model, there are three major sets of psychological factors in the parent involvement process. These three overarching constructs are: (1) parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement, (2) parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others, and (3) parents' perceptions of life context variables. Each psychological factor is discussed in the following sections based on the literature in the field.

#### *Parents' Motivational Beliefs Regarding Their Involvement*

Parents' personal motivational beliefs about involvement in their children's education constitute one of the psychological factors in their involvement process (Walker et al., 2005). Researchers (e.g., Sheldon, 2002) have claimed that parents' involvement is motivated by two belief systems: role construction for involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005) and self-efficacy for helping the child succeed in school (Kay, Fitzgerald, Paradee, & Mellencamp, 1994). Parental role construction refers to "parents' beliefs about what they should do in relation to the child's education" (Walker et al., 2005, p. 89). Parental self-efficacy for helping the child in school is defined as "parents' beliefs that their involvement in their children's schooling will positively affect their children's learning and school success" (Anderson & Minke, 2007, p. 312). These two domains of motivational beliefs about involvement are explained more fully in the following subsections.

*Parental Role Construction for Involvement in Children's Education*

Roles consist of sets of beliefs owned by groups and individuals in a society and focus on the behavior of individuals (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). These beliefs include ideas that influence the individual's choice of behaviors within a particular context and also reflect understanding of personal responsibility for behaviors that are appropriate in a context (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005a). Applied to parents' involvement in their children's education, parental role construction relating to involvement refers to parents' role activity beliefs about what they are responsible for in relation to children's education (Green et al., 2007), specifically "the range of activities that parents believe important, necessary, and permissible for their own engagement in children's schooling" (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001, p. 201). Simply, parental role construction frames what parents believe they are supposed to do regarding their children's education (Reed et al., 2000). The construction of the parental role is crucial for parents as they think about, imagine, anticipate, and act on their children's educationally related activities (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). Therefore, parents become involved in their children's education because they construct the parental role with respect to their personal involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

Taking advantage of the fundamentals of Bronfenbrenner's (1979,1986) ecological systems theory and Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) suggested that parents' role construction is "distilled from parents' ideas about the parental role, learned largely through observation and modeling of their own parents' school-related involvement, their friends' involvement in children's schooling" (p. 313). Parents' beliefs about child rearing in a given social and cultural

context and their knowledge about child development also influence their role activity for involvement (Green et al., 2007). Hence, roles are socially constructed since individuals' beliefs are affected by the society (Biddle, 2001) and culture in which they live (Delgado-Gaitan, 1992).

Moreover, Hoover-Dempsey, Wilkins, Sandler, and O'Connor (2004) stated that there are two major manifestations of parental role construction: active and passive. In active role construction, parents believe that primary responsibility for the child's educational outcomes belongs to the parent. However, in passive role construction, parents believe that primary responsibility for the child's educational outcomes belongs to the teacher and school.

Several studies (e.g., Drummond & Stipek, 2004) have emphasized the importance of parental role construction by providing empirical support for the significance of role construction to predict, influence, and shape parent involvement. For example, Deslandes and Bertrand (2005) conducted a study with 770 parents and found that parents' role construction made significant contributions to the prediction of their involvement and that parents who engage in active role construction are more involved in their children's education than parents who hold less active role beliefs. Supporting that finding, Kay et al. (1994) conducted a qualitative study with parents whose children had learning disabilities and found that parents not only refused to give up being involved in their children's educational activities (e.g., homework assignments) but also were inspired to obtain more information on how they could become more involved in their children's learning and how they could improve the partnership between themselves and the school. Likewise, a longitudinal analysis by Levin et al. (1997) reported that parents

mostly carry on their involvement, for example, in their children's homework activities even if there are personal limitations.

More to the point, Okagaki, Frensch, and Gordon (1995) reported that parents' beliefs for their involvement in children's schooling are an identifier of responsibility of parenting and complementing that statement, Baum and McMurray-Schwarz (2004) asserted that when discussing the role of parents in the child's education, students often recognized parents as valuable resources in their education. These research findings ensure the power of role construction as a motivator of involvement (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001).

There is also other research evidence (e.g. Deslandes & Bertnard, 2005) conducted with English-speaking participants focusing on the level of parental role construction for involvement. For example, Green and Hoover-Dempsey (2007) conducted research with parents of 136 elementary children and reported that parents had strong role activity beliefs ( $M = 5.57/6.00$ ) for involvement in their children's education. Similarly, Anderson and Minke (2007) conducted research with participants with more diverse backgrounds and found that respondents tended to report strong role beliefs for their involvement in children's education.

Consequently, the presence of parental role construction is crucial in the parent involvement process as a motivator for involvement. Parents' role activity beliefs are affected by several elements, such as their own and other people's school experiences and ideas, their child rearing attitudes and practices, their knowledge about child development, and the society and culture they live in. Since these influential factors change over time and place, parents' role activity beliefs are subject to change according



to their social, cultural, and demographic characteristics, as well. Given this fact, in assessing parental role activity beliefs relating to involvement in children's education in the Turkish context and evaluating this relationship in connection with demographic variables, this study contributes to a better understanding of the parent involvement process in Turkish society as well as to how role activity beliefs differ, if at all, in Turkish culture. Following Level 1 of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's (2005) parent involvement model, parental self-efficacy is the second construct of parents' personal motivation to be involved in children's education. This construct is explained in detail below.

*Parental Self-Efficacy for Helping the Child Succeed in School*

People guide their lives through their beliefs of personal efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Besides, efficacy beliefs are a significant factor in one's thought processes and the level and persistency of motivation which are crucial contributors to perform an action to attain a goal (Bandura, 1997). Applied to the domain of parent involvement, parental self-efficacy refers to parent beliefs about personal ability to help children succeed in school (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992). Thus, the second major construct in personal motivation for involvement is parental self-efficacy for helping the child succeed in school.

Similar to role construction, self-efficacy is socially constructed (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005b). According to Bandura (1995), there are four sources of efficacy beliefs: personal mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and psychological or emotional arousal. Applied to the parent involvement field, the work of

Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2005a) suggests that parental self-efficacy for helping the child succeed in school requires successful experiences in helping the children (personal mastery), opportunities to observe alike parents successfully helping children in school-related activities (vicarious experience), encouragement from others (social persuasion), and support for the positive feelings that come with success or realistic encouragement from others (emotional arousal). These sources suggest strongly that schools and important others (e.g., family members and social groups) have significant influence on parents' sense of efficacy for helping their children succeed in school (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005b).

Self-efficacy theory suggests that parents become involved partly because they believe their activities will make a positive difference for the child (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997), think about the potential outcomes of their involvement actions, and develop goals for their involvement in their children's education based on their appraisal of their capabilities in the situation (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Patorelli, 1996). Hence, the sense of efficacy for helping children succeed in school is critical because it enables the parent to act for involvement in relation to his or her child's schooling and to persist in the face of challenges that may emerge through helping his or her children succeed in school (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992).

Several works in the related literature (e.g., Carlisle, Stanley, & Kemple, 2005) underscore the importance of parental self-efficacy in helping the child succeed in school. Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2005a) reported that a parent with strong self-efficacy for helping the child succeed is likely to deal with the challenges and work through the difficulties to positive outcomes, whereas a parent with low self-efficacy regarding

helping the child succeed may avoid their involvement or simply quit if they believe that involvement does not make any difference. For example, if parents believe that their help with homework makes a difference in their children's school performance, they tend to become involved in helping with homework and are less likely to quit (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005a). In addition, Hoover-Dempsey et al. (1992) found that higher levels of parent efficacy were associated with more involvement (e.g., more hours of classroom volunteering and more hours spent in educational activities with children) with parental monitoring of students (Shumow & Lomax, 2002), and in turn with children's school grades and achievement (Grolnick et al., 1997). Consistent with their findings, the results from a survey conducted by Balli, Demo, and Wedman (1998) demonstrated that parental efficacy was correlated with more involvement in their children's education.

Although there is a lack of research on parents' sense of efficacy for involvement in other cultural contexts, several investigations (e.g. Reed et al., 2000) have been carried out in the United States with American participants. These works evaluate parents' beliefs about their efficacy in helping their children succeed in school. For instance, a research study by Green and Hoover-Dempsey (2007) indicated that parents had a strong sense of efficacy about helping the child learn ( $M = 5.35/6.00$ ). Even where parents expressed doubts about involvement, their suspicions were found to be related to a lack of adequate information, not to doubts about their capability (Kay et al., 1994). Likewise, Deslandes and Bertrand conducted a study with parents from Quebec, Canada, and found that parents had relatively high self-efficacy for involvement based on their self-reported data. Moreover, Hoover-Dempsey et al. (1992) administered a study with 390 parents and reported that most of the participants had strong efficacy for helping their children's

learning. They found that parents' average efficacy score was 45.71 ( $SD = 5.82$ ) on a scale of 12 to 60, which indicated that parents as a group had relatively positive perceptions of their efficacy with regard to their involvement (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992). In addition, findings from several other researchers in the field (e.g. Anderson & Minke; Cooper, Lindsay, Nye, & Greathouse, 1998) demonstrated relatively high levels of parental efficacy with respect to involvement.

However, as Bronfenbrenner (1986) outlined, families' and parents' belief systems are affected by the community, society, and culture that surround them. Completing his idea and making it more specific to the relationship between self-efficacy and cultures, Bandura (1997) drew attention to the finding that self-efficacy can differ from culture to culture with respect to individualistic and collectivistic characteristics. Further, important elements of a particular culture such as values, meanings, customs, and other social aspects can influence the sense of self-efficacy (Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi, Choi, & Yoon, 1994). Differentiation in the sense of self-efficacy with respect to individualistic and collectivistic social systems aside, neither individualistic nor collectivistic cultures are a uniform lot (e.g., Italians, Germans, and British differ in their particular brands of individualism) (Bandura, 1997). Thus, variables such as personal self-efficacy in general and parental self-efficacy for helping the child succeed in school in particular need to be assessed in their own cultural and societal contexts. For instance, the findings from a study conducted in the United States with American participants may not be similar to the findings from a research study done in Turkey with Turkish participants. Therefore, it is essential to investigate parental self-efficacy for

involvement in the Turkish context to contribute to a full understanding of the parent involvement process in Turkey.

In summary, a personal sense of efficacy for helping the child succeed is an important element in parent involvement and is linked with parental role construction. These two constructs construe the motivational beliefs of parents to become involved in their children's education. Although parents' sense of efficacy is proved to be at high levels in Western cultures (e.g., American, Canadian), the results might show difference in other cultural contexts (e.g., Turkish). Thus, this dissertation study provides findings that foster understanding of parents' self-efficacy beliefs in the Turkish context. Lastly, despite the fact that motivational beliefs are believed to be a significant overarching construct in psychological factors of parent involvement, parental perceptions of invitations to involvement constitute another overarching domain of these psychological factors which are explained in detail below.

#### *Parental Perceptions of Invitations for Involvement from Others*

Parental perceptions of invitations to be involved from others are depicted as the second major psychological construct in the parent involvement model by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005). This overarching construct includes parental perceptions of: (1) general invitations for involvement from the school, and (2) specific teacher invitations (Walker et al., 2005). General invitations for involvement refer to parents' perceptions that the school wants them to be involved. Specific teacher invitations for involvement are defined as parents' perceptions that the child's teacher wants them to be involved in their children's education. These two domains are delineated in detail below.

*Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School*

Parental perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school are claimed to influence parents' decisions to become involved (Walker et al., 2005) and the effectiveness of the overall involvement process (Mulligan, 2006). General school invitations include broad school characteristics or activities that convey to the parents that their involvement in their children's education is important, welcome, and useful for students' learning and success (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997; Walker et al., 2005). A welcoming and responsive school atmosphere and clear and manageable suggestions for parents' home-based support of the child's learning are some examples of general school invitations (Walker et al., 2005). Invitations are manifested in the creation of a welcoming school climate that is responsive to parental questions and suggestions, school activities that make certain that parents are well informed regarding their children's progress, school requirements and events that encourage parent involvement (Green et al., 2007).

Several researchers (e.g., Griffith, 1998) underscored the importance of general school invitations. For example, in an ecological study, Smith et al. (1997) found that school climate was one of the significant contributors to involving parents as partners in their child's schooling, both at home and at school. They also stated that schools with positive climates were found to have parents who were less likely to report barriers such as scheduling, lack of childcare, or lack of transportation as inhibiting their involvement in the school. Supporting their findings, Simon's (2004) study, which was based on longitudinal data, revealed that when schools reached out to involve parents, parents were more likely to be involved in parenting, volunteering, and learning-at-home activities.

However, a few studies (e.g., Gutman & Midgley, 2000) mentioned some problems with respect to general school invitations for involvement. For instance, Kratochwill et al. (2004) asserted that schools rarely invite parents to become involved in their children's education. Particularly in poor communities, parents are more likely to be seen as part of the problem in educating children, rather than the solution (Comer, 1980).

Although empirical research evidence is scarce regarding the parents' perceptions of the school's general invitations to be involved, it has been stated that many parents' perceptions of general invitations and opportunities from the school range from low to high levels (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005), indicating that a portion of parents report that general invitations from the school were sufficient while other parents reported that the school's general invitations to be involved were moderate or insufficient. Further, parents reported barriers to involvement (Prior & Gerard, 2007), such as insufficient communication about involvement between them and their child's school (Henderson & Mapp, 2002). For example, Pena (2000) found that parents perceived that their child's school did not really welcome their involvement and did not provide specific suggestions about how to help their children.

Accordingly, parental perceptions of general invitations to involvement from the school are of great importance. General invitations from the school can also contribute to parental role construction and parental self-efficacy about their involvement (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005a). Positive consistent general invitations from the school can contribute to both the intensity and quality of parent involvement. Schools might claim that they have a good climate for involvement, but parents might perceive the opposite. Therefore, it is essential to examine parental perceptions of general invitations for

involvement from the school and their relation to demographic variables since these perceptions may vary.

*Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child's Teacher*

Specific teacher invitations have been identified as an influential motivator in parent involvement (Simon, 2004). Parental perceptions of specific invitations from the teacher include direct requests from the teacher, in any of a number of forms, for parent involvement in helping the child at home or engaging in school-based activities (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 2005). Encouraging parents to visit the classroom, assigning homework activities that involve parents, inviting parents to special events at school, and communicating effectively with parents are some examples of such invitation efforts (Epstein et al., 2002; Walker et al., 2005).

Gestwicki (2007) strongly asserted that their invitations have positive effects on collaborations with the families. For instance, it was found that parents' perception of specific teacher invitations was the most powerful predictor of both home-based involvement (Deslandes & Bertrand, 2005) and school-based involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler 2005). Also, parents with stronger beliefs in the teacher's invitations to involve them also believed strongly in the "goodness" of the school (Dauber & Epstein, 1993) and in the quality of teachers (Greenwood & Hickman, 1991). Hence, parental perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child's teacher are a significant factor of parent involvement process (Hartley, 2000).

A number of studies (e.g., Epstein & Van Voorhis, 2001) have suggested that when the child's teacher invites parents to be involved, parents from very diverse



backgrounds are more likely to become involved in their children's education (Olivos, 2006). For example, Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones, and Reed (2002) claimed that parents value the suggestions that come from their child's teacher for helping their children learn. Parents also appear to involve themselves in their child's school-related activities (e.g., homework) when they perceive invitations from their child's teachers suggesting that their involvement is wanted and expected (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). In addition, Prior and Gerard (2007) stated that without sufficient communication between teachers and parents, unspoken perceptions and expectations can lead to misunderstandings and disappointment. For instance, some perceive that teachers are the experts and parents are not (Prior & Gerard, 2007), which can make parents feel unappreciated (Lawson, 2003). Communicating with parents regularly is also positively associated with children's academic achievement (Patrikakou, Weissberg, Redding, & Walberg) and parents who are well informed by the teacher about their children's educational progress hold high expectations for them, which in turn affects students' learning positively (Catsambis, 2002). Supporting these findings, Balli et al. (1998) reported notable success in increasing the effectiveness of parent involvement activities in their intervention program when teachers invited parents to participate regularly. Thus, teachers who respond to parents' demands to know more about their children's learning (Corno, 2000) provide suggestions about how to contribute their children's educational progress, and value parents' ideas and efforts can be helpful in children's learning (Green et al., 2007).

Simon (2004) conducted a research study to analyze individual-level reports from parents about their perceptions of school outreach and their own involvement. Simon's

(2004) study reported that although most teachers and principals believe that they have invited parents to be involved, parents' perceptions may be the opposite. For example, teachers might claim that they send invitation letters to parents while parents stated that they have never received such an invitation or they did not have time to review the information. This perception disparity of specific invitations from the child's teacher was also argued to stem in part from the idea that parents and others may exaggerate their own efforts and minimize others' to make themselves appear most favorable (Simon, 2004). Moreover, Halsey (2005) carried out qualitative research about parents' perceptions of specific teacher invitations. Halsey's (2005) study revealed that teachers' perceptions of invitations may not be perceived as an actual invitation by parents. Additionally, in Pena's (2000) study, parents reported that teachers do not invite them to be involved and do not welcome their involvement. Parents also reported an unmet need for specific suggestions about how to help their children (Pena, 2000). Consistent with these findings, Deslandes and Bertrand's (2005) study of parents with children in Grades 7, 8, and 9 indicated that parental perceptions of invitations from the child's teachers were very low, with the means ranging from 1.55/6.00, 1.41/6.00, and 1.31/6.00, respectively.

In sum, while the literature in the field robustly depicts the importance and benefits of specific teachers' invitations for involvement, the empirical research evidence reveals that parental perceptions of such invitations tend to be negative and critical. More research is needed to prove the generalizability of these research findings, especially in other cultural contexts, such as the Turkish, since no study has been done in Turkey, to

the author's knowledge, regarding parental perceptions of specific teacher invitations for their involvement in their children's education.

#### *Parental Perceptions of Life Context Variables*

Parent involvement process is also influenced by parents' perceptions of life context variables (Walker et al., 2005). Therefore, the third psychological overarching construct in Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's (2005) parent involvement model is parental perceptions of life context variable. This construct includes parental perceptions of: (1) personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities, and (2) personal time and energy for involvement activities. These two domains are explained in detail in the following subsections.

#### *Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities*

People's knowledge and skill level in a specific domain is critical to their thoughts and actions. Applied to the parent involvement area, parents' perceptions of their own knowledge and skills are an important influence on their involvement choices in their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). Knowing how to communicate effectively with their children and teachers, helping with and supervising their child's homework, and being aware of the special events and volunteering opportunities at their child's school are some examples of parental knowledge and skills relating to their involvement in their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005). Knowledge and skills can also be depicted as a social capital needed by parents and engaged in through an involvement process that impacts their children's education positively (Kim, 2002).

Several research studies (e.g., Baumrind, 1991) have indicated that if parents perceived their knowledge and skills to be sufficient, they were more likely to be involved in activities with their children, which in turn affected their parental tendencies to value their children's school success. On the other hand, if parents perceived that their knowledge and skills were inadequate, they were more likely to seek help from others such as child's teacher or a knowledgeable family member about how they could help their children's learning (Delgado-Gaitan, 1992).

Parents' skills and knowledge also affect the degree and type of involvement (Smrekar & Cohen-Vogel, 2001). Supporting that claim, researchers (e.g., Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1995) have shown that almost all parents (97%) report helping their children with their homework; however, their perceived skills and knowledge of particular subject-matter affected the type of their involvement (Walker et al., 2004). For example, parents who perceived their knowledge and skills to be adequate in math but inadequate in literacy tended to help with math rather than with reading homework. Thus, self-perceptions of specific skills and knowledge influence the type of involvement parents choose; in general, they tend to choose involvement forms in which they believe they can be successful (Kay et al., 1994) and appear to bartheir involvement if they feel their skills and knowledge are limited (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2002). These studies underscored the power of knowledge and skills in the parent involvement process.

In addition, other studies (e.g., Smrekar & Cohen-Vogel, 2001) have focused on the parents' perceptions of their own knowledge and skills with respect to their involvement in their children's education. For example, Walker et al. (2005) conducted a study with 495 parents and said that parents reported moderately high levels of

knowledge and skills for involvement (lower group,  $M = 4.02$ ,  $SD = .65$ ; higher group,  $M = 5.24$ ,  $SD = .36$ , range = 1-6). Consistent with these findings, Green and Hoover-Dempsey (2007) found that parents' had strong perceptions of their skills and knowledge regarding their involvement ( $M = 5.32/6.00$ ,  $SD = .50$ ) based on their self-report. Although not too many studies have been done about the issue in the field, these findings demonstrate that most of the parents hold strong perceptions about their own knowledge and skills for involvement in their children's education.

In sum, parents' perceptions of their knowledge and skills for involvement are a very important psychological domain in understanding parent involvement as a process. As stated by Smith et al. (1997), positive perceptions of their own competency can contribute to effective partnerships. The second domain of parents' perceptions of life context variables is their perceptions about time and energy for involvement. This domain is explained in the next sub-section.

#### *Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities*

The second domain of perceived life context variables is parents' perceptions of time and energy for involvement. Parents' perceptions of their available time and energy are considered to influence their thinking about their involvement in their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005b). Parental perceptions of their time and energy are a crucial psychological factor that can affect their involvement either positively or negatively. Parents' perceptions of whether they have enough time and energy to communicate effectively with their child about the school day, help out at their child's school, attend special events at school, and help and supervise their child's homework are main examples of this factor (McGraw, Bergen, & Schumm, 1993; Walker et al., 2005).

Several investigators (e.g., Lareau, 2000) have reported that parents' work schedules affected their involvement. For example, parents whose jobs require heavy time demands and unstable work schedules are less likely to be involved than those who have reasonable and flexible work hours (Petr, 2003). Also, parents who have other responsibilities that take time and energy from their daily lives revealed an effect on the level and quality of their involvement (Trevino, 2004). Being responsible for child-care and elder-care are examples of these kinds of responsibilities that lead parents to become less involved in their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005b). Thus, it was suggested that a full mix of demands on parents' time and energy, particularly related to their employment and other family responsibilities, are the primary factors affecting the types and levels of their involvement (Lopez, 2001). Therefore, specific involvement activities that "fit" the parents' potential time and energy are suggested (Gestwicki, 2007; Xu & Corno, 1998) to avoid this matter from becoming a barrier to effective parent involvement programs and activities (Moles, 1982). These were some of the studies underscoring the importance of parents' time and energy for involvement.

Besides, researchers (e.g., Walker et al., 2005) focused on the parents' perceptions of their time and energy for involvement. There has been an increase in two-breadwinner families, one-parent families, and family members holding more than one job, and families have many demands on their time (Gestwicki, 2007). This fact is evident in results that show that 66% of employed parents with children under 18 believe that they do not have enough time for their children (Families and Work Institute, 1994). Further, Gettinger and Waters (1998) conducted a research study with 558 parents about their perceptions of opportunities for parent involvement in schools and found that

parents reported that time and energy variables such as inflexible work schedules occurred as a negative effect on their involvement. The U.S. Department of Education (1994) report also revealed that many parents have limited time for involvement in their children's education. However, inconsistent with these findings, the results of Walker et al.'s (2005) study indicated that parents reported moderately high levels of time and energy for involvement (lower group,  $M = 3.69/6.00$ ,  $SD = .68$ ; higher group,  $M = 5.03/6.00$ ,  $SD = .38$ ). Green et al. (2007) also found that parents had strong perceptions of time and energy ( $M = 5.32/6.00$ ,  $SD = .54$ ) relating to their involvement in their children's education.

To sum up, parents' perceptions of time and energy are an important motivational factor in their involvement as the second domain of the third psychological construct in Level 1 of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's parent involvement model. However, there needs to be more research on this aspect of parent involvement, which was the aim of this study. This study also investigated how these psychological constructs are affected by the demographic variables of parents. Thus, the next part of this literature review includes a look at the demographic factors in parent involvement and their potential relationship with psychological factors.

#### *Demographic Factors of Parent Involvement*

Parent involvement is a multidimensional process through which multiple variables interplay. Numerous studies (e.g., Eccles & Harold, 1996) documented the relationship between parent involvement and such characteristics as parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children. For example, Koonce and Harper (2005) asserted that parent

involvement was predicted by parents' income and education level. However, the studies (e.g., Fan and Chen, 2001) focusing on the relationship between demographic variables and parent involvement yielded relatively mixed results. Several researchers (e.g., Bornstein, Hahn, Suwalsky, & Haynes, 2003) found parents' involvement to be related to their demographic characteristics. On the other hand, some researchers have noted that these family variables do not explain variability in levels and effectiveness of involvement (Fan & Chen, 2001). Therefore, when trying to understand the parents' involvement in their children's education, in general, and their beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in particular, one should consider the demographic characteristics of parents and the influence of these characteristics on the psychological factors of parent involvement. Thus, the literature review on demographic factors such as parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children are delineated in the following paragraphs in relation to parent involvement and the psychological factors parent involvement.

Parents' age, although included in most parent involvement investigations, was found not to be related to their involvement (Newman, 2005). On the other hand, parents' gender was shown to influence their involvement (Goldman, 2005). For instance, cognitive, social, and emotional developments are stronger for children whose mothers and fathers are consistently present and involved in children's education (Prior & Gerard, 2007). However, much of the research focused almost entirely on mothers and underestimated father involvement (Goldman, 2005). Nevertheless, it was indicated that even after controlling for mother involvement, early father involvement was significantly related to their children's learning and success (Flouri, 2005).



The absence of fathers in parent involvement activities and programs is partly related to their role activity beliefs since many fathers see their role as “a breadwinner” and see involvement in their children’s education as “women’s work”; and school-family programs as “women’s spaces” (Goldman, 2005). Although there was no significant difference between fathers’ and mothers’ efficacy for involvement (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992), fathers were less likely than mothers to think that children’s education is equally or more parents’ responsibility than that of schools (Goldman, 2005) especially in working-class families (Lareau, 2000), which indicates that they do not develop parental role construction (role activity beliefs) regarding their involvement in their children’s education. More to the point, some fathers perceive that they do not have enough time and energy to become involved since they have to work long hours to meet their families’ expectations (Fitzgerald, 2004). It was also asserted that schools were unwelcoming to fathers (Prior & Gerard, 2007), which resulted in negative perceptions of fathers about the school and teacher invitations. For example, some single-parent fathers perceived that they are excluded from school-based networks of local mothers (Goldman, 2005). As a result, many fathers remain relatively out of involvement process, but in recent years, more attention has been focused on both parents instead of only mothers.

Additionally, several researchers (e.g., Gutman & McLoyd, 2000) reported that parent involvement varied widely by income. Miedel and Reynolds (1999) documented that low-income families were not involved in their children’s education as much as high-income families. Likewise, Reynolds, Weissberg, and Kaspro (1992) conducted a study and found that lower-income tend to be less involved in their children’s education. Also these parents were claimed to have had previous negative interactions with the schools

during their own educational experiences that may cause low levels of their involvement (Eccles & Harold, 1993) and poorer quality relationships with teachers than higher-income parents (Lareau, 2003). This poor relationship usually results in parents feelings of alienation, negativity, and impotence, which in turn affects low-income parents' efficacy for their involvement in their children's education in a negative way (Izzo et al., 1999), in contrast, Hoover-Dempsey et al., (1992) found that there was no significant relationship between parents' income and their efficacy for involvement.

Further, low-income parents are more likely to face barriers that limit the time and energy needed for involvement (McLoyd, 1990). Besides, many of the low-income parents who actually try to become involved, are unsure how to act (Seda, 2007), indicating low levels of knowledge and skills for involvement. On the contrary, the higher SES parents were found to have better knowledge and skills for involvement, such as knowing strategies to help their children's schooling and skills for communicating with teachers effectively (Baker & Stevenson, 1986). Similarly, Lareau (1996) reported that working-class parents differed from middle- and upper-class parents with respect to their role activity beliefs. According to Lareau (2000), working-class parents have "separated" views of home and school and tend to believe their roles involve basic preparations such as getting children ready but not going beyond that, whereas middle- and upper-class parents have "interconnected" view of home and school and tend to believe that their roles involved responsibilities such as monitoring and keeping top on their children's progress. In contrast, Segal (1985)'s study implied that parents' income level does not predict their role activity beliefs since low-income parents of similar status varied significantly in their beliefs about their involvement.

Besides, research (e.g., Smith et al., 1997) documented the relationship between parents' education level and their involvement in their children's education. Since the extent to which parents want to be involved is related to their own education (Coleman & Churchill, 1997), parents with more education were found to be more involved and develop positive role activity beliefs for their involvement (Sheldon, 2002; Dauber & Esptein, 1993). However, Goldenberg's (1987) study indicated that parents with a low level of education also had positive role activity beliefs about involvement (e.g., engaging in their children's learning). But parents with higher education were found to have a higher level of efficacy than parents with low education in helping the child succeed in school (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992). Interestingly, highly educated parents were found to express less satisfaction with the efforts of teachers (e.g., teacher invitations for involvement) and more positive attitudes toward school (e.g., school invitations) than lower-educated parents (Smith et al., 1997). It was also reported that parents with higher education are more likely to have sufficient knowledge and skills for involvement activities such as assisting in homework (Carlisle et al., 2005). On the other hand, parents with less education claimed to have doubts about their own abilities to help their children in school (Lareau, 2000).

Moreover, parents' marital status has been found to be related to their involvement in their children's education (Carlisle et al., 2005). According to Nord and West (2001), mothers in two-parent families were more likely to be highly involved in their children's education than mothers in single-parent families. Fathers in single-parent families were found to be more likely to be highly involved than fathers in two-parent families (Nord & West, 2001). It was also reported that parents who live apart from their

children were significantly less involved than parents who live with their children (Nord & West, 2001). Families in which both parents were present in the home were more involved in their children's education than were other families (Sheldon, 2002). It was hypothesized that these difference between single and married parents were due to lack of available time and energy for the single parents (Grolnick et al., 1997). Additionally, it was found that effective parent involvement was negatively associated with marital status, indicating lower efficacy for single parents (Hoover-Dempsey & Jones, 1997). In contrast, Hoover-Dempsey et al.'s study (1992) reported no relationship between parents' marital status and their efficacy for involvement.

Furthermore, parents' employment status has also been a factor in parent involvement studies (e.g., Turbiville, Umbarger, & Guthrie, 2000). Especially in single-parent families and in families in which both parents are employed full-time, it is more difficult to be involved due to demanding work schedules and lack of time and energy (Carlisle et al., 2005). For example, Sheldon (2002) found that mothers who were employed full-time were less involved than other mothers. On the other hand, parents who work part-time have difficulties, too, in taking time off to attend parent involvement activities at school (Carlisle et al., 2005). Generally, parent's time and energy for involvement are influenced by the fact that lower-SES parents' work involves inflexible schedules and long or unpredictable hours (Collignon, Men, & Tan, 2001). Therefore, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997) suggested that demands on parents' time and energy, particularly related to employment, serve as a major influence on the type of involvement they choose—as a function of parental role activity and efficacy beliefs.

Lastly, the demands of other family responsibilities (e.g., care of other children at home) were claimed to constrain the range of involvement activities for parents (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). For example, parents with fewer children are more involved at home (Dauber & Epstein, 1989). Thus, parents with multiple children face a lack of adequate time and energy for involvement in their children's education (Carlisle et al., 2005).

In sum, the literatures offers relatively mixed findings about the influence of parents' demographic characteristics on their involvement and on the psychological variables for involvement. However, it has been commonly accepted that demographic variables should be considered in a parent involvement study. There is also a lack of adequate research on how parents' demographic characteristics affect the psychological variables. Therefore, this study is of great importance since the relationship between two sets of variables for parent involvement, including demographic and psychological variables, is investigated comprehensively.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **Methodology**

This chapter contains a description of the methodology followed in this study. The description consists of six parts, including: (1) design of the study, (2) population and sample, (3) instrumentation, (4) pilot study, (5) data collection for the main study, and (6) data analyses. Each section is delineated as follows.

#### *Design of the Study*

This study was comprised of five steps. In the first step, the literature review was used to identify aspects of parent involvement in children's education by considering parents' beliefs and perceptions of their involvement and their demographic characteristics as these related to these psychological factors. This step also included one major research question and three relevant ancillary questions. Proposing these research questions and reviewing the related literature was an important step in setting the basis for the study.

In the second step, the investigator evaluated the sources of validity evidence for the scales. This step also included the adaptation of the related Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler parent involvement model, which was the main instrument for the current study. These scales (see Appendix C) were originally developed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) during a three-year study of the parent involvement process and were also reported in Walker et al. (2005). Data on the original version of these scales were gathered from parents of students in the fourth through sixth grades in

the United States (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005). Moreover, six of the Level 1 scales related to the purpose of this study were adapted to the Turkish context by the researcher (see Appendix D) for use in the present study with Turkish parents of first and second graders. In addition, a demographic survey (see Appendix E) was developed by the researcher for use in this study to detect the demographic characteristics of the research participants and answer the related research questions effectively. This step also comprised conduct of a pilot study to examine reliability issues relating to the adapted Turkish version of the scales.

The third step involved the selection of seven elementary schools in Yozgat, Turkey, for recruiting participants. Distribution of the recruitment materials and research instruments to the participants followed. The last phase of this step involved gathering the completed surveys from the participants via the school administrators.

The fourth step focused on the analysis of the data collected from the participants. Appropriate statistical procedures, including both descriptive and inferential methods, were utilized. The data analysis emphasized mainly the participants' beliefs and perceptions of their involvement in their children's education and how these psychological factors were affected by their demographic characteristics.

In the final step, the investigator interpreted the research findings and provided them in narrative form. Moreover, the researcher put forth several suggestions and offered thoughts on the implications of this study's findings. The researcher also introduced recommendations for future studies.

### *Population and Sample*

The population of this study included Turkish parents over the age of 18 years residing in the Yozgat province of Turkey, who had a child in the first or second grade in elementary school. From this population, the study involved 374 parents as participants. These participants were selected from parents with children in seven public elementary schools in Yozgat. Parents who decided voluntarily to participate responded to the demographic survey and the adapted Turkish version of the six parent involvement Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model.

### *Instrumentation*

Data collection involved two instruments: (1) the adapted Turkish version of the related Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler parent involvement model, and (2) the demographic survey.

Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) developed the Level 1 parent involvement scales based on their theoretical model of the parent involvement process. These scales have been used to measure psychological factors of parent involvement in children's education (i.e., parents' motivations for involvement). These scales were also reported in Walker et al. (2005), and employed by several researchers (e.g. Green et al., 2007).

Level 1 of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's (2005) parent involvement model is comprised of three overarching constructs: parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement, parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others, and parents' perceptions of life context for involvement in their children's education. These three overarching psychological constructs involve seven domains as depicted in Appendix B. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) developed scales to correspond to



these domains. For example, one scale, the “parental perceptions of personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities”, was developed to correspond to the domain of “knowledge and skills”. Thus, seven Level 1 scales in the model were available to measure parents’ beliefs and perceptions of their involvement in their children’s education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005).

The researcher adapted and employed all of these scales with the exception of the scale about “specific child invitations”, which is under the “invitations” construct at Level 1 of the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model. This scale was not included because the perceptions of Turkish parents about specific invitations for involvement in activities were not to be measured in this study. This scale also was discarded because it was not appropriate with parents of first- and second-grade students, as explained later. The investigator adapted the remaining six Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler parent involvement model into the Turkish context to measure six domains under three overarching psychological constructs of parent involvement with the Turkish sample.

The related scales used in this study were selected to assess parents’ beliefs and perceptions of their involvement in their children’s education based on the parents’ self-report, and included: (1) Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children’s Education (10 items), (2) Parental Self-Efficacy for Helping the Child Succeed in School (7 items), (3) Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School (6 items), (4) Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child’s Teacher (6 items), (5) Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities (9 items), and (6) Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and

Energy for Involvement Activities (6 items). A total of 44 items were used in this instrument. Moreover, a demographic survey, including seven questions about participants' age and gender, marital and employment status, education and income level, and number of children, was developed and used as the second instrument in this study. The adapted Turkish version of related Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler parent involvement model and the demographic survey were used to collect data and address the research questions in accord with the purpose of the study.

### *Validity*

According to the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing of the American Educational Research Association (AERA), the American Psychological Association (APA), and the National Council on Measurement in Education (NCME) in 1999, "Validity refers to the degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretations of test scores entailed by proposed uses of tests. Validity is, therefore, the most fundamental consideration in developing and evaluating tests. The process of validation involves accumulating evidence to provide a sound scientific basis for the proposed score interpretations. It is the interpretations of test scores required by proposed uses that are evaluated, not the test itself. When test scores are used or interpreted in more than one way, each intended interpretation must be validated" (p. 9).

Five sources of validity evidence were set by the same joint committee. These sources of validity evidence had to do with evidence based on: (1) test content, (2) response processes, (3) internal structure, (4) relations to other variables, and (5) consequence of testing. Each source of validity evidence is described and discussed in

relation to the procedures and methods to be followed in gathering evidence of the validity of the related Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) model of parent involvement, and adaptation of the scales to the Turkish context.

#### *Evidence Based on Test Content*

“Important validity evidence can be obtained from an analysis of the relationship between a test’s content and the construct it is intended to measure... Test content refers to the themes, wording, and the format of the items, tasks, or questions on a test, as well as the guidelines for procedures regarding administration and scoring” (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999, p. 11).

According to the same standards, evidence based on test content can contain logical or empirical analyses of the adequacy of the test content domain and of the relevance of the content domain to the proposed interpretation of test scores. Evidence based on content can also derive from expert judgments of the relationship between parts of the test and the construct (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999).

Content representativeness and content relevance must be taken account when gathering content-related validity evidence (Reese & Tannenbaum, 1999). Content representativeness refers to how well the contents of the assessment represent the domain of interest (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997) and content relevance refers to the extent to which the instrument actually tests aspects of the tasks or behaviors to be assessed (Bachman, 1990), indicating the need to specify the domain of interest. Domain has to do with all of the questions to be asked on a topic. Since it is not possible to ask all questions on a topic in a limited time, usually sample items, which are representative of that particular domain, are used in assessment and interpretation.

The Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey parent involvement model were developed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) and applied in the United States and are available in the English and Spanish languages. The scales were originally administered to the parents of students in the fourth through sixth grades. In the case of using related Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey parent involvement model in Turkey, several steps were taken to gather evidence to ensure validity from this source. In this regard, the researcher had to adapt these scales into the Turkish language and culture so that they could be administered to the parents of first- and second-grade students in Turkey. The adaptation procedures were completed in four phases and are explained below.

#### *Phase 1*

As suggested by the AERA, APA, and NCME (1999), the first phase of adaptation included consulting experts in the field. The expert was an emeritus professor at Penn State with over thirty years of experience in higher education institutions in early childhood and elementary education programs. He had worked on subjects related to the content of the study and research procedures, as well.

The major issue in this phase was to establish a priori face validity and content-relation validity. Since the original scales were developed using parents of children in the fourth through sixth grades, much thought was given to adapting these scales for use with the parents of first and second graders. The decisions were made according to that concern. The expert agreed that it was appropriate to use all scales developed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) with respect to the purposes of the study except for the scale, "Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child",

because it was assumed that it would not be suitable for the parents of first and second graders. Hence, it was decided not to employ that scale as an instrument in this study.

In addition, in the original version, the scale, “Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child’s Teacher”, employed a six-point Likert-type response scale: 1 = never; 2 = 1 or 2 times; 3 = 4 or 5 times; 4 = once a week; 5 = a few times a week; 6 = daily. The rest of the original scales employed a 6-point Likert-type response format: disagree very strongly = 1, disagree = 2, disagree just a little = 3, agree just a little = 4, agree = 5, agree very strongly = 6. During the discussion with the expert, it was decided to revise the response format of all scales into a single 4-point Likert-type scale—strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, agree = 3, strongly agree = 4—to establish the consistency of response formats across the scales and to get more concrete data.

### *Phase 2*

After delineating the information in the paragraphs, three professors who were experts in the content area (e.g., early childhood and elementary education, language development, parent involvement, and other curriculum and instruction department fields) from the universities in the U.S. were consulted. They were given the English (original) version of the scales and told the scope of the scale and purposes of the research. Then, they were asked to rate each item on a scale from 0 to 100 for content relation—that is, if items on the scale were representative and relevant to the domain being assessed. Any item with an average rating of less than 80 was to be revised or removed by the investigator. The researcher also reminded this panel of experts to make their judgments based on the following information: that the scale was to be adapted and administered to parents of first and second graders rather than parents of students in the

fourth through sixth grades, which was the case in the development of the original scale. In order to analyze the results from this panel of experts, the average rating for each item was calculated. It was found that none of the items in the scales had an average rate of less than 80. Therefore, none needed to be revised in this phase.

### *Phase 3*

In this phase, the researcher employed a back-translation procedure to ascertain construct-equivalence between the original (English) and translated (Turkish) versions of the scales. Back translation has been the most commonly used method of instrument adaptation (Daouk, McDowall, & Rust, 2005). It consists two parts: forward translation and back translation. In forward translation, one translator translates the material from the original (source) language to the target language. In back translation, an independent translator translates it from the target language back to the original language (Brislin, 1980). The source language is the language and cultural context in which the scale was originally developed; the target language is understood to be the linguistic or cultural context to which the scale is translated or adapted (Allalouf, Hambleton, & Sireci, 1999).

The importance of the quality of the translation process should not be underestimated (Sireci, Yang, Harter, & Ehrlich, 2006). Hence, much attention has been paid to conducting good test adaptations. The consensus of research in this area suggests that independent translators should be convened to adapt items across languages and to validate the translations. Back translation is also suggested as a further quality-control check (Brislin, 1980). In addition, many scholars in this area focus on the quality of the translators. For example, Hambleton and Kanjee (1995) stated that translators should be fully proficient in both languages of interest, be familiar with the cultures associated with

the different language groups, and have an understanding of the subject domain to be measured.

Hambleton and Patsula (1999) also mentioned the need for qualified translators and suggested that an accurate instrument adaptation process would involve at least three steps: (1) translating the test from a source to target language, (2) translating the test back into the source language (back translation), and (3) using independent teams of qualified translators to review the original, back-translated, and target language versions of the instrument to examine equivalence and resolve discrepancies. Literature in this field (e.g., Brislin, 1980) also stated the need for decentering, which avoids literal, word-for-word translations in favor of those that use different words but protect the same meaning across languages.

The translation of a test requires a thorough knowledge of both the target language and the culture, as suggested by van de Vijver and Hambleton (1996). In addition, various rules have to be formulated (Brislin, 1980) regarding the design of the translatable instruments. This includes using short and simple sentences and avoiding unnecessary words; employing the active rather than the passive voice; and avoiding possessive forms such as “his” or “her”—these are rules in developing a translatable instrument (Brislin, 1980). However, it had already been found that Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) followed those critical rules in the initial analysis done by the researcher. Also, the scales to be adapted already had a Spanish version and so were assumed to be translatable. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) also invited investigators to adapt and use their scale in different languages and with cultural groups.

In the case of the adaptation of the six Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model of parent involvement, the researcher sought to implement necessary applications to avoid the problems that can occur when adapting the instrument to a new language and cultural context. Thus, in light of suggestions in the literature, the researcher followed several procedures that are explained in detail in the following paragraphs.

First, the researcher was familiar with both languages and cultures and in a strong position to make judgments about construct equivalence between cultures. One can also judge cross-cultural construct equivalence by interviewing or observing people from the cultures of interest, researching these cultures, asking others who know about the cultures, or visiting people in the culture (Hambleton & Patsula, 1999). In this case, the researcher was assumed to be meeting this criterion. Therefore, the researcher ensured that construct equivalence existed in the language and cultural groups of interest.

Second, as suggested by Hambleton and Patsula (1999), the researcher sought translators with language proficiency, knowledge of the relevant cultures, and some subject matter knowledge/knowledge of the construct of interest. To meet this criterion, the researcher translated the scales from the original language, English, to the target language, Turkish, in this study. Following this forward-translation procedure, the researcher recruited two independent translators who were fluent in both English and Turkish. By involving more than one translator in the process, the researcher provided a mix of perspectives and enabled checking. Both translators were Turkish nationals who were Ph.D. candidates at Penn State in the Early Childhood Education (ECE) program. Since these translators were experts in the related content area, by recruiting them, the



researcher ensured the sound validity of the translated scale. Hence, in this case, two well-qualified translators were employed who were fluent in both languages and cultures, and who had some knowledge of test construction and the construct being measured.

The researcher asked these two translators to look over the forward translation and provide suggestions for improving it. The translators followed the procedures and provided suggestions for improving the scales. The researcher then revised the forward translation as suggested by Sireci et al. (2006).

Moreover, with a backward-translation design, the researcher recruited a third bilingual Ph.D. translator who was also fluent in both languages and had a good command of both cultures in order to translate the items back from Turkish into English without seeing the original version in English. This step led the researcher to find several differences between some of the items in the original version of the scales and the back-translated version. These differences are depicted in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1  
*Differences between Items in the Original and Back-translated Versions*

<b>Original Item</b>	<b>Back-translated Item</b>
4. I believe it is my responsibility to make sure the school has what it needs.	4. I believe it is my responsibility to make sure that the school has what it needs.
5. I believe it is my responsibility to support decisions made by the teacher.	5. I believe it is my responsibility to support decisions made by the teacher about my child's education.
6. I believe it is my responsibility to stay on top of things at school.	6. I believe it is my responsibility to be aware and in control of things at school.
12. I don't know if I'm getting through to my child. (reversed)	12. I don't know if I'm able to explain myself to my child well while I'm trying to help his/her learning. (reversed)
13. I don't know how to help my child make good grades in school. (reversed)	13. I don't know how to help my child succeed in school. (reversed)
14. I feel successful about my efforts to help my child learn.	14. I feel I'm successful in my efforts to help my child learn.
15. Other children have more influence on my child's grades than I do. (reversed)	15. Other children have more influence on my child's success in school than I do. (reversed)
20. Parent activities are scheduled at school at times so that I can attend.	20. Parent activities are scheduled at school at convenient times so that I can attend.

Furthermore, the researcher worked with a native English speaker who had a Ph.D., who was also recruited in phase 1, and discussed the differences between the original and back-translated instruments to ascertain similarities in meaning and connotation between the two English versions item by item. It was found that the meanings were similar. Even the back-translated items were more specific and easy to understand, and therefore were used in this study.

#### *Phase 4*

In this phase, three professors who are experts in the content area from Turkish universities, three elementary school teachers, and three school administrators from Turkish elementary schools were recruited as a panel of experts to establish a good representation of professional groups in the field. The practicing experts, except for the college professors, were selected from among those with over ten years of experience—the level set by the researcher as indicating significant background on the subject. After the scales were translated into Turkish, a version was given to the panel members, who then assessed the scope of the study and instrument, and domains. Then, they were asked to rate each item on a scale from 0 to 100 on whether the items were representative and relevant to the domain of the inquiry. In the subsequent analysis of these ratings, the average ratings for each item were taken. Those below 80 were revised or excluded from the scale. The average rating of each item was calculated; it was found that none of the items in the scales had an average rate less than 80. Therefore, none of the items needed to be revised in this phase.

*Evidence Based on Response Processes*

AERA, APA, and NCME (1999) stated that, “Theoretical and empirical analyses of the response processes of test takers can provide evidence concerning the fit between the construct and the detailed nature of performance or response actually engaged in by examinees” (p. 12). For instance, the participants’ responses to the scales should not be strongly influenced by social conformity (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999). Accordingly, the participants in this study were asked to fill out the surveys in their home or any place convenient to them. Therefore, the researcher assumed that their responses were not subject to influence by social conformity. Further, the authenticity of the process was supported by having the participants complete the surveys at home, for example, since that is where they also become involved in their children’s learning most of the time.

*Evidence Based on Internal Structure*

“Analyses of the internal structure of a test can indicate the degree to which the relationships among test items and test components conform to the construct on which the proposed test score interpretations are based” (AERA, APA & NCME, 1999, p. 13). A statistical procedure known as factor analysis is a source of evidence based on internal structure since such a statistical technique can indicate “that the score variability attributable to one major dimension was much greater than the score variability attributable to any other identified dimension” (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999, p. 20). Factor analysis is known as a “data reduction” procedure (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This means that many items in an instrument can be grouped into a small number of domains. For example, in the case of the Level 1 scales of Hoover-Dempsey parent involvement model, factor analysis done by Walker et al. (2005) indicated that role

activity is a single construct. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler also derived the constructs of Level 1 scales on conceptual discussions in The Family-School Partnership Lab at Vanderbilt University and from an extensive review of the relevant literature (e.g., Henderson & Mapp, 2002).

*Evidence Based on Relations to Other Variables*

“Analyses of the relationship of test scores to variables external to the test provide another important source of validity evidence” (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999, p. 13). Unfortunately, in the case of the scales used in this study, the researcher was not able to gather evidence regarding test-criterion relationships to usage with a Turkish sample because neither instrument had been used before to determine prediction, nor is being used currently to figure out the concurrent validity evidence in Turkey. For this reason; predictive or concurrent study designs were not applicable in this research.

*Evidence Based on Consequences of Testing*

AERA, APA, and NCME (1999) stated that evidence based on consequences may be relevant to validity when it can be traced to a source of invalidity such as construct-irrelevant components. “Tests are commonly administered in the expectation that some benefit will be realized from the intended use of the scores...The validation process in such cases would be informed by evidence that the anticipated benefits of testing are being realized” (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999, pp. 16–17).

Although there was no way to track the evidence based on the consequences of using the instrument in this study since it had never been used with a Turkish sample, there were ways to track this evidence afterwards. For example, the researcher aims to write journal articles based on the study results, and share the findings in professional

conferences and seminars. Besides, the results will be shared with the MONE in Turkey, and other interested institutions and people in the field.

Finally, there would be intended consequences from usage and interpretation of this instrument, such as consequences for attitudes, practices, beliefs, and behaviors of parents, teachers, and other stakeholders toward parent involvement. It was also anticipated that any unintended consequences would be able to be tracked and evidence regarding those consequence can be traced and handled, if necessary.

### *Reliability*

According to AERA, APA, and NCME (1999), reliability refers to “the consistency of such measurements when the testing procedure is repeated on a population of individuals or groups”. The reliability of the original version of the scales was detected by testing the scales with relatively large samples and obtaining the Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients. The Cronbach’s alpha values of the original version of the scales reported by Walker et al. (2005; see also Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005) are shown in Table 3.2. However, as indicated earlier, the researcher adapted these scales to the Turkish language and context. For that reason, research was needed on the validity and reliability issues of the adapted version of these scales. Hence, the researcher conducted a pilot study, which is described in the next part of this chapter.

Table 3.2  
*Reliability Analysis of Original Scales*

<b>Scale</b>	<b>Number of Participants</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
1. Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children's Education	358	10	0.80
2. Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School	495	7	0.78
3. Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School	495	6	0.88
4. Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child's Teacher	495	6	0.81
5. Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities	495	9	0.83
6. Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities	495	6	0.84

*Pilot Study*

Hambleton and Patsula (1999) asserted that beginning with a small tryout of the adapted test is a wise step to be taken before investing considerable resources in a more ambitious field test. Accordingly, the researcher conducted a pilot study of the scales. All of the participants in the pilot study were recruited from an elementary school in Yozgat, Turkey. The sample included parents whose children were first- and second-grade students. The researcher ensured that the participants were individuals who were representative of the eventual target population of the main study.

Two weeks before the study, the researcher contacted the school administrator and asked for permission to conduct the pilot study in that elementary school. The school administrator was informed about the study via an information sheet (see Appendix F) provided by the researcher. The investigator asked the administrator to deliver the implied informed consent form (see Appendix G), surveys, and an envelope to the potential participants. The parents who decided to participate completed and returned the surveys in envelopes to the school administrator. Then the school administrator mailed the completed surveys to the researcher. After the researcher eliminated the incomplete surveys (i.e., one or more scales were incomplete), the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were calculated for the adapted scales. The Cronbach's alpha values for the adapted scales were between 0.67 (acceptable) and 0.88 (high) as shown in Table 3.3. Thus, these Cronbach's coefficients were considered to show satisfactory reliability (Isaac & Michael, 1997, pp. 131–136).



Table 3.3  
*Reliability Analysis of Pilot Study for Each Scale (n=53)*

<b>Scale</b>	<b>Number of Participants</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
1. Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children's Education	53	10	0.84
2. Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School	53	7	0.67
3. Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School	53	6	0.84
4. Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child's Teacher	53	6	0.83
5. Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities	53	9	0.84
6. Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities	53	6	0.88

### *Research Hypotheses*

In accord with the research findings (e.g., Carlisle et al., 2005) and theoretical views (e.g., Lareau, 2000), six research hypotheses were proposed regarding the relationship between Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in their children's education, and the demographic variables. The demographic variables represent the independent variables of this study including parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children. Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions constituted the psychological factors relating to their involvement and were used as dependent variables, including parental role activity beliefs for involvement in children's education, parental self-efficacy beliefs for helping the child succeed in school, parental perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school, parental perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child's teacher, parental perceptions of personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities, and parental perceptions of personal time and energy for involvement activities. Thus, the six hypotheses for this study were as follows.

Hypothesis 1: Turkish parents' role activity beliefs about their involvement are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children.

Hypothesis 2: Turkish parents' self-efficacy beliefs for helping the child succeed in school are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children.

Hypothesis 3: Turkish parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children.

Hypothesis 4: Turkish parents' perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child's teacher are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children.

Hypothesis 5: Turkish parents' perceptions of personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children.

Hypothesis 6: Turkish parents' perceptions of personal time and energy for involvement activities are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children.

#### *Data Collection for the Main Study*

Two months prior to the study, the investigator contacted the administrators of seven public elementary schools in Yozgat. The researcher provided the school administrators with an information sheet about the study (see Appendix H). The investigator asked the administrators for their help in recruiting parents with children who were first- and second-grade students in those elementary schools. All seven administrators decided to help and so were given copies of research instruments, implied informed consents (see Appendix I), recruitment letters (see Appendix J), and envelopes to be delivered to the parents of first- and second-grade students in their school.

The participants were asked to fill out six of the Level 1 scales from the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler parent involvement model, which consisted of 44 items. The

demographic survey included 7 questions. Parents were given a week to decide whether to participate in the study or not. One week was adequate time for this decision. The researcher was available to answer possible questions and concerns about the study. The parents who agreed to join the study completed the surveys and returned them in an envelope to the school administrators. Then, the investigator picked up the completed survey from the school administrators.

Of the 510 surveys distributed to the potential participants, 437 were returned to the investigator. Following elimination of spoiled surveys, 374 were retained for data analysis. Spoiled surveys had one or more incomplete scales or an obvious response bias (e.g., all items on the efficacy scale were scored the same, despite having negatively and positively worded items) as suggested by Anderson and Minke (2007).

Participation in this study was voluntary and confidential. Participants' names were not used. They were given numbers and numeral identifiers were indexed and kept on a secure password-protected computer. The surveys did not include any questions that would provide information on the participants' identity.

#### *Data Analysis*

The researcher used SPSS 16.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) for Windows to conduct and complete the data analysis procedure. Data on the demographic characteristics of parents included their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children. In addition, Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions constituted the data on the psychological factors of their involvement, including their role activity beliefs for involvement in children's education, self-efficacy beliefs for helping the child succeed in school, perceptions of general

invitations for involvement from the school, perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child's teacher, perceptions of personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities, and perceptions of personal time and energy for involvement activities. These were all measured in this study.

In this study the primary research question was: What are Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in their young children's education and how do their demographic characteristics influence these psychological factors?

The study attempted to answer the primary research question by examining several ancillary questions. These questions were as follows:

1. What are Turkish parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement?

The following information helped answer this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents' role activity beliefs, that is, the extent to which they believe that they should be actively involved in the child's education? (b) What are Turkish parents' beliefs about their efficacy in helping their children succeed in school? and (c) How do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children affect parental role activity and self-efficacy beliefs?

2. What are Turkish parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from

others? The following issues helped answer this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school? (b) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of specific teacher invitations for involvement? (c) How do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children

influence these parental perceptions of general and specific invitations for involvement?

3. What are Turkish parents' perceptions of life context with respect to their involvement in their children's education? The following issues provided information for this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of their knowledge and skills for involvement? (b) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of their available time and energy for involvement? (c) In what way do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children relate to these parental perceptions of time and energy and knowledge and skills and their involvement in their children's education?

The investigator used both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques to analyze the data and answer the research questions. Initially, descriptive statistics provided information about parents' demographic characteristics and beliefs and perceptions regarding their involvement in their young children's education. The researcher used frequencies and percentages for categorical variables and calculated the frequencies, percentages, measures of central tendency and variability percentages, and standard deviation of interval data from the study. Then, inferential statistics were utilized to analyze how demographic factors (independent variables) predicted psychological factors (dependent variables) in the study. A preliminary correlation analysis was conducted to ascertain the type of multiple regression technique to use in analyzing the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Then, the suitable multiple regression technique was also deployed.

The researcher established the guidelines to qualitatively describe the means for the summated likert subscale values. According to the guidelines, means less than 1.75 indicated “very negative”, while means that were greater than 1.75 to 2.25 represented “negative” beliefs and perceptions. Means between 2.25 and 2.75 showed “moderate (neutral)” and means between 2.75 and 3.25 represented “positive” beliefs and perceptions. Additionally, means above 3.25 represented “very positive” beliefs and perceptions. If a person did not respond to a specific question, that person was not included in the analysis of the data for that question.

## CHAPTER 4

### Results

As stated in chapter 1, this study examined Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions of their involvement in their young children's education and how parents' demographic characteristics influence those beliefs and perceptions. This chapter is organized around the three research questions raised in chapter 1 and consists of five parts. Part one summarizes the reliability analysis of the main study for the scales. Part two reports the demographic description of the participants using descriptive statistics. Parts three, four, and five summarize the descriptive and inferential statistic results for research questions one, two, and three, respectively.

#### *Reliability Analysis of Main Study for the Scales*

In conducting a reliability analysis of the scales used in the main study, the researcher first implemented a pilot study and examined the reliability (internal consistency) of the scales by computing the Cronbach's alpha coefficients (see previous chapter). However, it is essential to analyze and report the level of internal consistency of each scale in the main study, as well. Hence, the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for the items of each scale were calculated and reported.

As summarized in Table 4.1, the Cronbach's alpha value for the scale, "Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children's Education", was .79. The alpha coefficient for the items assessing "Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School" was .75. Also, the Cronbach's alpha level for the "Parental



Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School” and “Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child’s Teacher” scales was .77. The reliability coefficients for the “Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities” and “Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities” scales were calculated as .82 and .85, respectively.

Table 4.1  
*Reliability Analysis of Main Study for Each Scale (n=374)*

<b>Scale</b>	<b>Number of Participants</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>	<b>Cronbach’s Alpha</b>
1. Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children’s Education	367	10	.79
2. Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School	368	7	.75
3. Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School	371	6	.77
4. Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child’s Teacher	368	6	.77
5. Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities	371	9	.82
6. Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities	373	6	.85

Cronbach’s alpha values of .70 and greater are generally considered to provide satisfactory reliability for research purposes (Muijs, 2004). Thus, the analysis of the

reliability for each scale showed that each scale's summated value had acceptable reliability. The alpha values ranged between .75 and .85, indicating that the items in each scale were internally consistent in the main study.

### *Demographic Description of the Participants*

The researcher then gathered demographic data via a demographic survey (see Appendix E). The demographic survey consisted of seven variables, including questions about participant's age and gender, income and education level, marital and employment status, and number of children. Table 4.2 summarizes the demographic characteristics of participants. While analyzing each demographic variable, the number of the participants who responded to the questions and the valid percentage were used since there were several items that some participants did not answer. The number of participants who did not respond to any question was also made available for each demographic variable.

Of the 374 parents in the study, 11 (3.0%) were between the ages of 18–25 years. The ages of 135 (36.3%) respondents ranged from 26 to 34 years and 168 (45.2%) ranged from 35 to 45 years. The ages of 58 (15.6%) of the parents were between 46 and 55 years. Two of the participants did not respond to the question about their age. In the study, 130 (34.8%) of the parents were female; 244 (65.2%) were male.

Data gathered on the family income per month of the parents in the study indicated that 35.8% ( $n = 111$ ) had incomes less than YTL 800; 31.6% ( $n = 98$ ) had incomes between YTL 800 and YTL 1400; and 32.6% had incomes above YTL 1400. Sixty-four of the participants did not report their income level. On the other hand, the results showed that participants were from four educational backgrounds. Of the 374 parents, 19 (5.1%) were simply literate; the majority of the participants—258 (69.4%)—

were elementary school graduates; 77 (20.7%) were high school graduates; and 18 (4.8%) had university or higher degrees. Two of the participants did not respond to the question regarding their education level.

All of the 374 participants answered the question regarding their marital status. The results showed that 6 (1.6%) were single and never married; the majority of the participants—356 (95.2%)—were married; 1 (.3%) was separated; 4 (1.1%) were divorced; and 7 (1.9%) were widowed. Moreover, the information on the employment status of the parents indicated that 38.1% ( $n = 140$ ) of the participants were unemployed or were a homemaker; .3% ( $n = 1$ ) was a student; 1.9% ( $n = 7$ ) were retired; 27.5% ( $n = 101$ ) were full-time employees; and 32.2% ( $n = 118$ ) were part-time employees. Seven of the participants did not report the information about their employment status.

Lastly, data were gathered on the number of children—under the age of 19—living in participants' home. Of the 374 parents, 36 (9.7%) reported having only one child; 123 (33.0%) reported having two children; 132 (35.4%) reported having three children; and 53 (14.2%) reported having four children. Among the remaining participants, 19 (5.1%) and 10 (2.7%) reported having five and six or more children, respectively. One of the participants did not respond to this question.

Table 4.2  
*Demographic Characteristics of the Participants (n = 374)*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Valid %</b>
<b>Parents' Age</b>		
18–25	11	3.0
26–34	135	36.3
35–45	168	45.2
46–55	58	15.6
No Response	2	
<b>Parents' Gender</b>		
Female	130	34.8
Male	244	65.2
<b>Family Monthly Income</b>		
0–800 YTL	111	35.8
800–1400 YTL	98	31.6
1400–Above YTL	101	32.6
No Response	64	
<b>Parents' Highest Education</b>		
Literate	19	5.1
Elementary	258	69.4
High School	77	20.7
University or Higher	18	4.8
No Response	2	
<b>Parents' Current Marital Status</b>		
Single, Never Married	6	1.6
Married	356	95.2
Separated	1	.3
Divorced	4	1.1
Widowed	7	1.9
<b>Parents' Current Employment Status</b>		
Unemployed, Homemaker	140	38.1
Student	1	.3
Retired	7	1.9
Full Time Employee	101	27.5
Part Time Employee	118	32.2
No Response	7	
<b>Number of Children</b>		
1	36	9.7
2	123	33.0

3	132	35.4
4	53	14.2
5	19	5.1
6 or more	10	2.7
No Response	1	

Overall, it appears the majority of the participants' ages ranged from 26 to 45 years. Also, most of the participants were male. The dispersion of the income levels was almost equal for three income groups. The parents were predominantly elementary school graduates and married. A scan of the data also indicated that most of the parents were either full-time or part-time employed; besides, there was a significant number of unemployed or homemakers, as well. Finally, the data on the reported number of children living in participants' home shows that the majority of the parents had two or three children.

In addition, the researcher conducted Cramer's *V* analysis to examine the relationships among the IVs. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, p.88) reports that multicollinearity problem can occur if the predictor variables are highly correlated (.90 and above). As depicted in Table 4.3, the correlation values among the IVs ranged from .09 to .69. Therefore, there is no multicollinearity problem in the study.

Table 4.3  
*Correlation Matrix for Independent Variables*

	Age	Gender	Income Level	Education Level	Marital Status	Employment Status	Number of Children
<b>Age</b>	1.00						
<b>Gender</b>	.38*	1.00					
<b>Income Level</b>	.10	.29*	1.00				
<b>Education Level</b>	.09	.20**	.35*	1.00			
<b>Marital Status</b>	.20*	.18**	.14	.09	1.00		
<b>Employment Status</b>	.28*	.69*	.37*	.27*	.27	1.00	
<b>Number of Children</b>	.21*	.11	.14	.19*	.11	.17	1.00

\* $p < .001$ ; \*\* $p < .05$

#### *Research Question One*

Research question one was: What are Turkish parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement? The following information helped answer this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents' role activity beliefs, that is, the extent to which they believe that they should be actively involved in the child's education? (b) What are Turkish parents' beliefs about their efficacy in helping their children succeed in school? and (c) How do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children affect parental role activity and self-efficacy beliefs?

Data-gathering for research question one occurred through the use of the adapted Turkish versions of “Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children’s Education” and “Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School” scales (see Appendix D). Application of descriptive statistics for both scales produced the results concerning Turkish parents’ motivational beliefs about involvement in their children’s education and addressed the first two sub-questions. The investigator also utilized multiple linear regression analysis (MLRA) to address the third sub-question of research question one. Applying MLRA provided results about how the demographic characteristics of the participants influenced their role activity and self-efficacy beliefs regarding their involvement in their children’s education.

The descriptive results are presented in Table 4.4. Of the 374 participants, 367 parents answered all items on the “Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children’s Education” scale, with a mean of 3.32/4.00 and an *SD* of .42. On the other hand, 368 participants responded to all items on the “Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School” scale. The results showed that the participants’ mean score for this scale was 2.77/4.00 (*SD* = .57).

Table 4.4  
*Descriptive Statistics for Parents’ Motivational Beliefs Regarding Their Involvement (n=374)*

<b>Scale</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children’s Education	367	3.32	.42
Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School	368	2.77	.57

*Note.* Response Scale: strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, agree = 3, strongly agree = 4

The zero-order correlation results show that when the variables are analyzed separately in a bivariate correlation, each demographic variable is taken individually, and there is a positive relationship among parents' income ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .341$ ), by itself, and their role activity beliefs—and all are significant at the  $p < .001$  level. There is also a positive relationship between parents' education level ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .132$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and their role activity beliefs. Moreover, there is a positive correlation ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .079$ ) in parents' employment status that approaches significance ( $p = .066$ ). Huck (2004) claimed that if the significance level of the relationship between two variables is between  $p < .09$  and  $p > .05$ , the relationship can be considered as close to being significant (pp. 169–171).

However, as Table 4.5 summarizes, the regression results demonstrate that the only significant influence was found between parents' income and their role activity beliefs ( $b = .319$ ,  $S. E. b = .049$ ,  $\beta = .348$ ,  $p < .001$ ) when the demographic variables were examined simultaneously. No multivariate relationship was found between parents' role activity beliefs and other demographic variables (age, gender, education level, marital and employment status, and number of children).

The results also indicated that the overall regression model is statistically significant ( $F = 7.450$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Another important parameter that MLRA reveals is the amount of variance in the dependent variable explained by the regression model. In this case, 12.7% of variance in the parents' role activity beliefs for involvement is explained by the fully saturated regression model ( $R^2 = .127$ ).



Table 4.5  
*Regression Results for Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children's Education*

<b>Variable</b>	<b><i>b</i></b>	<b><i>S. E. b</i></b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>Sig</b>
(Constant)	3.202	.099	—	.000
Age	-.052	.046	-.061	.259
0 = $\leq$ 34 yrs.				
1 = $\geq$ 35 yrs.				
Gender	-.085	.069	-.096	.219
1 = Female				
2 = Male				
Income	.319	.049	.348	.000
0 = < 800 YTL				
1 = $\geq$ 800 YTL				
Education	.050	.051	.052	.330
0 = Literate Elementary				
1 = High School University or Higher				
Marital Status	.000	.097	.000	.994
0 = Married				
1 = Single, Never Married Separated Divorced Widowed				
Employment Status	.050	.066	.058	.455
0 = Unemployed, Homemaker Student Retired				
1 = Part-time Employee Full-time Employee				
Number of Children	.008	.020	.021	.697
Model Summary				
<i>F</i> = 7.450				
<i>df</i> = 6 / 365				
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .127				
Adjusted <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .110				
Sig. < .001				

Furthermore, when the correlations between each demographic variable and parents' self-efficacy beliefs were evaluated separately, the results showed a significant positive relationship among parents' gender ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .147, p < .05$ ); income level ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .196, p < .001$ ); education level ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .244, p < .001$ ); and employment status ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .113, p < .05$ ) and parents' self-efficacy beliefs about helping the child succeed in school. However, when examined simultaneously, as summarized in Table 4.6, the regression results showed that the only demographic variables having a significant positive relationship with the parents' self-efficacy beliefs for involvement were parents' income ( $b = .167, S. E. b = .069, \beta = .132, p < .05$ ) and education level ( $b = .262, S. E. b = .072, \beta = .197, p < .001$ ). No significant relationship was found between parents' self-efficacy beliefs for helping the child succeed in school and parents' age and gender, marital and employment status, and number of children. It was also found that the overall regression model was statistically significant ( $F = 5.128, p < .001$ ). In addition, the results demonstrated that 9.1% of variance in the parents' self-efficacy beliefs for involvement was explained by the fully saturated regression model ( $R^2 = .091$ ).

Table 4.6  
*Regression Results for Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>S. E. b</b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>Sig</b>
(Constant)	2.407	.141	—	.000
Age	-.040	.065	-.034	.540
0 = $\leq$ 34 yrs.				
1 = $\geq$ 35 yrs.				
Gender	.161	.098	.133	.102
1 = Female				
2 = Male				
Income	.167	.069	.132	.016
0 = < 800 YTL				
1 = $\geq$ 800 YTL				
Education	.262	.072	.197	.000
0 = Literate				
Elementary				
1 = High School				
University or Higher				
Marital Status	.195	.139	.071	.161
0 = Married				
1 = Single, Never Married				
Separated				
Divorced				
Widowed				
Employment Status	-.073	.094	-.062	.439
0 = Unemployed, Homemaker				
Student				
Retired				
1 = Part-time Employee				
Full-time Employee				
Number of Children	-.009	.027	-.019	.728
Model Summary				
<i>F</i> = 5.128				
<i>df</i> = 6 / 366				
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .091				
Adjusted <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .073				
Sig. < .001				

Overall, the results of descriptive statistics suggested that Turkish parents as a group tended to have positive motivational beliefs about involvement in their children's education. They reported very positive role activity beliefs ( $M = 3.32/4.00$ ), indicating that they should be highly active in their children's education. It also appears that Turkish parents had positive self-efficacy beliefs ( $M = 2.77/4.00$ ) about helping their children succeed in school. In essence, they perceived that they may be effective in teaching their children and that their involvement makes a difference. Also, Turkish parents' motivational beliefs are predicted by some aspects of their demographic characteristics. The regression results showed that their role activity beliefs for involvement were significantly explained by their income level. Parents with higher incomes were more likely to have stronger role activity beliefs for involvement than the lower-income parents. This partially supports hypothesis one: Turkish parents' role activity beliefs about their involvement are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children. In addition, Turkish parents' self-efficacy beliefs regarding their involvement were also found to be significantly explained by their income and education level. Parents with higher income tended to have stronger self-efficacy beliefs about involvement as compared to parents with lower incomes, and parents with higher education levels had stronger self-efficacy beliefs than the parents with lower educational backgrounds. This partially supports hypothesis two: Turkish parents' self-efficacy beliefs about helping the child succeed in school are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children. No statistically significant relationships

existed between the other demographic characteristics and Turkish parents' motivational beliefs about involvement.

### *Research Question Two*

Research question two was: What are Turkish parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others? The following issues helped answer this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school? (b) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of specific teacher invitations for involvement? (c) How do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children influence these parental perceptions of general and specific invitations for involvement?

To gather data for research question two, the investigator used the adapted Turkish versions of the "Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School" and "Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child's Teacher" scales (see Appendix D) with the demographic survey (see Appendix E). Application of descriptive statistics for both scales provided insights into Turkish parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others and addressed the first two sub-questions. In addition, the MLRA revealed the results for the last sub-question of research question two. The MLRA results provided information about how demographic characteristics such as age and gender, parents' income and education levels, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children influence their perceptions of invitations for involvement from others.

The descriptive results are presented in Table 4.7. Three hundred seventy one parents out of the 374 participants responded to all items of the "Parental Perceptions of

General Invitations for Involvement from the School” scale with a mean of 3.24/4.00 ( $SD = .57$ ). Further, 368 participants answered all items of the “Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child’s Teacher” scale. The results showed that the participants’ mean score for this scale was 2.98/4.00 with a  $SD$  of .57.

Table 4.7

*Descriptive Statistics for Parental Perceptions of Invitations for Involvement from Others (n=374)*

<b>Scale</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School	371	3.24	.57
Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child’s Teacher	368	2.98	.57

*Note.* Response Scale: strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, agree = 3, strongly agree = 4

When the correlations for each of the independent variables with the dependent variable were analyzed separately in a bivariate analysis, it appeared that there was a positive relationship between parents’ income level ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .178, p < .001$ )—by itself—and their’ perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school. There was also a negative correlation between the independent variables of parents’ marital status ( $r_{pt\ bis} = -.093$ ) and number of children ( $r_{pt\ bis} = -.092$ ) and the dependent variable of parental perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school, significant at the  $p < .05$  level.

However, as summarized in Table 4.8, the regression results indicated that the only relationship was between parents’ income and their perceptions of general invitations for involvement ( $b = .227, S. E. b = .069, \beta = .348, p < .05$ ) when the

independent variables were combined and their relationships to the dependent variable were analyzed simultaneously. There was no statistically significant relationship between the other demographic variables (age, gender, education level, marital and employment status, and number of children) and parental perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school. The results also showed that the overall regression model was statistically significant ( $F = 2.722, p < .05$ ) and 5% of the variance in the parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school was explained by the fully saturated regression model ( $R^2 = .050$ ).

Table 4.8  
*Regression Results for Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School*

<b>Variable</b>	<b><i>b</i></b>	<b><i>S. E. b</i></b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>Sig</b>
(Constant)	3.242	.140	—	.000
Age	-.066	.065	-.057	.311
0 = $\leq$ 34 yrs.				
1 = $\geq$ 35 yrs.				
Gender	.027	.097	.023	.778
1 = Female				
2 = Male				
Income	.227	.069	.182	.001
0 = < 800 YTL				
1 = $\geq$ 800 YTL				
Education	-.007	.072	-.005	.922
0 = Literate				
Elementary				
1 = High School				
University or Higher				
Marital Status	-.209	.137	-.079	.128
0 = Married				
1 = Single, Never Married				
Separated				
Divorced				
Widowed				
Employment Status	-.064	.093	-.055	.491
0 = Unemployed, Homemaker				
Student				
Retired				
1 = Part-time Employee				
Full-time Employee				
Number of Children	-.041	.028	-.081	.140
Model Summary				
<i>F</i> = 2.722				
df = 6 / 369				
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .050				
Adjusted <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .032				
Sig. < .05				



Moreover, when the correlations between each demographic characteristic of the participants and their perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child's teacher were evaluated separately, the only significant relationship existed between parents' income level ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .240, p < .001$ ) and their perceptions of specific invitations. In addition, as presented in Table 4.9, the regression results showed that the only independent variable that had a significant positive relationship with parents' perceptions of specific invitations was their income level ( $b = .326, S. E. b = .069, \beta = .261, p < .001$ ) when accounting for the other demographic variables. No significant relationships were found between parental perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child's teacher and parents' age and gender, education, marital and employment status, and number of children. It was also found that the overall regression model was statistically significant ( $F = 3.473, p < .05$ ). In addition, the results demonstrated that 6.3% of the variance in the parents' perceptions of specific teacher invitations for involvement was explained by the fully saturated regression model ( $R^2 = .063$ ).

Table 4.9  
*Regression Results for Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child's Teacher*

<b>Variable</b>	<b><i>b</i></b>	<b><i>S. E. b</i></b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>Sig</b>
(Constant)	2.819	.141	—	.000
Age	-.004	.065	-.064	.949
0 = $\leq$ 34 yrs.				
1 = $\geq$ 35 yrs.				
Gender	-.072	.098	-.060	.464
1 = Female				
2 = Male				
Income	.326	.069	.261	.000
0 = < 800 YTL				
1 = $\geq$ 800 YTL				
Education	-.005	.073	-.004	.941
0 = Literate				
Elementary				
1 = High School				
University or Higher				
Marital Status	.176	.145	.063	.226
0 = Married				
1 = Single, Never Married				
Separated				
Divorced				
Widowed				
Employment Status	.034	.096	.029	.722
0 = Unemployed, Homemaker				
Student				
Retired				
1 = Part-time Employee				
Full-time Employee				
Number of Children	.011	.028	.022	.690
Model Summary				
<i>F</i> = 3.473				
<i>df</i> = 6 / 366				
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .063				
Adjusted <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .045				
Sig. < .05				

Overall, the descriptive results suggested that Turkish parents as a group have positive perceptions of invitations for school involvement from others. They have positive perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school ( $M = 3.24/4.00$ ) and believe that school personnel want their involvement, and they have positive perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child's teacher and believe that the child's teacher wants their involvement ( $M = 2.98/4.00$ ). Also, the regression results revealed that the income level of Turkish parents is the only significant demographic predictor of their perceptions of invitations for involvement from others. Parents with higher income tended to hold stronger positive perceptions of general invitations from the school and specific invitations from the child's teacher for involvement than did lower-income parents. This partially supported hypotheses three and four. Hypothesis three was: Turkish parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children. Hypothesis four was: Turkish parents' perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child's teacher are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children. Regression results also suggested that no statistically significant relationships existed between the other demographic characteristics and Turkish parents' perceptions of invitations from others.

### *Research Question Three*

Research question three was: What are Turkish parents' perceptions of life context with respect to their involvement in their children's education? The following issues provided information for this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents'

perceptions of their knowledge and skills for involvement? (b) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of their available time and energy for involvement? (c) In what way do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children relate to these parental perceptions of time and energy and knowledge and skills and their involvement in their children's education?

Data-gathering for research question three occurred through the use of the adapted Turkish versions of the "Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities" and the "Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities" scales (see Appendix D) along with the demographic survey (see Appendix E) which was also used for the previous research questions. Descriptive statistics of both scales provided the results for Turkish parents' perceptions of life context with respect to their involvement in their children's education, addressing the first two sub-questions. Application of MLRA revealed the results for the third sub-question of research question three, addressing the ways in which parents' age and gender, parents' income and education levels, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children relate to their perceptions of the impact of the life context variables of time and energy and knowledge and skills on their involvement in their children's education.

The descriptive results for parental perceptions of life context variables are reported in Table 4.10. Of the 374 participants, 371 parents answered all items of the "Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities" scale with a mean of 3.07/4.00 and an *SD* of .50. On the other hand, 373 participants responded to all items of the "Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for

Involvement Activities” scale. The results showed that the participants’ mean score for this scale was 3.01/4.00 ( $SD = .60$ ).

Table 4.10

*Descriptive Statistics for Parental Perceptions of Life Context Variables (n=374)*

<b>Scale</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities	371	3.07	.50
Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities	373	3.01	.60

*Note.* Response Scale: strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, agree = 3, strongly agree = 4

Also, the zero-order correlation values between each of the demographic characteristics of parents and their perceptions of personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities were evaluated separately in a bivariate analysis. It was found that parents’ income levels ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .314$ ); educational background ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .149$ ); and employment status ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .102$ ) were positively correlated with their perceptions of personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities at the  $p < .001$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $p < .05$  levels, respectively. The other demographic variables were not found to be significantly related to parents’ perceptions of their own knowledge and skills for involvement activities.

However, as depicted in Table 4.11, the MLRA results showed that the only significant predictor variable for parental perceptions of personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities was their income level ( $b = .339$ ,  $S. E. b = .058$ ,  $\beta = .311$ ,  $p < .001$ ) when the independent variables are combined and their relationships with the dependent variable are analyzed collectively. No relationships were found between the

other demographical characteristics of participants (age, gender, education level, marital and employment status, and number of children) and their perceptions of personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities. It was also found that the overall regression model was statistically significant ( $F = 6.509, p < .001$ ) and 11.2% of the variance in parental perceptions of personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities was explained by the regression full model ( $R^2 = .112$ ).

Table 4.11  
*Regression Results for Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for  
 Involvement Activities*

<b>Variable</b>	<b><i>b</i></b>	<b><i>S. E. b</i></b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>Sig</b>
(Constant)	2.974	.119	—	.000
Age	1.539E-5	.055	.000	1.000
0 = $\leq$ 34 yrs.				
1 = $\geq$ 35 yrs.				
Gender	-.137	.082	-.131	.095
1 = Female				
2 = Male				
Income	.339	.058	.311	.000
0 = < 800 YTL				
1 = $\geq$ 800 YTL				
Education	.075	.061	.066	.216
0 = Literate				
Elementary				
1 = High School				
University or Higher				
Marital Status	.082	.116	.035	.480
0 = Married				
1 = Single, Never Married				
Separated				
Divorced				
Widowed				
Employment Status	.106	.079	.104	.182
0 = Unemployed, Homemaker				
Student				
Retired				
1 = Part-time Employee				
Full-time Employee				
Number of Children	.001	.023	.001	.979
Model Summary				
<i>F</i> = 6.509				
<i>df</i> = 6 / 369				
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .112				
Adjusted <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .095				
Sig. < .001				

Lastly, the zero-order correlation values between each of the demographic characteristics of parents and their perceptions of personal time and energy for involvement activities were analyzed separately. Parents' income level correlated positively ( $r_{pt\ bis} = .125$ ) and age correlated negatively ( $r_{pt\ bis} = -.090$ ) with their perceptions of personal time and energy for involvement activities at the  $p < .05$  level. The relationships among parents' gender ( $r_{pt\ bis} = -.082, p = .058$ ); number of children ( $r_{pt\ bis} = -.081, p = .060$ ); and their perceptions of personal time and energy for involvement activities were close to being statistically significant.

However, the regression results (Table 4.12) indicated that the only demographic variable that had a significant relationship with perceptions of personal time and energy for involvement activities was parents' income ( $b = .223, S. E. b = .073, \beta = .170, p < .05$ ) when the variables were combined and analyzed accordingly. No relationships were found between parental perceptions of personal time and energy for involvement activities and other demographic variables (age, gender, education level, marital and employment status, and number of children). Furthermore, the overall regression model was found to be statistically significant ( $F = 2.217, p < .05$ ) and 4.1% of the variance in parental perceptions of personal time and energy for involvement activities was explained by the full regression model ( $R^2 = .041$ ).



Table 4.12  
*Regression Results for Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for  
 Involvement Activities*

<b>Variable</b>	<b><i>b</i></b>	<b><i>S. E. b</i></b>	<b><math>\beta</math></b>	<b>Sig</b>
(Constant)	3.246	.148	—	.000
Age	-.077	.069	-.063	.264
0 = $\leq$ 34 yrs.				
1 = $\geq$ 35 yrs.				
Gender	-.169	.103	-.134	.100
1 = Female				
2 = Male				
Income	.223	.073	.170	.002
0 = < 800 YTL				
1 = $\geq$ 800 YTL				
Education	-.044	.076	-.032	.563
0 = Literate				
Elementary				
1 = High School				
University or Higher				
Marital Status	.041	.149	.014	.785
0 = Married				
1 = Single, Never Married				
Separated				
Divorced				
Widowed				
Employment Status	.051	.099	.042	.607
0 = Unemployed, Homemaker				
Student				
Retired				
1 = Part-time Employee				
Full-time Employee				
Number of Children	-.031	.029	-.057	.296
Model Summary				
<i>F</i> = 2.217				
<i>df</i> = 6 / 371				
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .041				
Adjusted <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .022				
Sig. < .05				

Overall, the descriptive results suggested that Turkish parents as a group have positive perceptions of life context variables, including personal knowledge and skills ( $M = 3.07/4.00$ ) and personal time and energy ( $M = 3.01/4.00$ ) for involvement activities. The participants believed that they possessed the knowledge and skills and that they had the available time and energy needed for involvement activities. In addition, the regression results demonstrated that the income level of Turkish parents was the only significant predictor of their perceptions of life context variables for involvement activities. Parents with higher-income levels tended to hold stronger positive perceptions of both personal knowledge and skills and personal time and energy as compared to the parents with lower-income levels. This partially supports hypotheses five and six. Hypothesis five was: Turkish parents' perceptions of personal knowledge and skills for involvement activities are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children. Hypothesis six was: Turkish parents' perceptions of personal time and energy for involvement activities are predicted by their age and gender, income and educational level, marital and employment status, and number of children. Regression results also suggested that no statistically significant relationships existed between the other demographic characteristics and Turkish parents' perceptions of invitations from others.

## **Chapter 5**

### **Discussion and Recommendations**

This study explored Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in their young children's education. The relationships between these psychological factors of involvement and parents' demographic characteristics were also part of this study's investigation. The study was based on a major research question and three ancillary research questions related to the main question. Each ancillary question also comprised three subsidiary questions. All research questions were quantitative.

The sample for this study included 374 parents of first and second graders in seven elementary schools in Yozgat, Turkey. Parents responded to the adapted Turkish versions of six scales of the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler parent involvement model's first level (see Appendix D). These scales were developed to enable better understanding of the psychological factors in parent involvement, including parents' beliefs and perceptions about their involvement. Parents also responded to a demographic survey (see Appendix E); responses helped the researcher to examine how these psychological factors were influenced by demographic factors.

The researcher utilized both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics yielded results about Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions about involvement in their young children's education. The investigator also used MLRA to examine how these beliefs and perceptions were influenced by demographic variables.

### *Discussion of the Findings*

The following findings underscore this study's results. The discussion focuses on the significance of the findings for each research question and involves research findings from other studies that investigated similar issues. The major study findings are delineated below.

#### *Research Question One*

Research question one was: What are Turkish parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement? The following sub-questions were developed to help answer this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents' role activity beliefs, that is, the extent to which they believe that they should be actively involved in the child's education? (b) What are Turkish parents' beliefs about their efficacy in helping their children succeed in school? and (c) How do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children affect parental role activity and self-efficacy beliefs?

According to Walker et al. (2005), parents' personal motivational beliefs about involvement in their children's education constitute one of the over-arching constructs in the psychological factors relating to their involvement process. Parents' involvement is motivated by two belief systems (Sheldon, 2002): role construction (role activity beliefs) for involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005) and self-efficacy for helping the child succeed in school. These two belief systems are the two domains in motivational beliefs about involvement. Parental role construction is defined as "parents' beliefs about what they should do in relation to the child's education" (Walker et al., 2005, p. 89). Parental self-efficacy for helping the child in school refers to "parents' beliefs that their

involvement in their children's schooling will positively affect their children's learning and school success" (Anderson & Minke, 2007, p. 312).

To examine Turkish parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement, data were gathered for research question one through use of the adapted Turkish versions of "Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children's Education" and "Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School" scales. The responses to these scales and a demographic survey were analyzed by applying descriptive statistics and MLRA. Findings are discussed below.

Findings showed that the "Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children's Education" mean score for research participants was 3.32/4.00. The mean for "Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School" was 2.77/4.00. Therefore, it can be claimed that Turkish parents tend to have very positive role activity beliefs: that is, they believe they should be highly active in their young children's education. This response comprises their parental role construction with regard to involvement. This study also found that Turkish parents have positive self-efficacy beliefs about helping their young children succeed in school: that is, they believe they are able to be effective in teaching their children and their involvement makes a positive difference. These findings are crucial because the literature shows that positive motivational beliefs lead to more involvement (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001), which in turn positively affects children's school grades and achievement (Grolnick et al., 1997).

In the literature, several other studies (e.g., Deslandes & Bertnard, 2005) investigated parents' motivational beliefs about their involvement. For instance, Green and Hoover-Dempsey (2007) obtained data from 136 parents of elementary school

children and found that parents had very strong role activity beliefs about involvement in their children's education. Likewise, Anderson and Minke (2007) conducted research involving participants with more diverse backgrounds and found that respondents tended to report strong role beliefs about their involvement in children's education. In addition, other studies (e.g., Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992) have examined parental self-efficacy beliefs about involvement in children's education. For instance, Kay et al. (1994) found that even where parents expressed doubts about involvement, their suspicions were found to be related to a lack of adequate information, not to doubts about their capability. Green and Hoover-Dempsey (2007) indicated that parents had a strong sense of efficacy for helping the child learn ( $M = 5.35/6.00$ ). Similarly, Deslandes and Bertrand conducted a study with parents from Quebec, Canada, and found that parents had relatively high self-efficacy for involvement based on their self-reported data. In addition, findings from several other research studies, such as Anderson and Minke (2007) and Cooper, Lindsay, Nye, and Greathouse (1998) indicated relatively high levels of parental efficacy for involvement.

While the findings from this study of parents' motivational beliefs, including their role activity and self-efficacy beliefs about involvement in their children's education, were consistent with the findings from other studies (e.g., Green & Hoover-Dempsey, 2007), all of the studies mentioned here were conducted in Western cultures. Thus, it was essential to conduct similar research in other cultures because, as Bandura (1997) argued, self-efficacy beliefs, for example, can differ from culture to culture. The findings from this investigation were significant because they provided clear information about the same parental motivational beliefs in the Turkish cultural context. Also, this study shows

that parents' motivation beliefs about their involvement are the same in the Turkish and Western cultural contexts.

Parent involvement is a multidimensional process through which multiple variables interplay. It is important to investigate the relationships between the main sets of variables, such as demographic versus psychological, to fully understand the parent involvement process in a given context. Previous research findings (e.g., Bornstein, Hahn, Suwalsky, & Haynes, 2003) on the relationship between demographic characteristics and parent involvement, in general, have been controversial. For example, Koonce and Harper (2005) reported that parent involvement could be predicted by parents' income and education levels. On the other hand, several other studies (e.g., Fan & Chen, 2001) yielded relatively mixed results. Bornstein, Hahn, Suwalsky, and Haynes (2003) found parents' involvement to be related to their demographic characteristics; on the other hand, some researchers have noted that these family variables do not explain the variability in levels and effectiveness of involvement (Fan & Chen, 2001).

Although the previous studies (e.g., Lareau, 2000) in the related literature have not focused on the relationships between motivational beliefs and demographic variables in parent involvement comprehensively, several research findings emphasized some aspects of demographic variables in relation to parents' motivational beliefs. For example, Goldman (2005) reported that fathers were less likely than mothers to think that children's education is equally or more parents' responsibility than that of schools. Also, Lareau (1996) stated that working-class parents differed from middle- and upper-class parents with respect to their role activity beliefs. According to Lareau (2000), working-class parents have "separated" views of home and school and tend to believe their roles

involve basic preparations, such as getting children ready but not going beyond that. In contrast, Segal's (1985) study implied that parents' income level does not predict their role activity beliefs. In addition, Sheldon (2002) and Dauber and Epstein (1993) found that parents with more education tended to develop more positive role activity beliefs about their involvement than parents with less education. On the other hand, Goldenberg's (1987) study indicated that parents with low education levels also had positive role activity beliefs about involvement.

Supporting Lareau's (1996; 2000) statements and in contrast with Segal (1985), the results of this study revealed that Turkish parents' role activity beliefs regarding their involvement are influenced by their monthly family income level. Parents with higher incomes are more likely to have stronger role activity beliefs about involvement than are the lower-income parents. Quite the reverse of Goldman's (2005) findings, the MLRA results from this study showed that parents' role activity beliefs are not influenced by their gender. Furthermore, the results were inconsistent with the findings from Sheldon (2002), Dauber and Epstein (1993), and Goldenberg (1987) since no relationship was found between parents' role activity beliefs and their education level. The results from this study are also important because they indicate that parents' role activity beliefs about their involvement are not influenced by other demographic characteristics such as their age, marital and employment status, and number of children.

Additionally, in the studies of Izzo et al. (1999) and Hoover-Dempsey et al. (1992), parents with higher education were found to have higher levels of efficacy than parents with low levels of education, relating to helping their children succeed in school. Hoover-Dempsey et al., (1992) also reported that there was no significant relationship



among parents' income, gender, and marital status with their efficacy for involvement. In contrast, Hoover-Dempsey and Jones (1997) suggested that parental effectiveness for involvement was negatively associated with marital status, indicating lower efficacy for single parents. However, the results for this study indicate that the only demographic characteristics that affect parents' self-efficacy beliefs about involvement are their income and education levels. Parents with higher income tend to have stronger self-efficacy beliefs about involvement as compared to the parents with lower incomes, and parents with higher education levels had stronger self-efficacy beliefs than the parents with lower educational backgrounds. Turkish parents' self-efficacy beliefs are not found to be associated with their age and gender, marital and employment status, and number of children. These findings are especially important because they reveal how demographic variables relate to parents' efficacy beliefs about involvement.

In sum, the results for question one were partially consistent with research results reported in the related literature. However, the findings were of great significance since the data on parents' motivational beliefs about involvement and how these beliefs were affected by demographic characteristic were gathered from the Turkish participants, which makes the results exceptional in the current related literature. In addition, the results underscored the finding that Turkish parents' motivational beliefs about their involvement in education do not differ from those of their Western counterparts. Lastly, this study underlines the importance of parents' income and education levels as the only factors associated with their motivational beliefs about involvement.

*Research Question Two*

Research question two was: What are Turkish parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others? The following issuesub-questions helped answer these ancillary questions: (a) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school? (b) What are the Turkish parents' perceptions of specific teacher invitations for involvement? (c) How do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education level, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children influence these parental perceptions of general and specific invitations for involvement?

According to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005), parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others are a second major psychological construct in the parent involvement process. This overarching construct includes two domains of parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school, and specific teacher invitations (Walker et al., 2005). Parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement is parents' perceptions that the school wants them to be involved and parents' perceptions of specific teacher invitations for involvement refer to parents' perceptions that the child's teacher wants them to be involved in their children's education (Walker et al., 2005). Parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school (Walker et al., 2005) and teachers (Hartley, 2000) are claimed to influence parents' decisions to become involved and the effectiveness of the overall involvement process (Mulligan, 2006). When the child's teacher and school invite parents to be involved, parents from very diverse backgrounds are more likely to become involved in their children's education (Olivos, 2006). Thus, investigating this psychological construct of parent involvement was critical.

Data were gathered for research question two through responses to the adapted Turkish versions of “Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School” and “Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child’s Teacher” scales. The scales were designed to investigate Turkish parents’ perceptions of invitations for involvement from others. Descriptive statistics and the MLRA were utilized to analyze the responses to these scales and a demographic survey. Findings revealed that the mean score for “Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School” for research participants was 3.24/4.00. The mean for “Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child’s Teacher” was 2.98/4.00. Therefore, it can be asserted that the participants tend to have positive perceptions of invitations for school involvement from others—that is, they believe that school personnel want their involvement. Also, they have positive perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child’s teacher: that is, they believe the child’s teacher wants their involvement.

These findings were quite the opposite of those from several other studies (e.g., Deslandes & Bertrand) that investigated the same question. For example, Pena’s (2000) study revealed that parents believed that their child’s school and teacher did not really welcome their involvement and did not provide specific suggestions about how to help their children. Also, Deslandes and Bertrand’s (2005) study indicated that parents’ perceptions of invitations from the child’s teachers were very low. Thus, this study is of great importance in showing how Turkish participants differed in their “perceptions of invitations from others” from findings from other studies. It is also critical to note that the

results contradicted findings from the existing literature. However, further research needs to be done to explain these contradictory findings.

Furthermore, although research regarding the influence of demographic factors on parents' perceptions of invitations from others is scarce, the few that have been reported claim that schools were perceived as unwelcoming to fathers (Prior & Gerard, 2007), particularly to single-parent fathers (Goldman, 2005). It was also found that highly educated parents expressed less satisfaction with the efforts of teachers (e.g., teacher invitations for involvement) and more positive attitudes toward schools (e.g., school invitations) than lower-educated parents (Smith et al., 1997). However, the results from this study differ in this regard. For example, the MLRA results indicate no relationship between parents' perceptions of general school invitations and specific teacher invitations for involvement and their gender, marital status, and education level. No relationships were found between parents' perceptions of invitations from others and their age, employment status, and number of children as well. On the other hand, the findings from this study show that the only influential demographic factor was parents' income level. Parents with higher income levels tend to hold stronger positive perceptions of general invitations from the school and specific invitations from the child's teacher for involvement than do lower-income parents. This finding is critical in terms of its individuality; nevertheless, note that this study was conducted in a different context—Turkish—than the previous investigations. Therefore, further research on this matter is required.

Overall, the findings reveal that Turkish parents who participated in this study perceived school personnel and their child's teacher as encouraging their involvement.

The second most important finding was that Turkish parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others are affected by their income level: that is, parents with higher incomes tend to hold more positive perceptions of invitations from the school and the child's teacher as compared to lower-income parents. These findings are important since they are at odds with the existing literature. Despite this fact, it is crucial to note that the current literature on the issue is inadequate so further research is needed to support the findings from this study.

### *Research Question Three*

Research question three was: What are Turkish parents' perceptions of life context with respect to their involvement in their children's education? The following sub-questions provided information for this ancillary question: (a) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of their knowledge and skills for involvement? (b) What are Turkish parents' perceptions of their available time and energy for involvement? (c) In what way do parents' age and gender, parents' income and education levels, parents' marital and employment status, and number of children relate to these parental perceptions of time and energy and knowledge and skills and their involvement in their children's education?

The third psychological overarching construct of parent involvement examined in this study was parents' perceptions of life context variables, including their perceptions of personal knowledge and skills and time and energy for involvement activities.

People's knowledge and skill level in a specific domain is critical in influencing their thoughts and actions. For instance, knowing how to communicate effectively with their children and teachers, helping with and supervising their child's homework, and being aware of the special events and volunteer opportunities at their child's school are some

examples of parental knowledge and skills regarding their involvement in their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005). Baumrind (1991) reported that if parents perceived their knowledge and skills to be sufficient, they were more likely to be involved in activities with their children, which in turn affected their parental tendencies to value their children's school success. Parents' skills and knowledge also affect the degree and type of involvement (Smrekar & Cohen-Vogel, 2001); in general, they tend to choose involvement forms in which they believe they can be successful (Kay et al., 1994). It was suggested that parents' available time and energy for involvement activities is another primary factor affecting the types and levels of their involvement (Lopez, 2001). For example, Petr (2003) asserted that parents whose jobs make heavy time demands and have unstable working schedules are less likely to be involved, than those who have reasonable and flexible work hours. Hence, investigating parents' perceptions of life context variables was essential.

Data for research question three were gathered by using the adapted Turkish versions of the "Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities" and the "Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities" scales along with the demographic survey. Descriptive statistics and the MLRA results were used to analyze the responses to these measures. The mean score for "Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities" was 3.07/4.00. The mean for "Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities" was 3.01/4.00. Therefore, it can be claimed that the participants in this study as a group have positive perceptions of life context variables, including personal knowledge and skills and personal time and energy for involvement activities.

These findings concur with those from several other studies (e.g., Green et al., 2007; Walker et al., 2005) in which parents reported having adequate personal knowledge and skills and time and energy for involvement in children's education. However, these findings differ from those of several other reports (e.g., Families and Work Institute, 1994; U.S. Department of Education, 1994) which revealed that most American parents reported not having enough time and energy for involvement activities. Thus, these findings are of great importance in indicating that Turkish parents believe that they possess sufficient knowledge and skills and time and energy needed for involvement activities, based on self-reports.

Moreover, the MLRA results revealed that Turkish parents' income level is the only significant predictor of their perceptions of life context variables for involvement activities. Parents with higher income levels tend to hold stronger positive perceptions of both personal knowledge and skills and personal time and energy as compared to parents with lower income levels. These findings echo the concerns of other researchers (e.g., McLoyd, 1990; Seda, 2007) who reported that low-income parents are more likely to face barriers that limit the time and energy needed for involvement and are unsure of how to act in regard to their involvement.

In addition, several researchers (e.g., Lareau, 2000) reported that parents with higher education are more likely have sufficient knowledge and skills for involvement activities (Carlisle et al., 2005). It was also reported that single parents lack time and energy (Grolnick et al., 1997) and parents who work long and unpredictable hours (Collignon, Men, & Tan, 2001) with multiple children (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997) have inadequate time and energy to attend parent involvement activities at school.

Inconsistent with their conclusions, the regression results for this study revealed that parents' demographic characteristics, such as education level, marital and employment status, and number of children, do not influence their perceptions of personal time and energy and knowledge and skills in relation to their involvement in their young children's education. The study also demonstrated that there is no relationship between parents' perceptions of life context variables and their involvement and their age and gender. These findings are crucial because they indicate that Turkish parents' perceptions of their personal knowledge and skills and time and energy for involvement activities differ in some aspects from those of their Western counterparts. This study is also significant since there has been no other investigation, to the author's knowledge, that has addressed similar research questions in the Turkish context.

In summary, the study results are in part similar to those reported in the related existing literature: parents as a group tend to have positive perceptions of life context variables for involvement activities that have been found to be a psychological factor in the parent involvement process. The findings are also important in revealing information about the relationship between these parental perceptions and demographic characteristics that have not been studied comprehensively before. This study underscores the importance of parents' income as the only factor associated with their perceptions of personal knowledge and skills and available time and energy for involvement. Thus, the findings are important in providing a full understanding of the dimensions of the parent involvement process. It can also be claimed that the study reveals unique information since the participants in this investigation were Turkish



parents of first and second graders who had not participated in research on this or similar issues.

### *Recommendations*

This section is divided into two parts. The first part presents recommendations for future study on the topic by taking account the limitations of the current study and inadequacy of other research in the existing literature. The second part includes implications for policy and practice derived from the findings from this study and the related literature.

#### *Recommendations for Future Study*

Little is known about the subject of parent involvement in Turkey. Specifically, there has been no research on the psychological factors of parent involvement and their relationship with demographic variables in the Turkish context. Further, relatively little research evidence is available from other cultural contexts such as the U.S. and European. Therefore, this study is of great importance because it attempted to explore a subject area that has never been studied in the Turkish context. The contributions of this study to the related research field are abundant.

However, there are some limitations in this study. For instance, this study was conducted in the Yozgat province of Turkey and the data were gathered from the parents of students from seven elementary schools. Therefore, similar studies should be conducted in other regions of Turkey and in other cultural contexts outside Turkey. In doing so, it will be possible to compare parents' beliefs and perceptions for their involvement in their children's education according to their sociocultural and environmental situations. This recommendation is also supported by the main figures in

the field, such as Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory and Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, because it is claimed that people's beliefs and perceptions are affected by the systems and culture in which they live. For example, parents' self-efficacy beliefs for helping their children succeed in school should be investigated in other cultures as well because such self-efficacy beliefs can be affected by cultural characteristics, as Bandura (1997) has argued. Application of similar investigations in different regions, countries, and cultures can also encourage universal debate on the topic, which can improve understanding of the parent involvement process.

The study had other limitations. The researcher recruited parents of only first and second graders as participants because this research focused on parents' involvement in their "young" children's education. In addition, illiterate parents were not included in this study. Hence, there needs to be more research with the parents of other children in other grades and that includes illiterate parents. A qualitative study can be fruitful when seeking to include illiterate research participants.

Although the study has advantages in being the first research on the influence of demographic variables on psychological aspects of parent involvement in Turkey, there is a need for further research. For example, the findings indicated that parents' income level is the strongest predictor of their beliefs and perceptions about involvement in children's education. In addition, another finding was that parents' self-efficacy beliefs were affected by their educational background as well. These findings need to be tested in other empirical studies in related subject areas to support their universality.

More to the point, the study findings are based on parents' self-reports. One can discuss the correctness of participants' reports since their responses to the surveys were

not individually identified through observations or other methods. Thus, other research is needed to detect parents' "actual" behaviors with respect to their involvement in children's education in order to go beyond self-reports about their beliefs and perceptions. For example, qualitative research techniques, including interviews and observations, could indicate their actual involvement behaviors. Also, applying the second- and third-level scales of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) could provide more information on parents' actual involvement behaviors. While their other scales are still based on self-reports, they include items targeting behavioral aspects of involvement.

It should be noted, however, that Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's parent involvement model is a new model and its scales, six of which were used in this study, need to be used by other researchers in order to further test the model and improve the validity of the scales. Besides, this researcher adapted six of the level-1 scales from Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's model and used them as a major instrument. Since this is the first time that adapted Turkish versions of these scales were applied via Turkish versions, use of these scales in other studies can contribute to information on their validity, as asserted by Hambleton and Patsula (1999). Also, adapting other scales from the model to the Turkish context and testing them can make more instruments available to analyses of the parent involvement process and make such study more comprehensive in the Turkish context.

Moreover, parent involvement is a multidimensional process. It includes figures other than parents, such as teachers, children, school administrators, and policy makers. Therefore, there needs to be more research on the same subject that focuses on these people's perspectives. For example, teachers' beliefs and perceptions about parent

involvement in children's education can differ from those of parents'. More research can make more information available on each stakeholder's perspective and, in turn, lead to fuller understanding of the whole parent involvement process and improve it to meet all participants' needs.

Overall, this study provides significant information about Turkish' parents beliefs and perceptions about involvement in their young children's education and the influence of their demographic characteristics on these beliefs and perceptions. However, the findings and claims of the study need to be tested by conducting other studies to address similar topics, and use different methods, samples, and perspectives. In doing so, it may be possible to have a scholarly debate on the issue.

#### *Implications for Policy and Practice*

Parent involvement has been seen as a multidimensional and interactive process. Policy makers, school administrators, teachers, parents, and children are considered to be the main elements in parent involvement. The ultimate goal of parent involvement is to improve educational outcomes. Effective parent involvement can also result in positive contributions to children's social and emotional development. Parent involvement has numerous benefits to people who are part of this process. Hence, all people who are part of this process make their own contributions to parent involvement so that everyone can benefit from it.

The findings indicate that Turkish parents believe that they should be responsible for being engaged in their young children's education, and that they have positive self-efficacy beliefs which indicate that they believe they are able to be effective in teaching their children and that their involvement makes a positive difference. They also perceive

that their involvement is desired by school personnel and teachers. In addition, they perceive that they have sufficient knowledge and skills and time and energy for involvement activities. However, it was found that these beliefs and perceptions are influenced by their income level in all domains. Parents with higher income were found to have more positive beliefs and perceptions about involvement than parents with lower incomes. In addition, besides their income levels, their educational background was also found to influence their self-efficacy beliefs about helping children succeed in school. Parents with higher education levels tended to have higher levels of self-efficacy beliefs than the parents with lower education levels. Thus, in light of these findings several implications for policy and practice can be raised.

First, policy makers play an important role in the Turkish educational system since education policies are determined by the central government, not by local districts. Therefore, some of these recommendations are directed to policy makers. For example, policy makers should note that Turkish parents are sensitive to their children's education since it has been found that they hold positive role activity beliefs about their involvement. For this reason, policy makers may wish to work on new regulations to improve parent involvement in Turkey and benefit from their contributions to education. These regulations can include new parent involvement programs. Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions are affected generally by their income level and partly by their educational background. New programs can be designed to target all parents but especially low-income and low-education parents. By implementing programs similar to Head Start, parents can be assisted through training to achieve beneficial parent involvement in their children's education. Policy makers and NGOs can also design a

training project for school administrators and teachers on how to implement effective parent involvement activities so that collaborations with parents are fruitful and help parents to put their positive beliefs and perceptions into action.

Second, with the help of policy makers and the central government, parent involvement centers can be established in each province in Turkey. Trained and professional parent involvement specialists can be recruited in these centers to coordinate parent involvement projects and programs and work with school administrators to reach the parents. School administrators should also realize that parent involvement is important and worth intense effort. The study showed that parents with lower income levels feel that they receive fewer invitations for involvement from the school than parents with higher incomes. Therefore, school administrators need to focus on the reasons for such differences. They can discuss the potential reasons with families and work on possible solutions. School administrators should also provide parents with opportunities to engage in decision-making processes since the parents appear to believe that they have enough knowledge and skills for involvement. For instance, parents' knowledge and skills can benefit school events. The study also demonstrated that Turkish parents have enough time and energy for involvement activities, which makes it easier for school administrators to make the involvement activities happen. Thus, school administrators can engage in meetings with parents to discuss other potential barriers, if there are any, and create a survey about types of parent involvement.

Third, in light of the study findings it is strongly suggested that teachers not underestimate parents' potential capabilities for involvement. For instance, parents reported having sufficient knowledge and skills for involvement activities. Relying on

this finding, teachers need to develop a positive understanding of parents' contributions. Parents are a great resource in children's education—they are the first educators of their own children. Also, the findings revealed that Turkish parents believe they should be involved in their young children's education, which is also important for the child's teacher to understand. Parent involvement can be achieved through effective communication between the parents and the child's teacher. Therefore, teachers should initiate and establish healthy communication with parents regardless of their income level. The results also demonstrated that parents have enough time and energy for involvement activities. Teachers can benefit from this fact. They can send out a letter and a survey to parents before the beginning of each school year to obtain information on parents' availability and how they can contribute to involvement activities.

Fourth, it is suggested that parents use school-family associations effectively to initiate more involvement activities. They can demand more training in specific activities, such as involvement in children's reading experiences. Furthermore, it was found that they believe they are responsible for involvement and able to do so. Thus, they need to ask for more opportunities for involvement. Regardless of their income level, they need to develop an understanding of responsibility for involvement in their children's education because the children need them. Turkish parents reported having enough time and energy and knowledge and skills for involvement activities. Hence, they can use this potential for the benefit of their children. For example, parents can initiate activities such as introducing and giving information about their professions to students so that young children can learn about different professions first-hand. Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions about their involvement are positive but their actual involvement behaviors

(e.g., helping with the child's homework) still need to be investigated. If the actual behavior component in the parent involvement process is not similar to their beliefs and perceptions, it can be claimed that more efforts are needed to remove the barriers and obtain the utmost gains from parent involvement. However, if similar, more efforts can still be made to improve the efficiency of parent involvement through well-designed programs and collaborative work. By doing so, the children, who are at the center of this process, can realize the importance of their parents' involvement and see how their education is valued by the most important figures in their lives. As a result, children will develop positive attitudes toward their education from their parents' positive beliefs and perceptions about involvement in children's education.

Overall, all stakeholders are important in the parent involvement process. The information on Turkish parents' beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in young children's education and how these beliefs and perceptions are influenced by demographic factors made it possible to provide significant suggestions for policy makers, school administrators, teachers, and parents about parent involvement. It is believed that the parent involvement process can be better understood and implemented via the findings from this study and can be improved by following the suggestions made here.



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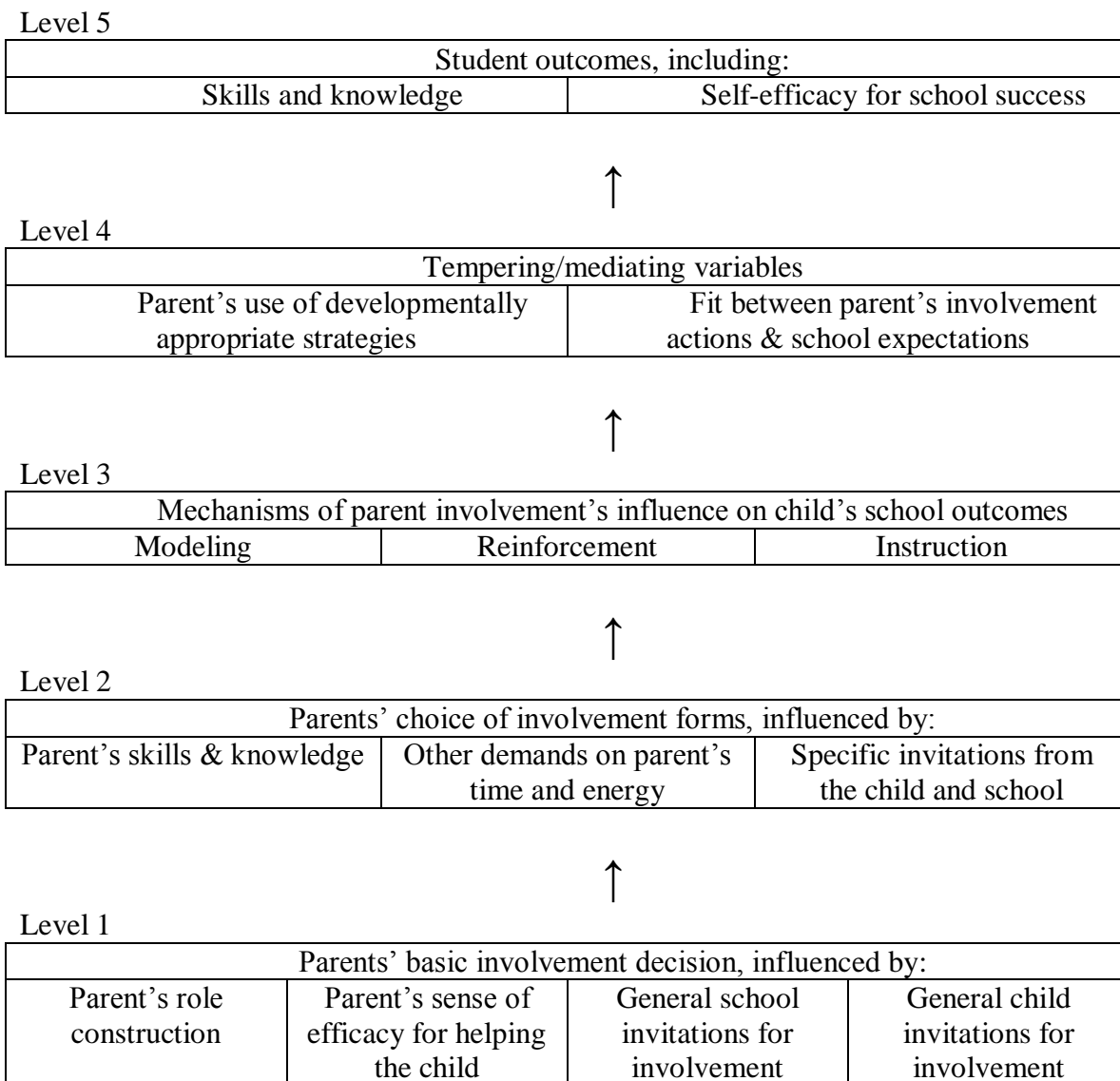
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**Appendix A**

**Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's Model of Parent Involvement Process (1995,  
1997)**

### Model of the Parent Involvement Process





## **Appendix B**

**Level 1 from the Revised Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler Model of Parent Involvement Process (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005; Walker et al., 2005)**

**Level 1 from the Revised Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler Model of Parent Involvement Process**

Personal Motivation		Invitations			Life Context	
Parental Role Construction	Parental Efficacy	General School Invitations	Specific School Invitations	Specific Child Invitations	Knowledge and Skills	Time and Energy

**Appendix C**

**Original Versions of Level 1 Scales from Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's Revised  
Parent Involvement Model (2005)**

## **Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in the Child's Education Scale**

### Instructions

Please indicate how much you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements. Please think about the current school year as you consider each statement.

### Response format

All items in the scale use a six-point response format (disagree very strongly to agree very strongly): 1 = Disagree very strongly; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Disagree just a little; 4 = Agree just a little; 5 = Agree; 6 = Agree very strongly.

### Items

I believe it is my responsibility...

1. ...to volunteer at the school
2. ...to communicate with my child's teacher regularly.
3. ...to help my child with homework.
4. ...make sure the school has what it needs.
5. ...support decisions made by the teacher.
6. ...stay on top of things at school.
7. ...explain tough assignments to my child.
8. ...talk with other parents from my child's school.
9. ...make the school better.
10. ...talk with my child about the school day.

### **Parental Self-Efficacy for Helping the Child Succeed in School Scale**

#### Instructions to respondent

Please indicate how much you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements. Please think about the current school year as you consider each statement.

#### Response format

All items in the scale use a six-point response format (disagree very strongly to agree very strongly): 1 = Disagree very strongly; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Disagree just a little; 4 = Agree just a little; 5 = Agree; 6 = Agree very strongly.

#### Items

1. I know how to help my child do well in school.
2. I don't know if I'm getting through to my child. (reversed)
3. I don't know how to help my child make good grades in school. (reversed)
4. I feel successful about my efforts to help my child learn.
5. Other children have more influence on my child's grades than I do. (reversed)
6. I don't know how to help my child learn. (reversed)
7. I make a significant difference in my child's school performance.

**Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School Scale**Instructions to respondent

Please indicate how much you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements. Please think about the current school year as you consider each statement.

Response format

All items in the scale use a six-point response format (disagree very strongly to agree very strongly): 1 = Disagree very strongly; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Disagree just a little; 4 = Agree just a little; 5 = Agree; 6 = Agree very strongly.

Items

1. Teachers at this school are interested and cooperative when they discuss my child.
2. I feel welcome at this school.
3. Parent activities are scheduled at this school so that I can attend.
4. This school lets me know about meetings and special school events.
5. This school's staff contacts me promptly about any problems involving my child.
6. The teachers at this school keep me informed about my child's progress in school.

## **Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Teacher**

### Instructions to respondent

Please indicate HOW OFTEN the following have happened SINCE THE BEGINNING OF THIS SCHOOL YEAR.

### Response format

All items in the scale use a six-point response format (never to daily): 1 = never; 2 = 1 or 2 times; 3 = 4 or 5 times; 4 = once a week; 5 = a few times a week; 6 = daily.

### Items

1. My child's teacher asked me or expected me to help my child with homework.
2. My child's teacher asked me or expected me to supervise my child's homework.
3. My child's teacher asked me to talk with my child about the school day.
4. My child's teacher asked me to attend a special event at school.
5. My child's teacher asked me to help out at the school.
6. My child's teacher contacted me (for example, sent a note, phoned, e-mailed).

## **Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills Scale**

### Instructions to respondent

Please indicate how much you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements with regard to the current school year.

### Response format

All items in the scale use a six-point response format (disagree very strongly to agree very strongly): 1 = Disagree very strongly; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Disagree just a little; 4 = Agree just a little; 5 = Agree; 6 = Agree very strongly.

### Items

1. I know about volunteering opportunities at my child's school.
2. I know about special events at my child's school.
3. I know effective ways to contact my child's teacher.
4. I know how to communicate effectively with my child about the school day.
5. I know how to explain things to my child about his or her homework.
6. I know enough about the subjects of my child's homework to help him or her.
7. I know how to communicate effectively with my child's teacher.
8. I know how to supervise my child's homework.
9. I have the skills to help out at my child's school.



## **Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy Scale**

### Instructions to respondent

Please indicate how much you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements with regard to the current school year.

### Response format

All items in the scale use a six-point response format (disagree very strongly to agree very strongly): 1 = Disagree very strongly; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Disagree just a little; 4 = Agree just a little; 5 = Agree; 6 = Agree very strongly.

### Items

I have enough time and energy to...

1. ... communicate effectively with my child about the school day.
2. ... help out at my child's school.
3. ... communicate effectively with my child's teacher.
4. ... attend special events at school.
5. ... help my child with homework.
6. ... supervise my child's homework.

**Appendix D**

**Adapted Level 1 Scales from the Revised Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler Model of  
Parent Involvement Process (English & Turkish)**

## 1. PERSONAL MOTIVATION

### 1.1. Parental Role Construction

#### 1.1.1. Parental Role Activity Beliefs for Involvement in Children's Education

Parents have many different beliefs about their level of responsibility in their children's education. Please indicate how much you **AGREE** or **DISAGREE** with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I believe it is my responsibility to volunteer at the school.				
2. I believe it is my responsibility to communicate with my child's teacher regularly.				
3. I believe it is my responsibility to help my child with homework.				
4. I believe it is my responsibility to make sure that the school has what it needs.				
5. I believe it is my responsibility to support decisions made by the teacher about my child's education.				
6. I believe it is my responsibility to be aware and in control of things at school.				
7. I believe it is my responsibility to explain tough assignments to my child.				
8. I believe it is my responsibility to talk with other parents from my child's school.				
9. I believe it is my responsibility to make the school better.				
10. I believe it is my responsibility to talk with my child about the school day.				

## 1.2. Parental Efficacy

### 1.2.1. Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School (Helping My Child Learn)

Please indicate how much you **AGREE** or **DISAGREE** with each of the following statements. Please think about the current school year as you consider each statement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
11. I know how to help my child do well in school.				
12. I don't know if I'm able to explain myself to my child well while I'm trying to help his/her learning.				
13. I don't know how to help my child succeed in school.				
14. I feel I'm successful in my efforts to help my child learn.				
15. Other children have more influence on my child's success in school than I do.				
16. I don't know how to help my child learn.				
17. I make a significant difference in my child's school performance.				

## 2. INVITATIONS

### 2.1. General Invitations

#### 2.1.1. Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School

Please indicate how much you **AGREE** or **DISAGREE** with each of the following statements. Please think about the current school year as you consider each statement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
18. Teachers at school are interested and cooperative when they discuss my child with me.				
19. I feel welcome at school.				
20. Parent activities are scheduled at school at convenient times so that I can attend.				
21. This school lets me know about meetings and special school events.				
22. This school's staff contacts me promptly about any problems involving my child.				
23. The teachers at school keep me informed about my child's progress in school.				

## 2.2. Specific School Invitations

### 2.2.1. Parental Perceptions of Specific Teacher Invitations to Involvement

Please indicate how much you **AGREE** or **DISAGREE** with each of the following statements. Please think about the current school year as you consider each statement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
24. My child's teacher asks me or expects me to help my child with homework.				
25. My child's teacher asks me or expects me to supervise my child's homework.				
26. My child's teacher asks me or expects me to talk with my child about the school day.				
27. My child's teacher asks me to attend special events at school.				
28. My child's teacher invites me to help out at the school.				
29. My child's teacher contacts me (for example, send a note, phone, and e-mail.)				

### 3. LIFE CONTEXT

#### 3.1. Knowledge and Skills

##### 3.1.1. Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities

Please indicate how much you **AGREE** or **DISAGREE** with each of the following statements. Please think about the current school year as you consider each statement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
30. I know about volunteering opportunities at my child's school.				
31. I know how to communicate effectively with my child about the school day.				
32. I know how to explain things to my child about his or her homework.				
33. I know about special events at school.				
34. I know enough about the subjects of my child's homework to help him or her.				
35. I know how to communicate effectively with my child's teacher.				
36. I know how to supervise my child's homework.				
37. I have the skills to help out at my child's school.				
38. I know effective ways to contact my child's teacher.				

### 3.2. Time and Energy

#### 3.2.1. Parental Perceptions of Personal Time and Energy for Involvement Activities

Please indicate how much you **AGREE** or **DISAGREE** with each of the following statements. Please think about the current school year as you consider each statement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
39. I have enough time and energy to communicate effectively with my child about the school day.				
40. I have enough time and energy to help out at my child's school.				
41. I have enough time and energy to communicate effectively with my child's teacher.				
42. I have enough time and energy to attend special events at school.				
43. I have enough time and energy to help my child with homework.				
44. I have enough time and energy to supervise my child's homework.				



## 1. KİŞİSEL MOTİVASYON

### 1.1. Ebeveyn Rolü Oluşumu

#### 1.1.1. Katılım İçin Ebeveyn Rol Etkinliği İnançları

Ebeveynlerin çocuklarının eğitimlerine dair sahip oldukları sorumluluk seviyeleri hakkında birçok değişik inançları bulunmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıdaki herbir ifadeye ne kadar KATILIP KATILMADIĞINIZI belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. Okulda gönüllü olarak görev almanın sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.				
2. Çocuğumun öğretmeniyle düzenli olarak iletişim kurmanın sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.				
3. Çocuğuma ev ödevlerinde yardımcı olmanın sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.				
4. Okulun gereken ihtiyaçlarına sahip olduğunu sağlama almanın sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.				
5. Çocuğumun eğitimiyle ilgili öğretmen tarafından alınan kararları desteklemenin sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.				
6. Okulda olan şeylerden haberdar olup kontrol etmenin sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.				
7. Zor ödevleri çocuğuma açıklamamın sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.				
8. Çocuğumun okulundaki diğer velilerle konuşmanın sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.				
9. Okulu daha iyi hale getirmenin sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.				
10. Çocuğumla okulda geçirdiği gün hakkında konuşmanın sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.				

## 1.2. Katılım İçin Ebeveyn Özyeterliliği İnançları

### 1.2.1. Çocuğun Okuldaki Başarısı İçin Ebeveyn Yeterliliği (Çocuğumun Öğrenmesine Yardımcı Olmak)

Lütfen aşağıdaki herbir ifadeye ne kadar **KATILIP KATILMADIĞINIZI** şu anki okul yılını göz önünde bulundurarak belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. Çocuğuma okulda başarılı olması için nasıl yardım edebileceğimi biliyorum.				
2. Çocuğumun öğrenmesine yardımcı olmaya çalışırken ona kendimi iyi anlatabildiğimden emin değilim.				
3. Çocuğuma okulda başarılı olabilmesi için nasıl yardımcı olacağımı bilmiyorum.				
4. Çocuğumun öğrenmesine yardımcı olma çabalarımnda başarılı olduğumu hissediyorum.				
5. Diğer çocukların çocuğumun okuldaki başarısı üzerinde benden daha fazla etkisi var.				
6. Çocuğumun öğrenmesine nasıl yardımcı olacağımı bilmiyorum.				
7. Çocuğumun okul performansında önemli bir fark yaratıyorum.				

## 2. DAVETLER

### 2.1. Genel Davetler

#### 2.1.1. Katılım İçin Okuldan Gelen Genel Davetlerin Ebeveynler Tarafından Algılanmaları

Lütfen aşağıdaki herbir ifadeye ne kadar **KATILIP KATILMADIĞINIZI** şu anki okul yılını göz önünde bulundurarak belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. Okuldaki öğretmenler benimle çocuğum hakkında görüşürken ilgili ve yardımcıdır.				
2. Okulda hoş karşılandığımı hissediyorum.				
3. Okuldaki veli aktiviteleri uygun zamanlarda yapıldığı için katılabiliyorum.				
4. Bu okul beni toplantılar ve okuldaki özel etkinlikler hakkında bilgilendiriyor.				
5. Okul personeli çocuğumu ilgilendiren herhangi bir problem söz konusu olduğunda benimle hemen temasa geçiyor.				
6. Okuldaki öğretmenler çocuğumun okuldaki gidişatıyla ilgili beni sürekli olarak bilgilendiriyor.				

## 2.2. Spesifik Okul Davetleri

### 2.2.2. Katılım İçin Spesifik Öğretmen Davetlerinin Ebeveynler Tarafından Algılanmaları

Lütfen aşağıdaki herbir ifadeye ne kadar **KATILIP KATILMADIĞINIZI şu anki okul yılını göz önünde bulundurarak belirtiniz.**

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. Çocuğumun öğretmeni benden çocuğuma ödevlerinde yardım etmemi istiyor veya bekliyor.				
2. Çocuğumun öğretmeni benden çocuğumun ödevlerini gözetip denetlememi istiyor veya bekliyor.				
3. Çocuğumun öğretmeni benden çocuğumla okulda geçirdiği gün hakkında konuşmamı istiyor veya bekliyor.				
4. Çocuğumun öğretmeni beni okuldaki özel etkinliklere davet ediyor.				
5. Çocuğumun öğretmeni beni okuldaki yardımcı olabileceğim işleri yapmaya davet ediyor.				
6. Çocuğumun öğretmeni benimle iletişime geçiyor (Örneğin, not, telefon ya da e-mail yoluyla).				

### 3. HAYAT ŞARTLARI

#### 3.1. Bilgi ve Beceriler

##### 3.1.1. Ebeveynlerin Katılım Aktiviteleriyle İlgili Kişisel Bilgi ve Becerilerine Yönelik Algıları

Lütfen aşağıdaki herbir ifadeye ne kadar **KATILIP KATILMADIĞINIZI** şu anki okul yılını göz önünde bulundurarak belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. Çocuğumun okulundaki gönüllü çalışma imkanları hakkında bilgim var.				
2. Çocuğumla okulda geçirdiği gün hakkında etkin bir şekilde nasıl iletişim kurulacağını biliyorum.				
3. Çocuğuma ödevini ilgilendiren şeyleri nasıl açıklayacağımı biliyorum.				
4. Okulda düzenlenen özel etkinliklerden haberim var.				
5. Çocuğumun ödevlerindeki konular hakkında ona yardım edecek kadar bilgim var.				
6. Çocuğumun öğretmeniyle etkin bir şekilde nasıl iletişim kuracağımı biliyorum.				
7. Çocuğumun ödevlerini nasıl gözetip denetleyeceğimi biliyorum.				
8. Çocuğumun okuluna yardımcı olabilecek becerilerim var.				
9. Çocuğumun öğretmeniyle iletişime geçmek için etkili yolları biliyorum.				

### 3.2. Zaman ve Enerji

#### 3.2.1. Ebeveynlerin Katılım Aktiviteleriyle İlgili Kişisel Zaman ve Enerjilerine Yönelik Algıları

Lütfen aşağıdaki herbir ifadeye ne kadar **KATILIP KATILMADIĞINIZI** şu anki okul yılını göz önünde bulundurarak belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. Çocuğumla okulda geçirdiği günle ilgili etkili bir biçimde iletişim kurmak için yeterli zaman ve enerjim var.				
2. Çocuğumun okuluna yardımcı olmak için yeterli zaman ve enerjim var.				
3. Çocuğumun öğretmeniyle etkili olarak iletişim kurmak için yeterli zaman ve enerjim var.				
4. Okuldaki özel etkinliklere katılmak için yeterli zaman ve enerjim var.				
5. Çocuğuma ödevinde yardım etmek için yeterli zaman ve enerjim var.				
6. Çocuğumun ödevlerini gözetip denetlemek için yeterli zaman ve enerjim var.				

**Appendix E**

**Demographic Survey (English & Turkish)**

## Demographic Survey

The researcher understands that the following information may be of a sensitive nature. The researcher asks for this information because it helps with describing the nature of families in total group. Please mark the response for each item that best describes you and your family.

**1. Your age:** 18-25  26-34  35-45  46-55  Over 55

**2. Your gender:** Female  Male

**3. Family income per month (mark one):**

Less than 800 YTL  800-1400 YTL  More than 1400

**4. Your level of education (please mark your highest level completed):**

Literate  Elementary School  High School

University or higher Degree

**5. Your marital status:**

Single, Never Married  Married  Separated  Divorced

Widowed

**6. Your employment status:**

Unemployed, homemaker  Student  Retired

Full-time employee  Part-time employee

**7. How many children under the age of 19 live in your home?**

1  2  3  4  5  6 or more



## Demografi Anketi

Aşağıda istenen bilgiler arařtırmacıya anketi dolduran bütün gruptakiler hakkında istatistiksel bilgi vermek ve bu grubu bilimsel olarak tanımlayabilme imkanı sağlayacaktır. Lütfen her maddeyi kendinize uygun olan ılıkın yanındaki kutucuęu işaretleyerek yanıtlayınız.

**1. Yaşınız:** 18-25  26-34  35-45  46-55  55 den fazla

**2. Cinsiyetiniz:** Bayan  Bay

**3. Ailenizin toplam senelik geliri (birini işaretleyiniz):**

800 YTL'den az  800-1400 YTL  1400 YTL'den fazla

**4. Eğitim seviyeniz (lütfen bitirdiğiniz en yüksek seviyeyi işaretleyiniz):**

Okur-yazar  İlköğretim Okulu  Lise  Üniversite ve daha yukarısı

**5. Medeni haliniz:**

Bekar, Hiç evlenmemiş  Evli  Ayrı  Boşanmış  Dul

**6. Çalışma durumunuz:**

İşsiz, ev hanımı  Öğrenci  Emekli

Tam zamanlı çalışan  Yarı zamanlı çalışan

**7. Evinizde 19 yaşından küçük kaç çocuk yaşıyor?**

1  2  3  4  5  6 veya daha fazla

**Appendix F**

**Information Sheet for the Pilot Study (English & Turkish)**

### **Information Sheet for School Administrators**

Dear School Administrator,

My name is Ali Kemal Tekin. I am a PhD. Candidate in Curriculum and Instruction Department here at Penn State, University Park campus. My option area is Early Childhood Education and my adviser is Dr. Thomas Daniel Yawkey.

I am planning to use Level I scales of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) to examine the parent involvement in Turkey with Turkish sample. The original scale developed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) can be found in the following URL address: <http://www.vanderbilt.edu/Peabody/family-school/scaledescriptions.html>

This original instrument was developed by using parents living in the United States of America as participants. Since I am intending to apply this instrument to the Turkish parents of children who are in first and second grades, there are some validity and reliability issues I need to deal with and do a pilot study. Hence, this study is being conducted for research.

Back translation, asking three Turkish experts in Turkish universities, asking professionals, conducting statistical procedures such as doing a pilot study with a sample representing target population are some important steps in order to have a solid and strong validity and reliability of this instrument before I use it with larger participants for my dissertation.

In this case, I would be very glad if you could help me in my research study for piloting the instrument by assisting with recruiting the participants. The attached implied informed consent form will be provided to the potential participants one week before their participation. Then the surveys will be given to the parents who have decided to participate. Participation includes filling out the attached demographic survey and completing the attached parent involvement scales. The demographic survey does not include any information that might reasonably lead to the identification of individual participants. If you decide to help, you will also be asked to deliver the recruitment materials and surveys to the parents along with an envelope which will also be provided by me. After completing the surveys, participants will need to return the completed surveys in that provided envelope in a sealed way. Lastly, I will pick up the sealed envelopes with the completed surveys in them from your administration.

Recruiting at least 50 parents of first and second graders in your school as participants will be a fundamental contribution to my adaptation study. By adapting the attached scales, there will be available scientific scales regarding parent involvement in the education of young children.

Please contact me at 814-3214966 or akt135@psu.edu if you have any questions or if you need more information.

## **Okul Yöneticileri için Bilgi Dokumanı**

Sayın Okul Yöneticisi,

Benim adım Ali Kemal Tekin. Halen Penn State Üniversitesi, University Park yerleşkesinde doktora öğrencisiyim. Alanım Okul Öncesi Eğitimi ve akademik danışmanım Dr. Thomas Daniel Yawkey'dir.

Türkiye'de ve Türk örneklemele çocuk eğitiminde ebeveyn katılımını incelemek için Hoover-Dempsey ve Sandler'e (2005) ait Seviye I ölçeklerini kullanmayı planlıyorum. Hoover-Dempsey ve Sandler (2005) tarafından geliştirilen örneğin aslı aşağıdaki internet adresinde bulunabilir:

<http://www.vanderbilt.edu/Peabody/family-school/scaledescriptions.html>

Bu enstrümanın aslı Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'ndeki ebeveynlerin katılımıyla geliştirilmiştir. Ben bu enstrümanı birinci ve ikinci sınıf öğrencilerinin Türk ebeveynlerine uygulamak istediğimden, bazı geçerlilik ve güvenilirlik meselerini halletmem ve bir pilot çalışma yapmam gerekmektedir. Sonuç olarak bu bir araştırma çalışmasıdır.

Geri tercüme, Türkiye'deki üniversitelerde bu alanda uzman olan üç kişiye sorma, bu konuda alan tecrübesi olan profesyonellere sorma, pilot çalışma yapmak bu enstrümanı doktora tez için daha büyük bir örneklemele yapacağım çalışmadan önce atılması gereken adımlardır. Bu sayılan aşamalardan geçen enstrümanın Türk kültürü ve dilinde kullanılması için güçlü bir geçerliliği olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Bu durumda, sizden pilot çalışma için örneklem bulmamda yardımcı olmanızı talep ediyorum. Katılımcı olabilmek için okulunuzda bulunan birinci ve ikinci sınıfa giden öğrencilerin velisi olmak gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmaya yardımcı olmaya karar verdiğiniz takdirde bu katılımcılara dağıtılmak üzere herbiri için EK'teki Sosyal Bilimler Araştırması için Bilgilendirici İzin Formu, Demografik Anket, 44 maddeden oluşan Eğitimde Aile Katılımı Ölçekleri ve bu anket ve formların doldurulduktan sonra içine koyup size iade etmesi için kullanmak üzere boş zarf araştırmacı tarafından temin edilecektir. İçindeki anketlerle birlikte bu zarflar tarafımda sizden teslim alınacaktır.

Bu çalışmaya katılacak en az 50 tane birinci ve ikinci sınıf öğrencisi velisi mevzu bahis anketlerin Türkçeye uyarlanma ve Türk kültüründe kullanılması için uyarlanmasına çok temel ve büyük bir katkı sağlayacaktır. Bu ölçeklerin uyarlanması, eğitimdeki veli katılımıyla ilgili bilimsel ve kullanıma açık bir enstrüman bulunmasını sağlayacaktır.

Konuyla ilgili daha fazla bilgi veya sorularınız için lütfen 814-3214966 no'lu telefondan ya da akt135@psu.edu olan e-mail adresinden araştırmacıya ulaşınız.

**Appendix G**

**Implied Informed Consent Form for the Pilot Study (English & Turkish)**

**Implied Informed Consent Form for Social Science Research**  
The Pennsylvania State University

**Title of Project:** Adaptation of Parent Involvement Scales

**Principal Investigator:** Ali Kemal Tekin, Graduate Student  
460 Waupelani Dr. Apt # 201  
State College, PA, 16801, USA  
(814) 321-4966; akt135@psu.edu

**Advisor:** Dr. Thomas Daniel Yawkey  
204 Chambers Building  
University Park, PA 16802  
(814) 863-2937; tdy1@psu.edu

**1. Purpose of the Study:** The purpose of this research study is to adapt the Parent Involvement in Children's Education Scales of Hoover-Dempsey, K.V., & Sandler, H.M. (2005) to Turkish language and culture.

**2. Procedures to be followed:** You will complete a survey which is consisted of 44 items and fill out a demographic survey.

**3. Duration:** It will take about 30-50 minutes to complete the surveys.

**4. Statement of Confidentiality:** Your participation in this research is confidential. The survey does not ask for any information that would identify who the responses belong to. In the event of any publication or presentation resulting from the research, no personally identifiable information will be shared because your name is in no way linked to your responses.

**5. Right to Ask Questions:** Please contact Ali Kemal Tekin at (814) 321-4966 with questions or concerns about this study.

**6. Voluntary Participation:** Your decision to be in this research is voluntary. You can stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer

You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study.

Completion and return of the survey implies that you have read the information in this form and consent to take part in the research. Please keep this form for your records or future reference.

**Sosyal Bilimler Araştırması için Bilgilendirici İzin Formu**  
Pennsylvania Eyalet Üniversitesi

**Proje Başlığı:** Ebeveyn Katılımı Ölçeklerinin Uyarlanması

**Araştırmada birinci isim:** Ali Kemal Tekin, Doktora Öğrencisi  
460 Waupelani Dr., Apt # 201  
State College, PA, 16801, USA  
(814) 321-4966; akt135@psu.edu

**Danışman:** Dr. Thomas Daniel Yawkey  
204 Chambers Building  
University Park, PA 16802  
(814) 863-2937; tdy1@psu.edu

**1. Çalışmanın amacı:** Bu araştırma çalışmasının amacı Hoover-Dempsey, K.V., & Sandler, H.M. (2005)'e ait Çocuk Eğitiminde Ebeveyn Katılımı Ölçeklerinin Türk kültürü ve diline uyarlamaktır.

**2. İzlenen Prosedürler:** Bir demografik anket ve 44 maddeden oluşan Ebeveyn Katılımı anketi dolduracaksınız.

**3. Süre:** Anketleri cevaplamanız yaklaşık 30-50 dakika sürecektir.

**4. Gizlilik Bildirimi:** Bu araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen gizli tutulacaktır. Mülakat ve anket cevaplayanın kime ait olduğunu gösterecek hiç bir soru içermemektedir. İsminiz hiçbir şekilde verdiğiniz cevaplarla bağlı olmadığından ve isminiz kullanılmadığından bu çalışmanın bilimsel olarak yayınlanması halinde kişisel bilgileriniz kesinlikle dışarıya yansımaz.

**5. Soru Sorma Hakkı:** Lütfen Ali Kemal Tekin ile (814) 321-4966 araştırmayla ilgili sorularınız veya endişeleriniz olduğu takdirde iletişime geçiniz.

**6. Gönüllü Katılım:** Bu araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmaktasınız. İstedığınız anda bırakabilirsiniz. Cevaplamak istemediğiniz hiçbir soruya yanıt vermek zorunda değilsiniz.

Bu araştırmaya katılabilmeniz için en az 18 yaşında olmalısınız.

Anketin doldurmanız ve mülakata katılmanız buradaki bilgileri okuduğunuz ve kabul ettiğiniz anlamına gelmektedir. Lütfen bu formu kendi kayıtlarınız için saklayınız.

**Appendix H**

**Information Sheet for the Main Study (English & Turkish)**



### **Information Sheet for School Administrators**

Dear School Administrator,

My name is Ali Kemal Tekin. I am a PhD. Candidate in Curriculum and Instruction Department here at Penn State, University Park campus. My option area is Early Childhood Education and my adviser is Dr. Thomas Daniel Yawkey.

I am planning to evaluate beliefs and perceptions of Turkish first- and second-grade students' parents regarding their involvement in their children's education.

In this case, I would be very glad if you could help me in my research study by assisting with recruiting the participants. The attached informed consent form will be provided to the potential participants one week before their participation. Then the surveys will be given to the parents who have decided to participate. Participation includes filling out the attached demographic survey and completing the attached parent involvement scales. The demographic survey does not include any information that might reasonably lead to the identification of individual participants. If you decide to help, you will also be asked to deliver the recruitment materials and surveys to the parents along with an envelope which will also be provided by me. After completing the surveys, participants will need to return the completed surveys in that provided envelope in a sealed way. Lastly, I will pick up the sealed envelopes with the completed surveys in them from your administration.

Recruiting at least 100 parents of first and second graders in your school as participants will be a fundamental contribution to my study.

Please contact me at 814-3214966 or [akt135@psu.edu](mailto:akt135@psu.edu) if you have any questions or if you need more information.

### **Okul Yöneticileri için Bilgi Dokumanı**

Sayın Okul Yöneticisi,

Benim adım Ali Kemal Tekin. Halen Penn State Üniversitesi, University Park yerleşkesinde doktora öğrencisiyim. Alanım Okul Öncesi Eğitimi ve akademik danışmanım Dr. Thomas Daniel Yawkey'dir.

Türkiye'deki ilköğretim birinci ve ikinci sınıf öğrencilerinin anne-babalarının çocuklarının eğitimlerine katılımı hakkındaki inanç ve algılarını incelemek için bir çalışma yapmayı planlıyorum.

Bu durumda, sizden çalışma için örneklem bulmamda yardımcı olmanızı talep ediyorum. Katılımcı olabilmek için okulunuzda bulunan birinci ve ikinci sınıfa giden öğrencilerin velisi olmak gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmaya yardımcı olmaya karar verdiğiniz takdirde bu katılımcılara dağıtılmak üzere herbiri için EK'teki Sosyal Bilimler Araştırması için Bilgilendirici İzin Formu, Demografik Anket, 44 maddeden oluşan Eğitimde Aile Katılımı Ölçekleri ve bu anket ve formların doldurulduktan sonra içine koyup size iade etmesi için kullanmak üzere boş zarf araştırmacı tarafından temin edilecektir. İçindeki anketlerle birlikte bu zarflar tarafımda sizden teslim alınacaktır.

Bu çalışmaya okulunuz vasıtasıyla katılacak en az 100 tane birinci ve ikinci sınıf öğrencisi velisi mevzu bahis araştırmaya çok temel ve büyük bir katkı sağlayacaktır.

Konuyla ilgili daha fazla bilgi veya sorularınız için lütfen 814-3214966 no'lu telefondan ya da akt135@psu.edu olan e-mail adresinden araştırmacıya ulaşınız.

**Appendix I**

**Implied Informed Consent Form for the Main Study (English & Turkish)**

**Implied Informed Consent Form for Social Science Research**

The Pennsylvania State University

**Title of Project:** Turkish Parents' Beliefs and Perceptions about Their Involvement in Their Children's Education

**Principal Investigator:** Ali Kemal Tekin, Graduate Student  
460 Waupelani Dr. Apt # 201  
State College, PA, 16801, USA  
(814) 321-4966; akt135@psu.edu

**Advisor:** Dr. Thomas Daniel Yawkey  
204 Chambers Building  
University Park, PA 16802  
(814) 863-2937; tdy1@psu.edu

**1. Purpose of the Study:** The purpose of this research study is to assess beliefs and perceptions of Turkish first- and second-grade students' parents regarding their involvement in their children's education.

**2. Procedures to be followed:** You will complete a survey which is consisted of 44 items and fill out a demographic survey.

**3. Duration:** It will take about 30-50 minutes to complete the surveys.

**4. Statement of Confidentiality:** Your participation in this research is confidential. The survey does not ask for any information that would identify who the responses belong to. In the event of any publication or presentation resulting from the research, no personally identifiable information will be shared because your name is in no way linked to your responses.

**5. Right to Ask Questions:** Please contact Ali Kemal Tekin at (814) 321-4966 with questions or concerns about this study.

**6. Voluntary Participation:** Your decision to be in this research is voluntary. You can stop at any time. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer.

You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study.

Completion and return of the survey implies that you have read the information in this form and consent to take part in the research. Please keep this form for your records or future reference.

**Sosyal Bilimler Araştırması için Bilgilendirici İzin Formu**  
Pennsylvania Eyalet Üniversitesi

**Proje Başlığı:** Türk Anne-Babaların Çocuklarının Eğitimlerine Katılımları Hakkındaki İnanç ve Algıları

**Araştırmada birinci isim:** Ali Kemal Tekin, Doktora Öğrencisi  
460 Waupelani Dr., Apt # 201  
State College, PA, 16801, USA  
(814) 321-4966; akt135@psu.edu

**Danışman:** Dr. Thomas Daniel Yawkey  
204 Chambers Building  
University Park, PA 16802  
(814) 863-2937; tdy1@psu.edu

**1. Çalışmanın amacı:** Bu araştırma çalışmasının amacı Türkiye'deki ilköğretim birinci ve ikinci sınıf öğrencilerinin anne-babalarının çocuklarının eğitimlerine katılımı hakkındaki inanç ve algılarını incelemektir.

**2. İzlenen Prosedürler:** Bir demografik anket ve 44 maddeden oluşan Ebeveyn Katılımı anketi dolduracaksınız.

**3. Süre:** Anketleri cevaplamanız yaklaşık 30-50 dakika sürecektir.

**4. Gizlilik Bildirimi:** Bu araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen gizli tutulacaktır. Mülakat ve anket cevaplayanın kime ait olduğunu gösterecek hiç bir soru içermemektedir. İsmi hiçbir şekilde verdiğiniz cevaplarla bağlı olmadığından ve ismi kullanılmadığından bu çalışmanın bilimsel olarak yayınlanması halinde kişisel bilgileriniz kesinlikle dışarıya yansımaz.

**5. Soru Sorma Hakkı:** Lütfen Ali Kemal Tekin ile (814) 321-4966 araştırmayla ilgili sorularınız veya endişeleriniz olduğu takdirde iletişime geçiniz.

**6. Gönüllü Katılım:** Bu araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmaktasınız. İstedığınız anda bırakabilirsiniz. Cevaplamak istemediğiniz hiçbir soruya yanıt vermek zorunda değilsiniz.

Bu araştırmaya katılabilmemiz için en az 18 yaşında olmalısınız.

Anketleri doldurmanız ve teslim etmeniz buradaki bilgileri okuduğunuz ve kabul ettiğiniz anlamına gelmektedir. Lütfen bu formu kendi kayıtlarınız için saklayınız.

**Appendix J**

**Recruitment Letter for the Main Study (English & Turkish)**

### **Recruitment Letter for the Research Study**

Dear Parent,

Mr. Ali Kemal Tekin, a graduate student at Penn State University, PA, USA in education field and is conducting a research about “Turkish parents beliefs and perceptions about their involvement in their young children’s education”. Research volunteers are being sought for Mr. Ali Kemal Tekin’s research study. Would you be interested in being a volunteer for participating in this research where you will be asked to fill out a demographic survey and complete a parent involvement survey related to the topic? If you decide to participate, please fill out the attached parent involvement survey and demographic survey and return the completed surveys to our administration by June 3, 2008 in the envelope provided to you.

If you have any questions or I may provide additional information, please feel free to let me know.

Sincerely,

(Name, Title, and  
Contact Information  
of School Administrator)

**Bir Arařtırma iin Katılım Mektubu**

Sayın Veli,

Bay Ali Kemal Tekin, A.B.D.'de Penn State niversitesi'nde eđitim dalında lisans zeri đrencisi, ve Trk anne ve babaların ocukların eđitimlerine dair inan ve algılarını arařtırmak iin bir alıřma yapıyor. Bu arařtırmaya gnll olarak katılarak konuyla ilgili olan demografi anketini doldurup eđitimde anne-baba katılımı ile ilgili olan anket sorularına yanıt verir misiniz? Eđer bu alıřmaya katılmaya karar verirseniz ltfen EK'teki anne-baba katılım leklerini ve demografik anketi doldurarak size sađlanan zarfın iine koyup idaremize 3 Haziran, 2008'e kadar teslim ediniz.

Eđer bu arařtırma alıřması hakkında bir sorunuz olursa veya daha fazla bilgi edinmek isterseniz ltfen iletiřime gemeye ekinmeyin.

Saygılarımla,

(Okul Yneticisin  
İsmi, Grevi ve  
İletiřim Bilgileri)



## VITA

### Ali Kemal Tekin

#### EDUCATION

- Ph.D. 2008 The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA,  
Curriculum and Instruction, Emphasis in Early Childhood  
Education
- Ph.D. Minor 2008 The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA,  
Educational Psychology, Emphasis in Testing and Measurement
- M.Ed. 2005 The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA,  
Curriculum and Instruction, Emphasis in Early Childhood  
Education
- B.Sc. 2001 Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey, Psychology
- B.Sc. Minor 2001 Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey, Sociology

#### PUBLICATIONS

- Tekin, G., Tekin, A. K. (2007). Meanings of child's play according to Turkish young Adults: A phenomenological study. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 34(4), 207-213.
- Kotaman, H., Tekin, A. K., & Tekin, G. (2007). Reading acquisition through phonics method in a Turkish public elementary school: A case study. *Reading Improvement*, 44(4), 199-206.
- Tekin, A. K., & Tekin, G. (2006). Parents' knowledge level about the picture books they use for children. *Hacettepe Journal of Education*, 31, 159-168.

#### SELECTED PRESENTATIONS

- Tekin, G., Tekin, A. K. (2008). *Infant Attachment and Caregivers*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of Association for Childhood Education International (ACEI), Atlanta, GA.
- Tekin, A. K., & Tekin, G. (2008). *Improving Early Childhood Education in the European Union*. Poster presented at the Annual Meeting of Association for Childhood Education International (ACEI), Atlanta, GA.
- Tekin, A. K., & Tekin, G. (2007). *Globalization and Internationalization of Higher Education in Europe*. Paper presented at 38th Annual Conference and Exhibition of the Northeastern Educational Research Association (NERA), Rocky Hill, CT.