

PARENTAL MOTIVATIONAL BELIEFS AND  
INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOL

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Bachelor of Arts in

Family Studies and Gerontology

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Bethany, Oklahoma

2013

Submitted to the Faculty of the  
Graduate College of the  
Oklahoma State University  
in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for  
the Degree of  
MASTER OF SCIENCE  
July, 2016

PARENT MOTIVATIONAL BELIEFS AND PARENT  
INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOL

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Date of Degree: AUGUST, 2016

Title of Study: PARENT MOTIVATIONAL BELIEFS AND PARENT  
INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOL

Major Field: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND FAMILY SCIENCE

Abstract: Despite educational reform efforts to increase parent involvement in the local schools, discrepancies continue to exist between parents' desire to be involved and their actual involvement in the education of their children. Parent involvement is influenced by individual and contextual factors, which may explain this discrepancy. This quantitative study was designed to explore and test a part of the existing research model developed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) that includes parents' motivational beliefs. Parent motivational beliefs include role construction, valence towards school parental self-efficacy. The current study also examined the contribution of these factors to parental involvement behaviors, such as home-based and school-based involvement. In addition, this study sought to examine demographic factors such as levels of income, education status, and family structure to better understand the contextual influences of the families within the sample. Parents' ( $n = 107$ ) motivational beliefs and involvement in home-based and school-based activities were examined in this study. Findings revealed significant relationships between role construction and parental self-efficacy. Role construction was also significantly related to all of the parent involvement variables and parents' education level. Findings suggest that higher levels of parent education are associated with higher parent role construction. Findings also suggest associations between higher parental education levels and higher positive valence toward school. In addition, parental self-efficacy was significantly related to parents' education level. Other findings discussed, implications for future studies and practice are discussed.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	4
Defining Positive Parent Involvement.....	4
Theoretical Perspectives.....	5
Ecological Systems Theory.....	6
Parental Role Theory.....	8
Previous Research on Parent Involvement in Schools.....	11
School-based Parental Involvement.....	14
Home-based Parental Involvement.....	16
Previous Research on Parental Motivations.....	18
Parental Role Construction.....	20
Valence toward School.....	21
Self-Efficacy.....	23
The Current Study (Research Hypothesis).....	33
III. METHODOLOGY.....	35
Participants and Procedures.....	35
Measures.....	36
Demographics.....	40
Preliminary Analyses.....	40
Hypotheses.....	40
IV. FINDINGS.....	42
V. DISCUSSION.....	46
Summary.....	46
Implications, Applications and Future Research.....	51
Weaknesses and Limitations.....	54
Conclusions.....	55

REFERENCES .....	57
APPENDICES .....	75

## **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

Educators and leaders at the local, state, and national level are becoming increasingly concerned about the challenges in our education system. In the midst of major changes concerning education reform, critical policy issues, and drastic teacher shortages, it has become especially paramount for parents, communities, and school leaders to focus on better ways to impact student outcomes. Social scientists consider parental involvement as one of the most significant influences on student achievement (Hara, 1998; Gibson & Jefferson, 2006; Jeynes, 2005, 2007, 2010).

Despite the importance of parent involvement, discrepancies exist between parents' actual involvement and parents' expectations of how involved they would like to be (Eccles & Harold, 1993, 1996). Subsequent studies have separated individual and contextual factors to explain these discrepancies (e.g., Bandura, 1994; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997; Grolnick, Benjet, Kurowski, & Apostoris, 1997). Some individual factors include attitudes that parents have about roles and sense of efficacy concerning parenting and ways to support their children in education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Variables that relate to contextual factors such as income, levels of education, and family structure also affect parent involvement (Epstein, 1990; Smock and McCormick, 1995). Changes in family structure in the past several decades have influenced the

degree of involvement and various ways that parents are involved (Curry & Holter, 2015; Grolnick, Benjet, Kurowski, Aposteris, 1997; Jeynes, 2012). A family-centered approach to developing beneficial connections among the home, school, and communities are increasingly becoming of interest in recent research as well as in politics (Comer & Haynes, 1992; Henderson & Mapp, 2002; McAlister, 2013).

Parent involvement in child learning has been associated with many positive outcomes for children (Jeynes, 2012). Positive outcomes include increased academic achievement, self-regulatory skills, grade progress, and higher rates of graduation (Henderson & Mapp, 2002; Hill & Tyson, 2009; Xu, Benson, Kusher, Mudrey-Camino, & Steiner, 2010). The positive support of learning by parents has been related to student attendance, positive student perspectives about school and self, and increased student motivation to learn (Gonzalez-DeHass, Willems, & Holbein, 2005; Kreider, Caspe, Kennedy, & Weiss, 2007; Topor, Keane, Shelton, & Calkins, 2010). Thus, parent involvement and parent perceptions are important factors for researchers and policy makers to understand, to support, and to promote in order to increase positive school outcomes.

Research indicates that the majority of parents from all ethnic backgrounds and income levels want to play a role in helping their child succeed in school (Henderson & Mapp, 2002; Johnson, 1997). Jeynes (2012) also surmised that most parents and teachers understand that engaged parents strengthen student outcomes. However, the incongruence between parents' actual involvement and parents' expectancy in involvement has led researchers to examine theoretical models and predictor variables

such as parents' motivational beliefs about involvement and life context variables to predict the type and level of parent involvement (Green, Walker, Hoover-Dempsey, & Sandler, 2007). Research suggests that this incongruence is not an expression of a lack of a parent's desire to be engaged or the lack of a parent's value placed on education (Curry & Holter, 2015). Instead, the disconnect between families and school systems is likely happening for many reasons. Increasing research in parent involvement will help facilitate our understanding of this disconnect. The current study investigated parents' motivational beliefs about school involvement. The investigation of parents' motivational beliefs included perceptions about role construction, parental self-efficacy, and the associations of these variables with parent involvement in school. Research that takes a deeper look into the motivational beliefs of parents is essential to understanding the best ways to support a parent's desire to help their child reach optimum success in school.



## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **Defining Positive Parent Involvement**

It is important to define positive parent involvement to differentiate between beneficial involvement and interference from parents. Positive parental involvement practices include teacher-parent communications, participating in school activities, engaging in student's extracurricular activities, assisting in the selection of student's courses, staying updated on student's academic progress, imparting parental values (encouraging effort and success), and autonomous support (child ownership; Gonzalez-DeHass, Willems, & Holbein, 2005). Parents who are positively involved in the school generally express a belief that the education of their children is the act of collaboration between school and family, rather than delegating all of the responsibility to the school. The parents of high-achieving students anticipate that they will need to be actively involved and advocate for the educational needs of their children (Amatea, Smith-Adcock, & Villares, 2006).

Parental interference, on the other hand, is the discouragement of student and individual autonomy by parents (Amatea et al., 2006). In contrast to positive parental involvement, parental interference is negatively related to a student's motivation (Fan &

Williams, 2010). For example, kindergarten through third grade students were less engaged in school activities when parents initiated contact with the school personnel more frequently (Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow, & Fendrich, 1999). Grolnick, Gurland, DeCoursey and Jacob (2002) provided another example of parental interference in their study that examined parental styles during homework tasks. Results from this study revealed that the kindergarten through third grade children whose mothers gave them answers and solved the problems for them were less accurate with map task (describing how to get to certain locations on a map) and less individually creative in poem writing (repeated the themes that their parents suggested). This type was labeled controlling parental involvement, while the parental behavior that offered feedback and provided needed information when the child asked for it was labeled autonomy-supportive involvement. The results suggest that autonomy-supportive parental involvement is important to unlock a child's deeper processing skills and internalization to value their own learning and engage in behaviors for their own goals of achievement and learning (Grolnick et al., 2002).

### **Theoretical Perspectives**

**Introduction.** Several theoretical theories establish a foundation for the models used in parent involvement research. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory of human development and Thomas and Biddle's role theory (1996) work together to explain and describe the process that parents experience to construct roles for the common goal to academically socialize their children (Hoover-Dempsey & Jones, 1997). The key concepts of these theoretical frameworks have set the stage for parent

involvement research specifically regarding parent's motivational beliefs which include the construction of parental roles.

**Ecological systems theory.** A mutually supportive model of parent involvement exists in Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory of human development. Ecological systems theory is a developmental theory that describes the individual (child, parent) in relation to the system as a whole (White & Klein, 2008). Bronfenbrenner (1979) proposes that children begin their development in family group relationships called microsystems. This development is not simply the sum of genetic factors but the interaction of the child's genetic makeup and the nuclear family, which eventually includes the interaction with an environmental sphere of relationships. Bronfenbrenner (1979) viewed human development from an ontological individualistic approach in contrast to examining individual behavior solely by the examination of individual traits or abilities.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) wrote:

The ecology of human development involves the scientific study of the progressive, mutual accommodation between an active, growing human being and the changing properties of the immediate environment in which the developing person lives, as this process is affected by relations between these settings, and by the larger contexts in which the settings are embedded. (p.21).

The ecological perspective can be explained using a set of Russian dolls. The image of a doll within a doll describes the layers of contexts that a child interacts with across time (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). As the child grows into a unique and dynamic entity, the layers of contexts surrounding him are bidirectional influences that affect the

development of the child. According to Bronfenbrenner, the child is nested in spheres of systems such as a microsystem (role and relations), mesosystem (two or more microsystems interrelating with the individual), an exosystem (excluding the individual but impacting the individual), and a macrosystem (culture) (White & Klein, 2008).

Bronfenbrenner (1979) defined the term “ecological transition” as the change in an individual’s position due to the change in roles, settings, or both roles and settings (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). An example of ecological transition refers to the role of the parent in the life of a child as the child transitions to a school setting. Parent involvement in the child’s school can be viewed from this perspective. Bronfenbrenner’s (1991) work suggests that the family system imparts and supports informal training that is a necessary prerequisite for preparing the child for formal educational settings. The family system also assists the child to maintain success in formal learning environments as the child advances in the education system. The potentially seamless nature of the connected environments, home, school, and community, across systems and time is acknowledged, with an emphasis on the microsystem and mesosystem as most influential.

An understanding of ecological systems theory offers several possible implications for education and family practitioners (Westney, 1993). Parent educators, school personnel, family therapists, and teachers can be sensitive to the interactions between various ecological systems as they work and interact with families within the community. For instance, practitioners who influence families might focus on the parent’s role at home concerning the child, along with the role that the parent plays concerning interactions with neighborhoods and schools.

**Parental role theory.** Role theory provides a perspective to study and discuss many social issues. This perspective includes one of the most vital components of an individual's social life, social behavior (Biddle, 1986). The development of role theory began with a reference to a theatrical metaphor, as the term role suggests. Much like an actor that portrays a certain role-identity in a play, the basic idea of role theory concerns the premise that an individual's behavior is characterized by their respective societal identity. The individual's behavior may also be predictable depending on their function in society or in an organization (Biddle, 1986).

Described as the obligations, rights, expectations, and duties that take form in many social contexts and are socially constructed, role theory can be applied to the role of the parent within the system of the local school and community. Organizational role theory suggests that expectations of roles of specific individuals take place within various social systems or organizations. Normative expectations alongside individual beliefs influence the roles taken on by individuals within organizational systems (Biddle, 1979, 1986). Local schools, for instance, fit the description of an organization within a social system. Roles that individuals acquire within a school may reflect their own beliefs and include the ideas and expectations of other groups such as the other parents, teachers and administrative members of the school (Whitaker & Hoover-Dempsey, 2013).

Parental role construction is the act of constructing a parental role based upon beliefs that the parent holds about their personal or shared responsibilities associated with their child's education. Included in the act of constructing a role, the behavior patterns of

such individuals are motivated by these beliefs (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997; Hoover Dempsey, Wilkins, Sandler & O'Connor, 2004; Walker et al., 2005). Role theory (e.g., Biddle, 1979, 1986; Wheelan, 1994) explains that role construction is influenced and takes place within the context of relationships with others who are relevant to the development of the specific role. Applied to the context of parent involvement in the local school system, role theory suggests that individuals construct their role within the influence of the social networks, which include the other parents, students, and members related to their child's school. In relation to the theatrical metaphor, the parent is the actor in the context of the local school. The parent constructs the role as an involved parent or uninvolved parent according to their motivational beliefs, which are influenced by the expectations of the social context, in this case the school system (Biddle, 1986).

The school system is generally a hierarchal system of administrators, teachers, support staff, and parents who have pre-planned, task-oriented roles within the organization of the system. The roles within the school system reflect the organizational demands of the specific families served by the community school. These roles are also generated by the normative expectations that are unique to each school system due to various factors that include but are not limited to culture or geographical area (Whitaker & Hoover-Dempsey, 2013). Role theorists presume that individuals are members of many social networks and have individual expectations for themselves and for others in these social groups (Forsyth, 1990). The following three general concepts are associated with role theory: (1) the participants in a social setting assume a role or an identity; (2)

patterns and characteristic social behavior are expected and performed by the members; and (3) scripts or expectations are assumed for various members' behavior (e.g., Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Gilbert, Holahan, & Manning, 1981; Harrison & Minor, 1978; Whitaker & Hoover-Dempsey, 2013). The roles can be constructed as informal, formal, spoken or implied, shared or personal (Thomas & Biddle, 1996).

Role theory suggests that personal experiences, memories, and ideas about the roles of others in relative social systems play a part in the development of expectations for individual roles. Applied to the parent's role in school involvement, personal experiences may also include the person's past experiences and past teachers' behaviors that indicate what parents and teachers are expected to do (Whitaker & Hoover-Dempsey, 2013). Parents construct an overall perception about or valence toward education and their own roles in their children's educational experience based on past experiences relating to their involvement with schools (Whitaker & Hoover-Dempsey, 2013).

Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) found that valence toward school likely joined with the present experiences with the school system affect their parental role construction in terms of school involvement. Specifically, parents' view of their own school experience may predispose their efficacy towards interactions with their child's school (Manz, Fantuzzo, & Power, 2004; Raty, 2002).

Both role theory and ecological systems theory explain the process of the child within his or her environment, the parent's place in this environment and the roles that are developed within the family system. The child develops within the surrounding environment which primarily consists of the parents during the early years of life. The

parent develops a societal identity or role as they interact with the child and the bidirectional influences that surround the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Thomas and Biddle, 1996). Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory and Thomas and Biddle's (1996) role theory continues to influence the direction of parent involvement research.

### **Research on Parent Involvement in Schools**

An extensive amount of evidence substantiates that parent involvement in the local school is a crucial component of quality schools and positive student outcomes (e.g., Epstein, 2001; Henderson & Mapp, 2002; Sheldon & Epstein, 2004; Sheldon & Epstein, 2005; Simon, 2001; Van Voorhis, 2001). For example, a longitudinal study of Title I schools discovered that teachers who spoke with parents of 74 Caucasian sixth graders (31 boys and 43 girls) by phone and in person increased overall student achievement school-wide (Westat & Policy Studies Associates, 2001). Other studies confirm that parent-teacher relationship building increases parents' social trust in the school system as a whole (e.g., Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). Parental involvement is integral to developing improvement efforts that focus on whole-schools in addition to focusing on the individual success of students. Schools must focus on ways to operate systemically as an organization, entity of the community, and interact with families to offer the best environment for student success and whole-school improvement (Mapp, 2003; Sebring, Allensworth, Bryk, Easton, & Luppescu, 2006).

Early research about parent involvement in schools sought to examine both the reasons why parents choose to become involved and if/why parent involvement is a



crucial element in child learning outcomes. Becker and Epstein (1982) surveyed 3,698 teachers in 600 schools in Maryland in one of the first empirical studies to investigate teacher practices concerning parent involvement in home learning. Twenty-eight percent of the teacher-respondents were first-grade teachers, thirty percent were third-grade teachers, twenty-nine percent were fifth-grade teachers and thirteen percent were reading or math specialists. The conclusions drawn from this study were that most teachers say they believe that parent involvement in learning activities at home is very important. However, because of the demanding job requirements to plan and teach in the classroom, attend meetings and professional development workshops for classroom management and other student focused improvements, teachers often do not have the time or energy to organize home-visits, parent workshops, and parent assistance in the classroom (Becker & Epstein, 1982).

Epstein's research continued to note the importance of parent involvement as a necessary component of highly effective schools in a 1987 review of literature focused on the role of the school administrators. Epstein (1987) reported a dearth of research-based information about parent involvement and the lack of knowledge about specific types of parent involvement. The key changes in family structure, fast paced society, and parents entering the workforce in the late 1990's lead researchers to move towards a family-centered approach with a focus on better communication connecting the family, school and community (Epstein, 2001). This ecological approach was adopted by many of the parent involvement scholars (e.g., Guralnick, 1999; Coleman & Churchill, 1997; Epstein, 1995).

Current research on parental involvement seeks to examine specific elements of parent involvement programs that effectively promote parental involvement in the student's educational journey. In a meta-analysis of current findings, Jeynes (2012) found support for the notion that parental programs have an influence on the promotion of involvement, but it also pinpointed elements of effective programs that were most impactful. Some of the findings revealed that the parental involvement initiatives that promoted parents and children reading together, parents checking homework, and communication between parents and teachers as partners made a significant difference in the overall parental involvement percentage. The conclusions of this meta-analysis and others indicate that voluntary parental involvement and school-initiated programs, which focus on involvement, make a difference in the academic successes of children (Jeynes, 2003, 2005, 2007).

Nokali, Bachman, and Votruba-Drzal (2010) used data from the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) (N = 1,364) to examine the trajectories of children (academic and social development) across first, third and fifth grade students. The findings of this study showed that improvement in general types of parent involvement (within-child) predicted a decline in problem behaviors as well as social skill improvements. However, the within-child improvements in parent involvement did not predict changes in academic growth (Nakoli et al., 2010). Analyzing the data between children showed that the children with parents who were highly involved were advanced in social functioning and had fewer problems with behavior. Many research studies and meta-analysis examine parent involvement as a general construct. Current research has

examined both school-based parent involvement and home-based parent involvement to inform educational leaders about the most effective areas to promote within the school system. Clear and distinct differences exist in these two major types of parental involvement.

**School-based parent involvement.** Parents of school-aged children voluntarily choose to participate in activities that take place in the school setting. Some of these activities include going to school meetings, attending parent-teacher conferences, talking to school administrators and teachers, and volunteering to help at school. As researchers develop studies that highlight the importance of parental involvement, some of the questions that often surface are whether or not programs that focus on the parent-school connection are effective to influence and motivate parental involvement, and whether these programs lead to an increase in positive student academic outcomes (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005).

Jeynes (2012) conducted a meta-analysis of fifty-one studies that examined the relationship between different kinds of parental involvement programs and academic achievement of pre-kindergarten through twelfth grade students. This study found important results that offer insight to parents and teachers about which parent involvement initiatives were consistently more effective. The types of initiatives that focused on parent and teachers communicating with one another and partnering together to support the success of students showed a significant relationship with academic outcomes. In addition, Head Start and ESL training for parents revealed effect sizes that were barely short of statistical significance. This type of voluntary training for parents

may help to connect parents to the local school to engage in their own educational and parent skill development. The types of parent involvement in school vary immensely and social scientists have discovered that school-based parent involvement does influence student success but the influential aspects are subtle (Jeynes, 2005, 2007, 2010, 2012).

The effects that school-based parental involvement have on a child's academic success is not clearly determined (Harris and Goodall, 2007; Harris and Goodall, 2008). Henderson and Mapp (2002) suggest that parents who are involved in school activities influence their child's social and emotional adjustment, but little evidence reveals an association between school-based parent involvement and students' achievement. Early in a child's school experience, a parent's involvement will most likely influence a child's sense of belonging and adjustment in a positive way (Henderson and Mapp, 2002). As children grow up and become more autonomous, parent involvement in school-based activities may affect attendance and behavior indirectly (Kendel et al., 2008).

Student well-being initiatives are school-based programs that can lead to positive outcomes for children and families. These initiatives create a link between family and school by welcoming the parents into the school setting. The student well-being initiatives can involve parents in the discussions about the development of social and emotional competencies of children. Sometimes these initiatives offer social skills and conflict resolution trainings that also have shown to influence the student's behavior at home. Specific initiatives that target students with a history of past behavior and social problems have the combined purposes; to reduce antisocial behavior, improve mental health and promote both positive social and emotional development (Weare & Gray,

2003). Many reviews and meta-analyses of research studies dealing with student well-being initiatives that promote social and affective health have shown to be more effective if they involve parents (Durlak, 1995; Durlak and Wells, 1997).

**Home-based Parent Involvement.** The parental involvement that takes place outside the school and involves the parent and the child is called home-based involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005). The parental behaviors and active involvement often focus on child learning, guiding child attitudes toward classwork and school in general, and strategies to engage children in the learning process. The activities include helping with homework, reviewing for tests, talking about school-related issues, and keeping up with the child's progress (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005).

Research that involves home-based parent involvement has offered some interesting insights into predictors for involvement. For instance, Green, Walker, Hoover-Dempsey, and Sandler (2007) examined predictor variables of home-based involvement using a diverse and large sample of parents of first through sixth grade students who were enrolled in an urban public school system. Parents' home-based involvement was predicted by higher levels of self-perceived time and energy for involvement. The findings were also interesting concerning parental self-efficacy beliefs in that self-efficacy beliefs were a strong positive predictor of home-based involvement but in contrast, a small negative predictor of school-based involvement. Green et al. (2007) reasoned that this could be because parents who have strong motivational beliefs to be involved but perceived themselves as less efficacious in parenting skills may reach out to the school as a resource.

In another study conducted by Walker, Wilkins, Dallaire, Sandler, and Hoover-Dempsey (2005), findings showed that life context was a strong predictor of home-based involvement for parents. If parents reported limited time and energy, and limited skills and knowledge, this was a strong predictor of home-based involvement. In contrast, for parents who reported higher levels of time, energy, skills, and knowledge, life context was a strong predictor for school-based involvement (Walker et al., 2005). This confirms the value of understanding the parents' life context as leaders and administrators in education determine which programs that will best fit the parents in their unique community.

Another finding in the Walker et al. (2005) study was the examination of specific invitations from the child to involve the parent in home-based activities. Parents perceptions of invitations from the child was the strongest predictor of home-based involvement. This predictor accounted for twenty-one percent of the total variance for home-based involvement. Level one of the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model (1995, 1997) included parent's role construction, parent's sense of self-efficacy, general school invitations, general child invitations. Collectively, all of the constructs in level one explained one-third of the total variance in parents' home-based involvement. In contrast, these same constructs showed nineteen percent of the variance concerning parents' school-based involvement (Walker et al., 2005). The findings in this study are extremely valuable to offer insight to understand parental motivational beliefs.

Pertaining to home-based parent involvement is the ever-important question about the value of homework. Many assume that there is a strong link between parents who

help their children with homework and student achievement. However, there are some studies that report a negative link between parents' involvement at home and student achievement (Hill & Tyson, 2009). There are many variables that exist, including whether or not the children struggle with certain subjects and may have weak areas of development (Lee & Bowen, 2006). In addition, some parenting skills and styles may cause stress to both the parents and the children. Other parents may give in and complete the assignments for the children or do too much to help them (Van Voorhis, 2003). Van Voorhis (2003) investigated a school initiative called (TIPS) Teachers Involve Parents in Schoolwork. The research showed an improvement (specifically six to eighth grade African Americans female students) in math achievement and an improvement in overall attitude. The premise of the initiative was the idea that home-based parent involvement is more effective if it is designed as "structured help". In this study, homework was specifically designed to involve parent strategies with guidelines to help parents effectively build relational bonds and effectively assist the child with the assigned homework (Voorhis, 2003, 2010).

### **Research on Parental Motivations for School Involvement**

Parent motivations for involvement in schools are complex. Thus, research on parental motivations is critical to promoting involvement of parents in educational contexts (Grolnick, 2015). In a recent study, Grolnick (2015) explored parental motivations for their involvement in schools in four areas: 1) what are the most effective types of parent involvement for positive child outcomes; 2) the reasons why specific effects of parent involvement facilitate and maximize a child's achievement; 3) the

reasons why parental involvement makes a difference; and 4) the predictors of whether or not a parent will become involved.

Grolnick's (2015) study examined these four areas with a sample of 178 mothers and their children who were in the third through sixth grade. The mothers were asked their motivations for being involved in three kinds of activities related to school. These activities were talking to the teacher, attending school events, and helping with schoolwork at home. The reasons why they did any or all of these three activities were labeled as external, introjected, identified, or intrinsic. An example of an external reason was "because I am supposed to." An introjected answer for instance was "because I would feel guilty if I didn't," and an identified example was "because I think it is important to talk with the teacher." Finally, an intrinsic reason was "because it is fun to go to the event" (Grolnick, 2015).

The overall results of the Grolnick (2015) study were helpful to understand the complex pathways of parental motivations to child academic achievement and child self-worth. Identified motivations are the motivations that affect the parents' behavior because the activity has perceived value or has importance to reach a goal. For example, a parent may be involved in parent-teacher conferences because they believe it will help their child to be more effective in the classroom if they develop a relationship with the teacher. Parents rated the items on a scale from 1 (not at all true) to 4 (very true). Identified motivations of parental involvement were associated with higher levels of child cognitive involvement. Additionally, identified motivation in parents was associated with increased one-on-one parent-child involvement and an increase in child's feelings of self-worth



(Grolnick, 2015). Even with the best intentions, if school officials do not clearly understand the motivations of parents, they may sabotage their own efforts to produce positive parental involvement outcomes (Curry & Holter, 2015). Empirical findings regarding parental motivations for involvement offer valuable information for program developers and school administrators. The implications of these findings may help leaders to avoid making incorrect assumptions about parent motivational beliefs.

**Parental role construction.** Parental role construction is a motivational belief that will influence parents' involvement in their children's school. Many research studies have followed the model developed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995), examining the parent's role construction as it relates to involvement within a school setting. According to role theory, the goals that parents create concerning their child's education and their involvement work as motivators of certain behaviors to reach those goals (Hoover-Dempsey & Jones, 1997). These behaviors include complete deference to the school in most matters and active involvement concerning the child's informal learning or formal learning, in the home or in the school (e.g., Comer, 1980, 1988; Comer & Hynes, 1991; Epstein 1986, 1991; Lareau, 1989). The empirical findings of the studies conducted by Hoover-Dempsey and Jones (1997) and the current research development of parental role construction as a complex composition of values, goals, patterns, and self-perceptions of role-related responsibilities, offers insight to future studies concerning parental motivational beliefs.

Hoover-Dempsey and Jones (1997) investigated parental role construction by examining distinct differences between two components concerning the responsibilities

and behaviors of parents. These two components are daily decisions and major-decisions. A prior pilot study (Hoover-Dempsey & Jones, 1995) supported this theory of distinct differences. Parents develop automatic behavior patterns to make day-to-day decisions, and these behavior patterns contrast with pre-planned and some deeper cognition behaviors that are needed for decision-making. The development of these behaviors is necessary for major issues concerning a parent's motivations for involvement in the school. One reason for this is that parental role construction involves a characteristic pattern of thinking about their responsibilities, obligations, and behaviors and, in the context of the goal, to increase a child's success in learning. Research in this area established that a range of activities that parents are likely to consider as important on a personal level motivate their actions with their child and with school personnel (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995; Hoover-Dempsey & Jones, 1997).

Hoover-Dempsey and Jones (1997) found associations between parent behaviors and parent efficacy in the construction of the parent role, and links between teacher reports of parent effectiveness and child achievement growth. Patterns of role construction were related to higher and lower child achievement (Hoover-Dempsey & Jones, 1997). These results were consistent with role theory concerning parents and formative research. This study was groundbreaking to support a greater understanding of the parental role and its complexities. It is important to examine the ways that responsibilities, behaviors, values, and goals are linked to motivate parents' involvement in a child's educational journey.

**Valence toward school.** Valence is the emotional positivity and negativity of an

experience (Taylor & Rowley, 2004). Parents may view their current parental involvement in their child's education through a filter of frameworks which represent an emotional positivity or negativity of their own personal experiences in school (Barnett & Taylor, 2009). Research devoted to study the retrospective recollections of events emphasizes that the specific details of past events and the accuracy of the recollection are not as imperative as the perceptions of individuals and the influence on motivations (Gallo, Smith, & Ruiz, 2003; Van IJzendoorn, 1992, 1995). Taylor, Clayton and Rowley (2004) propose that a parent's perception of their own school experiences influences their thought process towards their child's schooling, which consequently may affect academic socialization practices and in turn may impact their child's academic success.

Intergenerational research in the past has examined the associations between the ways that recollections affect parenting behaviors, beliefs, discipline practices, child abuse, anti-social behavior, and attachment (Brook, Whiteman, & Zheng, 2002; Chen & Kaplan, 2001; Putallaz, Costanzo, Grimes, & Sherman, 1998). However, parent recollections and parental involvement in school has been relatively unexplored (Barnett & Taylor, 2009).

Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler first proposed a theoretical model of parental involvement in 1995 and 1997. A model revision project took place almost a decade later as Walker et al. (2005) investigated and reviewed the development of scales associated with the original model. This study addressed alternative approaches to move from focusing on parental roles as free-standing constructs to one component of the full model. Walker et al. (2005) tested scales that were used earlier in parent interview data (i.e., Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997). The concept, valence toward school, became a

reasonable piece of the overall role construction theory for parental involvement. Pilot tests of the new role activity beliefs and valence toward school were conducted with fifty parents of elementary students. The scales developed to measure valence yielded acceptable reliabilities,  $\alpha=.85$ . The two scales were uncorrelated, which suggested that treating each component as separate is appropriate (Walker et al., 2005).

Barnett and Taylor (2009) adopted an intergenerational approach to examine parenting practices related to the child's transition to kindergarten. This research is important to target interventions that aim at promoting the positive contributions that parents make to help their child find success early in their school experiences. Findings in this research supported a trend of intergenerational patterns of parental transition activities. The parents with positive recollections of school involvement were associated with higher levels of engagement concerning transition activities with their own kindergarten children. These results were evident even controlling for present income, self-esteem and self-efficacy (Barnett, Taylor 2009).

**Self-efficacy.** The Hoover-Dempsey and Jones (1997) study investigated parental role construction by examining the 'values and goals' component called parental sense of efficacy. Parental efficacy along with role construction is a strong contributor to parents' involvement (e.g., Bandura et al., 1996; Eccles & Harold, 1993, 1996; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler 1995). These two constructs, sense of efficacy and role construction, are also theoretically associated. Bandura (1989) theorizes that parents who hold a strong cognition for goal setting and behavior that promotes active parental involvement also hold a strong sense of efficacy to help their children through the education process.

Parent self-efficacy is grounded in Bandura's (1976, 1986) work, which focused on personal beliefs and the influence these beliefs have on capability concerning achievement of specific goals and motivating certain behaviors. Parent efficacy is defined as the self-perceptions that a parent has about his or her capability to exert a positive influence on formal and informal learning outcomes.

Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, and Brissie (1992) studied the relationship between parent sense of efficacy and parent involvement. The parents of 390 kindergarten children through fourth grade were surveyed with responses pertaining to questions about parent involvement in their child's homework, educational activities, classroom participation, parent-teacher conferences, and telephone conferences. Fifty teachers were also involved in this study (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992). The teachers responded to questions in reference to teacher efficacy (the teacher's perception of their own ability to succeed in the role as teacher and influence the learning of the children in the classroom), teacher's perceptions of parent efficacy, and estimations of parent involvement. The findings revealed that higher levels of parent efficacy were significantly related to more time spent involved in the classroom as a volunteer, more time spent in educational activities with children, and fewer phone calls with the teacher (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992). The researchers in this study suggest that a higher level of parent efficacy appears to affect parent involvement by increasing the facilitation of parent involvement specifically in these areas. In reference to the third area related to parent efficacy levels, fewer phone calls from the teacher might be explained by an understanding that often a phone call by the teacher is not initiated for positive behavior. Phone calls between the

parent and teacher may not be warranted as often if the parent is actively involved in the classroom (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992).

The correlational findings show a reciprocal affect, for instance, just as higher levels of parent efficacy increase the facilitation of parent involvement, parent involvement may influence levels of parent efficacy. One example is that a parent may feel more effective when they observe that their child is engaged and working towards progress while they are volunteering in the classroom (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992). Whether the direction of influence is determined or not, the relationships between parent self-efficacy and parent involvement seem to be a logical explanation to examine dynamic relational aspects between teachers and parents.

Other results in this study are important to mention concerning teacher efficacy and teacher perceptions of parents' efficacy. Both assessments of efficacy (teacher and teacher perception of parent efficacy) were positively associated with specific areas of parent involvement (homework help, classroom volunteering, and an inverse relationship with teacher phone calls). Teacher efficacy was also positively associated with teacher perceptions of parents' efficacy (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992).

Parent self-efficacy is an important construct related to parent cognition and the role it plays in family functioning and child outcomes. Bandura (1997) makes a connection between personal efficacy and a parent's belief in human agency. Human agency is the belief that a person's perceptions will produce intended outcomes by influencing their actions. An individual's cognition of personal efficacy is one of the important components of human agency. Ardel and Eccles (2001) defined parent self-

efficacy with respect to human agency, as the parent's belief in their ability to influence their child and the environment surrounding their child in ways that will promote the child's best development and progress.

Ardelt and Eccles (2001) used data from a 1991 survey of 376 mothers in inner city Philadelphia. The analysis showed that mother parental efficacy predicted children's self-efficacy and academic success in disadvantaged family and environmental contexts. A surprising result from this study was that mother self-efficacy beliefs were related to child self-efficacy and higher levels of academic success, but mother promotive strategies were not. One way to promote a child's self-efficacy might be to affect the mother beliefs of her own parent efficacy (Ardelt & Eccles, 2001).

Jones and Prinz's (2005) review of parent self-efficacy studies offers strong evidence of associations between parent self-efficacy and parenting competence. Parent self-efficacy has been related to positive interactive behavior between mothers and younger children (e.g., Hagekull & Bohlin, 1990; Izzo, Weiss, Shanahan, & Rodriguez-Brown, 2000) and parental warmth and control with older children (e.g., Dumka, Stoerzinger, Jackson, & Roosa, 1996). Other studies in the review were also noteworthy; Bogenschneider, Small, and Tsay (1997) and Shumow and Lomax (2002) were studies based on large samples, and included both parent and adolescent report. Bogenschneider et al. (1997) found that adolescent reports of parental monitoring and responsiveness was positively related to parent self-efficacy and inversely associated with parental psychological control (adolescent reports). Parents with higher levels of parent self-efficacy engaged in more effective parenting practices as their adolescent reported.

Shumow and Lomax (2002) used structural equation modeling to assess a large and diverse national sample (Survey of Parents and Children, 1991; and National Commission on Children, 1994). They found that parent self-efficacy predicted both parent involvement in youth activities and school events and of parental monitoring.

Efficacy beliefs influence many determinants such as an individual's strong desire or ambitious pursuit, the commitment to that pursuit, the effectiveness of strategic thinking, level of motivation, the steady persistence in spite of obstacles, and resilience to stress and depression symptoms (Bandura, 1995, 1997; Jeruzalem & Schwarzer, 1992; Locke & Latham, 1990; Maddux, 1995; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001). Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, and Pastorelli (2001) tested a structural model of the analysis of pathways of influential patterns through which socioeconomic status of families were linked to career trajectories of 272 of eleven to fifteen year old children. This study found that self-efficacy beliefs of parents and the self-efficacy beliefs of the child played a part in shaping children's aspirations and career trajectories. Family SES was indirectly associated with children's career trajectories through the parent's perceived efficacy to promote children's value and engagement in academic goals (Bandura et al., 2001).

Several reviews of studies have discussed the associations between parent self-efficacy, parenting practices, and children's self-efficacy and behavior (Coleman & Karraker, 1998; Jones & Prinz, 2005). The research reviewed in these studies examined one-time correlational designs. To understand how the processes of parent self-efficacy and outcomes unfold over time, studies, which include longitudinal data, are valuable to the body of research concerning parent self-efficacy, which is also an important part of



role construction (Glatz & Buchanan, 2015). One such study by Glatz and Buchanan (2015) investigated potential bidirectional processes with respect to parent self-efficacy, parenting practices, and adolescent behavior longitudinally.

Glatz and Buchanan (2015) investigated the conceptual theory of three types of processes, a parent-behavior process, a child-driven process, and a parent self-efficacy process. This study used data from 401 parent reports (mothers and fathers) and involved 305 families and self-reports from their early to middle adolescents at three time points, over three years to measure three constructs. The three constructs were examined based on a theory involving reciprocal processes developed by Bandura (1986, 1997). Bandura introduced the idea of feedback loop processes where higher levels of self-efficacy lead to promotive parenting behaviors or practices, which then lead to higher levels of efficacy. Promotive parenting practices were operationalized as parent involvement, encouragement, and proactive prevention. These behaviors are often described as the responsive part of parenting practices (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). The three scales used to measure promotive parenting practices were the parental involvement scale (Frick, Christian, & Wooten, 1999), the positive parenting practices scale (Frick et al., 1999), and specifically developed for this project was a scale measuring discussion during punishment. The purpose of the latter scale (three items) was to examine parent practices concerning communication about consequences, which is a practice that is conceptually believed to influence the child's internalization of values and promote positive behavior (Hoffman & Saltzstein, 1967).

The Glantz and Buchanan study plays a critical role in the advancement of theory concerning parent self-efficacy and longitudinal research (Glantz & Buchanan, 2015). Findings partly confirmed the theory of reciprocity between parent-behavior driven processes and child-driven processes (e.g., Kuczynski, 2002; Loulis & Kuczynski, 1997). The parent self-efficacy process was evident in mothers but not fathers (Glantz & Buchanan, 2015). The processes were prominent during specific developmental stages. For instance, parent-behavior driven processes and parent self-efficacy driven processes took precedence during the early adolescent period (data collection at time one and time two; T1-T2). The child-driven process was evident only during the early and middle adolescent years (data collection at time two and time three; T2- T3). The results also showed that parent self-efficacy predicted changes in adolescents' externalizing behaviors but only indirectly through promotive parenting practices and during both developmental periods. Promotive parenting practices in the Glantz and Buchanan (2015) study included the Parent Involvement Scale by Frik et al. (1999). Mothers who reported confidence in dealing with the parenting demands involved in raising young adolescents were likely to report use of promotive parenting practices (such as parent involvement), which in turn predicted lower externalizing adolescent behaviors in the child. Fathers did not show a significant link between parent self-efficacy and changes in promotive parenting practices. The researchers explain that the reason for the difference in findings between mothers' and fathers' parent self-efficacy processes may be the use of measures that focused on specific behaviors that most often involve mothers. It has been suggested in past research that fathers are more involved in the practices that exert control such as

discipline and correcting the child rather than the behaviors examined in the measures used in this study (Glantz & Buchanan, 2015).

The child-driven process is the process of child behavior effects on parent self-efficacy. Findings in this study discovered evidence that adolescent externalizing behaviors predicted subsequent changes in promotive parenting practices and in parent self-efficacy measures, which collaborate earlier studies (e.g., Slagt, Dekovic, de Haan, van den Akker, & Prinzie, 2012; Teti & Gelfand, 1991). The Glantz and Buchanan (2015) study noted some valuable insights concerning differences between the ways parent self-efficacy is measured. There is a difference in findings depending on the context where parent self-efficacy takes place. The Freedman-Doan, Arbreton, Harold, and Eccles (1993) measures focused on the school context and activities that took place outside the home environment.

The other measure used in Ballenski and Cook (1982) focused on parent self-efficacy, which took place mostly inside the home environment. It is important to distinguish whether the questions about self-efficacy are referring to the home or the school environment. Also, the researchers of this study identified another difference in the measures, which may have made a difference in the results. The use of specific words to describe efficacy may be important. Ballenski and Cook (1982) used the word “influence” to assess the parents’ perceptions of competence. On the other hand, the Freedman-Doan et al. (1993) measure utilized the word “comfortable” in reference to how the parents felt about dealing with child behaviors. Glantz and Buchanan concluded that perhaps the Freedman-Doan et al. (1993) measure, which used the word “comfort,”

was a better predictor of promotive parenting behaviors in comparison to the use of “belief of influence,” such as how much do parents feel they can influence a child’s behavior.

An empirical test of the first level of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler’s (2005) model of the parental involvement process includes parental self-efficacy as a component of parent’s motivational beliefs. In this model, parental role construction and parental self-efficacy are the two components of parents’ motivational beliefs. The first level of the model are parents’ motivational beliefs, parents’ perceptions of invitations from school, teacher and their own children, and parents’ perceived life contexts, such as skills and knowledge, time, and energy. These listed variables are all sources of motivation for parent involvement in this theoretical model. Two types of involvement were examined as outcomes: home-based involvement and school-based involvement (Hoover Dempsey & Sandler, 2005).

The empirical results for understanding the amount of variance for predicting home-based parent involvement showed that parental role activity beliefs, parental self-efficacy, specific child invitations, for parent involvement, and parental perceptions of time and energy were significant indicators. Although general invitations from the school, specific teacher invitations, and self-perceived skills and knowledge were significantly correlated with home-based parent involvement, they were not significant indicators of parent involvement at home. School-based involvement as an outcome variable also revealed valuable empirical results. High levels of parental role activity beliefs, parental self-efficacy, specific teacher invitations, specific child invitations, and

parental perceptions of time and energy, which were the constructs in the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) model, significantly predicted school-based involvement for parents. Although significantly correlated with school-based involvement, general invitations from the school and parents' perceptions of skills and knowledge did not significantly predict school-based involvement. These findings suggest that the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (revised 2005) model offers a valuable framework for understanding what motivates parents to be involved in home-based and school-based behaviors, using a large and diverse set of parents in the sample.

This study also supports the importance of examining both intrapersonal and interpersonal factors in research about parent motivational beliefs and parent involvement. An interesting finding to note is that parental self-efficacy was a negative and small predictor of school-based involvement, even though self-efficacy beliefs were a strong and positive predictor of home-based involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005). The authors indicate that parents who have higher levels of self-efficacy may be strongly motivated to work with their children at home but if they do not feel that they are effective, they may reach out to the school for help. A smaller number of parents may be highly motivated, thus scoring high on parent self-efficacy, but still struggle to effectively help their children and therefore reach out to the school thus explaining the findings (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005).

Other interesting findings in this study that confirmed previous studies (e.g., Delgado-Gaitan, 1992; Scott-Jones, 1987; Sheldon, 2003) were that parent self-efficacy beliefs were a strong positive predictor of home-based parent involvement even when

social status such as parent income and education level were included. In addition, the findings showed that parent involvement is primarily motivated by the social networks and within the social context, such as the parents' interpersonal relationships with children and teachers. The model constructs that contributed to parent involvement differed depending on age of the child, which is an expected outcome. Parent involvement for elementary students was predicted by perceptions of invitations from their child, motivational beliefs (self-efficacy and role activity beliefs), and perceived time and energy.

On the other hand, parent involvement in middle school revealed different results. The home-based involvement for middle school was predicted by the same constructs as elementary school parents (self-efficacy beliefs) except for role activity beliefs. The authors suggest that this may be due to the development of autonomy for older students, which causes the parent to view their role in home-based involvement differently than when their child was younger (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005).

### **The Current Study**

The current study took into account the existing research literature that examines the effects of parents' motivational beliefs on their self-reported involvement in their children's school. To gain a better understanding of parents' motivation for involvement in education, parent role construction and efficacy were examined (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005). Examining the motivational beliefs of parents and investigating the connections to parent involvement behaviors may provide insight for leaders in education

and guide parent education efforts that will aid in the common goal of student achievement. The research questions to guide this study are:

1. What is the relationship between parent motivational beliefs (role construction and self-efficacy), demographic characteristics, and parent involvement in education (home-based and school-based)?
2. What parent motivational beliefs and demographic characteristics are predictive of parents' self-reported involvement in their children's education?

### **Research Hypothesis**

#### **Hypothesis 1**

**Hypothesis 1.** A significant relationship exists between parent motivational beliefs, parent demographic characteristics, and parent involvement in education.

#### **Hypothesis 2**

**Hypothesis 2.** The constructs (parent motivational beliefs such as role construction, parent self-efficacy, and demographic characteristics) will significantly predict parents' self-reported involvement in home-based and school-based activities

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **Participants and Procedure**

Surveys were administered to parents of students who visit the WONDERtorium children's museum. A flyer including a QR code for each parent to scan with their phone was handed out to parents visiting the museum. The WONDERtorium site is located in Stillwater, Oklahoma. Participants in this sample are parents of children in all stages of early childhood through sixth-grade that reside in a socioeconomically and ethnically diverse city in Oklahoma. Other parents were invited by email and social media to participate in the survey by answering the survey questions online in a Qualtrics survey. Data was collected from 107 participants. The sample included 91.3% female and 8.7% male parents. The parents in the sample reported 64.5 % between the ages 35-54. Of the families who took the survey, the highest level of education completed was college graduate 45.3%; master's degree 19.8% ;and 17.9% reported some college. The employment status statistics showed 60% full-time employed, 17% were homemakers and only 1.9% were unemployed. The types of schools that the children attended were 71% public school and 27% other. The ethnic demographics were 80% Caucasian and the remainder 20% were Latino, Hispanic, Native American, Asian or Pacific Islander,



mixed or other ethnic background. The frequency of ages of the children in the sample were 44 children from ages 1 through 4, 68 children from the ages of 5 through 11 and 48 children from the ages of 12 to 18.

## **Measures**

**Predictor variable: Parent motivational beliefs.** Parent motivational beliefs was the primary predictor variable in this study. Parent motivational beliefs include three subscales. See Table 2 for the model used to describe the problem statement of the current study. The model in Table 2 is a representation of parent motivational beliefs which is an umbrella term that includes three parts which predicts parent involvement behaviors. These three parts are Role Activity Beliefs, Valence toward School and Parental Self-Efficacy.

All scales for the primary predictor variables were adopted from the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler Scale titled, “Parent Motivational Beliefs”. Part 1, Part 2, and Part 3 are the subscales within the scale. The subscales were Part 1: Role Activity Beliefs, Part 2: Valence toward School and Part 3: Parental Self-Efficacy (Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 1995, 1997; Walker, Wilkins, Dallaire, Sandler, & Hoover-Dempsey, 2005). Reliabilities for the original subscales and the current study are included in the following paragraphs, which describe each subscale.

***Part 1: Role activity beliefs subscale.*** The specific subscale used in this study to measure parent role construction was Part 1: Role Activity Beliefs (10 items). Parents were asked questions concerning their agreement with statements about their role in their child’s school (e.g., “I believe it is my responsibility to help my child with homework.”).

All items were rated on a six point Likert scale (1= *Disagree very strongly* to 6= *Agree very strongly*). Cronbach's alpha for Role Activity Beliefs (10 item subscale) in prior studies is .80. The Cronbach's alpha for the current study was .83.

**Part 2: Valence toward school subscale.** The subscale used to measure parent's valence toward school was Part 2: Valence toward School subscale. Parents were asked to describe their feelings about their own childhood school experiences when they were students. All items were rated on a six point Likert scale (1 to 6) and described how much they disliked (1 to 6) or liked their school experience, their teachers were mean (1 to 6) or nice, the overall school experience was bad (1) or good (6), they felt like an outsider (1 to 6) "I belonged" (6), and they rated their overall experience as a failure (1 to 6) a success. Cronbach's alpha for Valence toward School subscale (6 item subscale) in prior studies was .80. The Cronbach's alpha for the current study was .83.

**Part 3: Parental self-efficacy subscale.** Also included in the parent survey as an indicator of Parent Motivational Beliefs is Part 3: Parental Self-Efficacy for Helping the Child Succeed in School Scale (7 items). This subscale of Parent Motivational Beliefs involved parents' beliefs concerning feelings of efficacy about involvement in their child's school (e.g., "I don't know how to help my child learn"). Parents reported to what degree they agree with each statement using a 6 point Likert scale (1=*Disagree very strongly* to 6 = *Agree very strongly*). Cronbach's alpha for Sense of Efficacy for Helping Child Succeed in School (7 item scale) in prior studies is .78. The Cronbach's alpha for the current study for this subscale was .80.

**Outcome variable: Parental involvement practices.** Parental involvement has been defined as the parental aspirations that lead to behavioral patterns and practices (e.g., Christenson & Sheridan, 2001). The construct of parental involvement has been conceptualized as having many facets and these dimensions may have some greater effects on a student's progress academically (Singh et al., 1995). In the current study I examined some of the common activities of parents between the parent and child (home-based involvement) and within the school setting (school-based involvement). These activities are called home-based involvement and school-based involvement.

Two validated measures were used in the current study. The Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) Parent Involvement Scale and the Family Involvement Questionnaire (FIQ), (Fantuzzo, Tighe, & Childs, 2000) were utilized to measure home-based parent involvement and school-based parent involvement.

***Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) home-based involvement activities subscale.*** The Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) Home-based Parent Questionnaire assessed the amount of times the parent participates in specific home-based practices that are related to school (e.g., Someone in this family.... talks with this child about the school day.). These statements were answered with a six-point response format such as: 1= Never; 2 = 1 or 2 times this year; 3 = 4 or 5 times this year; 4 = once a week; 5 = A few times a week; 6 = Daily. Cronbach's alpha for Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) Home-based Involvement Activities Scale (5 items) in prior studies was .85. The current study Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .77.

***Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) school-based involvement activities subscale.*** The School-based Involvement Activities Scale is a five item scale that assesses the frequency of parent involvement in the school setting such as attending special events, volunteering to go on class field trips, PTA meetings and school open house. The participants answered these statements by choosing from a six-point response format such as: 1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often, 5 = Always. The Cronbach's alpha for this school-based Involvement scale reported by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) was .82. The current study Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .87.

***Fantuzzo, Tighe, & Childs (2000) Family Involvement Questionnaire home-based involvement (FIQ) subscale.*** The FIQ includes home-based involvement activities such as providing a place in the home for learning materials, actively scheduling and participating in learning activities. The learning activities involve the home environment and introducing the child to places within the community. The FIQ also includes a statement such as, "I talk about my child's efforts in front of relatives". The answers for this scale use a four point Likert design format (1= rarely, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, 4 = always). The Cronbach's alpha reported by Fantuzzo, Tighe, and Childs (2000) for the FIQ was .85. The current study measure demonstrated reliabilities consistent with that reported by the authors of the measure ( $\alpha = .865$ ).

***Fantuzzo, Tighe, & Childs (2000) Family Involvement Questionnaire (FIQ) school-based involvement subscale.*** This scale examines the amount of time that someone in the family participates in school activities (e.g., Someone in this family... volunteers to go on class field trips). These statements were answered with a six-point

response format such as: 1= Never; 2 = 1 or 2 times this year; 3 = 4 or 5 times this year; 4 = once a week; 5 = A few times a week; 6 = Daily. Cronbach's alpha for School-based Involvement Activities Scale in prior studies is .82. The current study Cronbach's alpha was .88.

### **Demographics**

The demographic section of the survey included 12 items that asked about characteristics of the participants. Items included: age, gender, ethnicity origin, education level, number of children, socio-economic status, household composition, and employment status.

### **Preliminary Analyses**

Preliminary analyses and descriptives were conducted in SPSS prior to hypothesis testing. Cronbach's alpha's were conducted for all of the scales used and the means, standard deviations and range for all study variables.

### **Hypothesis 1**

A significant relationship exists between parent motivational beliefs, parent demographic characteristics, and parent involvement in education. Using correlational design, all study variables were compared using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient.

### **Hypothesis 2**

The constructs (parent motivational beliefs such as role construction, parent self-efficacy, and demographic characteristics) will significantly predict parents' self-reported involvement in home-based and school-based activities. This hypothesis was tested using

multiple regression analyses for variables predicting home and school involvement. A separate analysis for each dependent variable was conducted.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS

#### Research Goal 1

The first goal was to examine the associations between parent motivational beliefs, demographic characteristics, and home-based and school-based parent involvement. To reach this goal, the independent and outcome variables were examined using correlational design. All study variables were compared using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient. Table 2 is a presentation of these findings.

**Bivariate correlations among all study variables.** There was significant evidence to conclude that there was a strong, positive relationship between role construction and the outcome variable Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) home-based involvement and FIQ home-based involvement. In addition to these findings, the bivariate correlations revealed a strong association between role construction and the outcome variable FIQ school-based involvement. The relationship between role construction and Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) school-based involvement showed a significant, positive association ( $r = .431, p < .01$ ).

The bivariate correlations across the predictor variable self-efficacy revealed significant positive associations with several outcome variables; Hoover-Dempsey and

Sandler (2005) home-based, FIQ home-based, and FIQ school-based. Self-efficacy was significantly correlated with education level ( $r = .256, p < .01$ ).

Concerning demographic variables, bivariate correlations were conducted for age and education level. The demographic variable (a) “How old are you?” revealed a significant negative relationship to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) measures of home-based parent involvement. Education level, showed a positive association with Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) home-based and a significant and positive relationship with valence toward school ( $r = .316, p < .01$ ).

## **Research Goal 2**

The second research goal was to investigate parent motivational beliefs and demographic characteristics to determine if they are predictive of parents’ self-reported involvement. This hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analyses for variables predicting home and school involvement. Separate analyses were run for each dependent variable.

**Predictors of involvement.** To examine the size of the overall relationship between the construct variables, role construction, self-efficacy, valence toward school, and the outcome variables (school-based involvement and home-based involvement), separate standard multiple regressions were conducted. Each standard multiple regression entered all predictor variables into the regression at once. In addition, the standard multiple regression was conducted to answer the question, “How much do the independent variables uniquely contribute to the outcome variable?” Table 3 summarizes the results below.



***School-based involvement.*** A standard multiple regression analysis was used to evaluate the association between parental motivational beliefs (role construction, valence toward school, and self-efficacy) and Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) measures of school-based involvement. The constructs together (labeled parental motivational beliefs) accounted for approximately 21% of the variance,  $F(3,97) = 8.704, p < .01$ . In addition, a linear regression was conducted that revealed a significant relationship between parental role construction and Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) measures of school-based involvement. This relationship showed that role construction accounted for 17.8% of the variance in school-based involvement.

A standard multiple regression was calculated to predict school-based parent involvement based on role construction, valence toward school, and self-efficacy (parental motivational beliefs). The results of this standard multiple regression were ( $F(3,99) = 20.726, p < .01$ ), with an adjusted  $R^2$  of .367. The predictor variables, parental motivational beliefs, accounted for 36.7% of the variance. In a linear regression with self-efficacy by itself, self-efficacy was significantly related to FIQ school-based involvement and accounted for 10% of the variance.

***Home-based involvement.*** A standard multiple regression analysis was used to evaluate the association between parental motivational beliefs (role construction, valence toward school, and self-efficacy) and Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) measures of home-based involvement. The linear combination of the predictor variables was significantly related to home-based involvement,  $F(3,99) = 15.889, p < .001$ . The adjusted  $R^2$  was .305, indicating that the linear combination account for 30% of the total

variance for parental home-based involvement. A linear regression was conducted in addition, which showed that role construction by itself accounted for 30.3% of the variance and self-efficacy (when it was run by itself) accounted for 5.6% of the variance for Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) measures of home-based involvement.

A standard multiple regression was conducted to examine predictor variables role construction, valence toward school, and self-efficacy (parental motivational beliefs) and FIQ home-based involvement. A significant regression results were ( $F(3, 93) = 23.897, p < .01$ ). The adjusted  $R^2$  was .417, which shows that parental motivational beliefs accounted for 41.7% of the total variance in this study's sample of participants. Furthermore, in a linear regression with role construction by itself, role construction was significantly related to FIQ home-based involvement and accounted for 39.2% of the total variance. In addition, when a linear regression with self-efficacy was conducted by itself with FIQ home-based involvement, it was significant with an adjusted  $R^2 = .078$ , revealing that self-efficacy accounted for 7.8% of the variance using the sample of participants in this study.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **DISCUSSION**

This section is an explanation and summary of what has been accomplished by this project. Moreover, this section underscores the major points and findings and describes strengths, weaknesses, and limitations of this study. In addition, this chapter includes a description of the contribution that this study provides for literature advancement, implications, applications, and significance concerning parent involvement in education. Placing this work in a wider context, this section will also express future directions and raise questions for future research.

#### **Summary**

Parent involvement is important to social scientists who focus on ways to increase student achievement (Hara, 1998; Gibson & Jefferson, 2006; Jeynes, 2005, 2007, 2010). The discrepancy that seems to exist between a parent's expectations and a parent's actual involvement has inspired researchers to investigate the motivations of parents who are involved to determine predictors (Eccles & Harold, 1993, 1996). This study explored the individual factors primarily and a few contextual factors of parents' motivational beliefs in an attempt to explain some of the variables that might predict parent involvement. Research such as Epstein (2001), Biddle (2013), Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005),

and Fantuzzo, Tighe and Childs (2000) among many others, provided the influence that guided this study.

The current study sought to accomplish two goals. The first research goal was to examine the associations between parent motivational beliefs, the demographics of the current study's sample of participants, and parent involvement in home-based and school-based activities. The second goal was to determine if parental motivational beliefs or demographic characteristics might predict the two types of parent involvement (home-based and school-based involvement).

This study is an overview that offers confirmation that may help to establish previous literature addressing parent involvement. Parental role construction refers to the specific responsibilities that parents perceive as important concerning their role in their child's learning. Past research of parent involvement has investigated and reported strong results concerning the importance that role construction plays in the development of motivational beliefs (i.e., Green, Hoover-Dempsey, Sandler & Walker, 2007; Sheldon, 2002).

Bivariate correlations between education level and valence toward school were significant in the current study. This finding might suggest that the parent's education level and valence toward school may be related. The findings reveal an association which leads to a conclusion that the higher the parent's education level, the more positive they were about their own childhood school experiences. It is not clear whether the parents who answered more positively about their school experiences pressed through difficult situations and developed resilience. Perhaps the resilience that they developed as a child,

motivated their desire to continue pursuing educational goals. The same parents that reported positive valence may have had strong social support or there may be many other reasons why they pursued higher educational goals. The findings are important to inspire further research concerning valence toward school and parental education levels. Recent studies have researched associations between parental valence toward school and parent involvement. For instance, Barnett and Taylor (2009) found that valence, or the positive or negative recollections of mother's school experiences, were associated with parent reports of higher engagement of the academic transition activities involving kindergarten students. The other studies that examined parental educational level showed similar findings (Gutman & McLoyd, 2000; Lareau, 1996; McNeal, 1999).

These studies also suggest that parental involvement is not always related to academic achievement when parents' education levels are low. For instance, Gutman and McLoyd (2000) suggest that future studies which include a low-income, less educated population should consider the quality of parent involvement, the quality of support resources, and the role of the child in the examination of education levels and parental involvement. McNeal (1999) suggests that traditional forms of parental involvement can be conceptualized as social capital and social capital is related to positive child outcomes most strongly in white, middle class families. It is important to understand that parent involvement may be qualitatively different for many contextual reasons in diverse groups. In contrast, Green et al. (2007) found that parents' motivational beliefs significantly predicted both home-based and school-based involvement even when controlling for family socioeconomic status in a large, diverse sample of metropolitan

public school community. These studies reveal the importance of future research that examines the contextual differences regarding diverse communities with unique characteristics.

The current study also revealed findings concerning education level and home-based parental involvement. Education level of this sample was positively and significantly associated with home-based involvement. This confirms the findings in the Green et al. (2007) study, which found evidence linking home-based involvement with parents' education level and other SES factors. Previous research has noted that SES (or specific components thereof; e.g., parental education level) may be a vital contributor to understanding parental involvement. The current study findings reveal that the parents in this sample with higher education levels were also involved more often in home-based activities with their child. There are many reasons why the findings show this association. Education level is a component of socio-economic status. Perhaps parents who have higher educational levels have attained work which is more flexible, therefore allowing for more energy, time and financial resources to invest into home-based activities with their child. Remember, home-based activities are parent and child activities that are educationally related such as visits to a museum.

Parent self-efficacy, higher education levels and home-based involvement may be associated and interrelated. To elaborate, parental self-efficacy was also associated with higher education levels. In addition, there is an association between self-efficacy and home-based involvement. Parental self-efficacy may be a mediating factor between

higher education levels and home-based involvement. Further research is needed to reveal whether this mediation exists.

The current study confirmed the results in previous studies that examined self-efficacy and home-based parent involvement. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) found that self-efficacy was strongly and positively related to home-based parent involvement and a negative predictor of school-based parent involvement. The current study confirmed only one of these findings. This study found that self-efficacy was positively related to home-based parent involvement and accounted for 5.6% of the variance. However, in the examination of parental self-efficacy and school-based parent involvement, the current study found that self-efficacy was positively related to school-based involvement (FIQ) and accounted for 10% of the variance. This is a contrast to the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) results, which reported self-efficacy as a negative predictor of school-based involvement. There are many reasons why the current study sample produced a positive relationship. One conclusion may be the generational changes that are taking place in parents in 2016. The Hoover-Dempsey study produced a negative relationship, however, the parents in the current sample are raising children in a different school climate, with policy reports in the media daily. Perhaps the parents today are active in the school setting for different reasons than 2005. For instance, schools in 2016 may promote parent involvement more effectively, or parents may see a greater need to be involved due to the safety concerns, bullying, budget decreases and other issues. Future studies may explore this apparent contradiction.

This study revealed and confirmed correlations and significant connections between role construction and the home-based scales in previous studies. For instance, Sheldon (2002) reported that parental role construction explained 15% of the variance in home-based parent involvement, with parental beliefs and background variables included. Parents' perceptions that all parents should play a role in their children's education strongly predicted the extent that they worked with their child on educational tasks at home. The current study reported that parental role construction accounted for 39.2% of home-based parent involvement (FIQ scale) and 5.6% (Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, 2005 scale). Parents who construct their role as partners with the school system to provide the best environment for their child's success will most likely invest time, energy and financial resources to help their child excel. Strong role construction reveals strong thought processes which lead to action. In this case, the action is parental home-based involvement. Similar results were found in other studies such as Green et al. (2007), Walker et al. (2005), and Whitaker and Hoover-Dempsey (2013).

### **Implications, Applications and Future-Research Directions**

The empirical results concerning role construction in both the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler measures and the FIQ measures, revealed that role construction accounted for a significant amount of variance. Specifically, the FIQ (41.7% for home-based, 36% for school-based) showed a higher percentage of the variance in comparison to the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) measures (30% for home-based and 21% for school-based). The implications involved in this finding is confirmation to continue research in the direction of parental role construction and examine the perceptions that



parents have about their responsibilities to guide, support and assist their children through the education process. Many recent studies have confirmed this pursuit such as Walker et al., 2005; Green et al., 2007; and Whitaker & Hoover-Dempsey, 2013; Curry and Holter, 2015.

The empirical evidence of this study provides a few equivocal findings to confirm the previous work devoted to parental involvement and may emphasize the importance of social networks for future research. An interesting finding in the current study involved the measures Family Involvement Questionnaire (FIQ) and Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler (2005). Although the FIQ and Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) home-based and school-based scales were correlated with each other, there were some notable differences in their findings using the sample of participants who completed parent reports for this study. For instance, comparing motivational beliefs for Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) school-based measures and motivational beliefs for FIQ school-based measures and the amount of variance that these constructs approximately account for, the FIQ scales revealed a higher amount of variance. The difference was 15.7% between school-based measures and 11.7% difference for home-based measures.

Many possibilities exist that might explain the reasons for the higher amount of variance that the FIQ produced in comparison to the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) scales. To understand the “Why?” a researcher would need to take a thorough and analytical view of each question, assessing the differences in specific questions that may have produced these differences. The next step might be to examine the possibility that the questions that are distinctly different in the FIQ may have a common theme. Perhaps

the commonalities would help tell the story behind the statistical difference. The possible benefit to future studies might be an inspired pursuit of deep investigations of the commonly used quantitative scales that access parent involvement. A closer look may reveal other variables that may exist in addition to role construction, valence toward school, and self-efficacy.

One such variable may be the social networking aspect of parental involvement. For instance, the questions in the FIQ that may distinctly stand out in comparison to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler scales are those that ask, “How often do you talk with other parents about school meetings...”, “How often do you meet with other parents outside of school?”, “How often do you talk about your child’s learning efforts in front of relatives?”. The Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler scales did not include questions pertaining to social networking. Further investigation and validation of social network scales is important to build on prior research that investigates the parents’ role as social actors (i.e., Carbonaro, 1998; Curry & Holter, 2015; Sheldon, 2002; McNeal, 1999; Teachman et al., 1997).

The information gained in this current study also included an interesting result concerning self-efficacy and both measures, FIQ home-based involvement (7.8% of the variance) and Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) home-based involvement (5.6% of the variance). Although this was a small percentage, self-efficacy was statistically significant as a factor in predicting home-based involvement, but only significant in the FIQ school-based involvement (10% of the variance), not the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) school-based involvement calculations.

Similar research may confirm the results from the current study. For instance, Glatz and Buchanan (2015), which was a longitudinal study, found results that support parent self-efficacy driven processes over time and a significant relationship to parental role construction. A future study that connects the promotive parent processes to parent involvement is needed to further parent involvement outcomes. The evidence of self-efficacy driven processes confirms the research approach to examine parental self-efficacy to find possible connections to parent involvement in education.

Jones and Prinz (2005) found strong evidence linking parent self-efficacy to parental competence. Future research implications for parent involvement researchers might be to examine the role of parental self-efficacy as it leads to parental competence and the effects on parental involvement in education. Sharpening the measures for parent self-efficacy to learn more about parent reporting biases have been suggested for future directions concerning self-efficacy parent reports (Jones & Prinz, 2005).

### **Weaknesses and Limitations of the Study**

There are several limitations and weaknesses that must be addressed in this study. First is the size of the sample. A larger sample may have produced stronger empirical results to analyze. Pertaining to the research goals of this study, a larger sample and more diversity may have offered stronger significant relationships from the data and greater insight. Second, the researcher was offered access to parent reports only. To strengthen results, access to teacher reports and student reports is important to build integrity of findings and to enhance prior research of the topic by including the perceptions of others who are connected to the education system.

Other limitations include time constraints, which did not allow for a longitudinal design or gathering a large sample and a heavy reliance on cross-sectional data. A lack of fluency in other languages or access to an interpreter did not allow for gathering participants that were fluent in languages other than English. It is important to examine diverse communities to gain a better understanding of the effects that culture and language barriers create within the community and to produce research that will offer support to proactive administrators. Applying a robust methodology is important to address the research questions about parent involvement and student achievement. Creating strong alliances with local community administrators is one of the key factors to gain access to strong participation in research studies to advance this field. A mixed methods approach, using qualitative methods and quantitative designs, would allow for the story behind the data to unfold and possibly provide rich insights to researchers and practitioners in the field of education.

## **Conclusions**

Finally, it was one of the objectives of this study to examine the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model of the parental involvement process and to test parts of the model to predict parent involvement behaviors. Results from this study added to the author's understanding of statistical models and provided guidance for a wide area of possibilities for future empirical investigations. Future empirical examinations of programs that promote parental involvement in education are necessary to inform school administrators and school boards who implement such programs. Programs that seek to enhance parents' positive engagement in home or school-based involvement and specifically target the

parents' construction and development of roles, may increase overall parental involvement in education (Green et.al, 2007).

Future research and parental involvement interventions are vital to our communities to improve the overall conditions of the education system. Social scientists, educators and administrators, parents, and students are seeking innovative and reliable changes in policy and developing programs to increase the achievement levels in our nation. It will take a spirit of collaboration and listening to the voices of teachers on the frontlines, listening to parents and the students, to establish an education system that produces equity for all students in every community.

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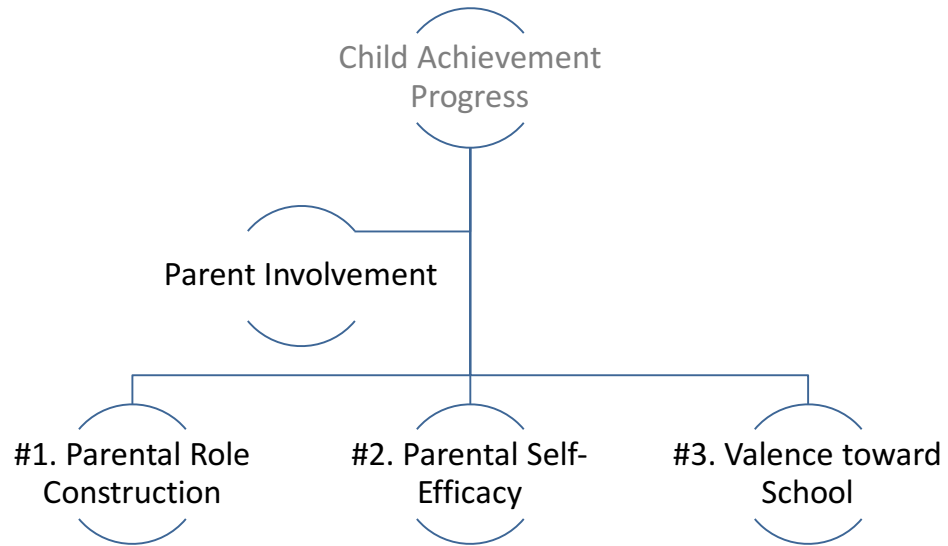
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Table 1. Demographics as a Percentage of the Sample

Characteristic	Participant ( <i>n</i> = 107) Valid Percent
Gender	
Male	8.7
Female	91.3
Age of participant	
Between 35-54	64.5
Parent level of education	
Some college	17.9
College degree	45.3
Master's degree	19.8
Employment status	
Full-time employed	59.8
Home-maker	16.8
Unemployed	1.9
Types of Schools attended	
Public School	70.9
Other	27.0
Ethnic demographics	
Caucasian	83.2
Other ethnic background	16.8



Table 2: Model of the Problem Statement



Note: #1, #2, #3 together are Parental Motivational Beliefs

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations and Range for all Variables

	<i>Full Sample M (SD)</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
Role Construction	49.71 (5.73)	31.00	60.00
Valence Toward School	27.32 (6.26)	10.00	36.00
Self-efficacy	27.93 (4.58)	17.00	36.00
Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) School-based	12.97 (4.89)	5.00	30.00
Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) Home-based	18.34 (3.90)	8.00	25.00
FIQ School-based	25.63 (7.95)	9.00	42.00
FIQ Home-based	50.57 (7.50)	34.00	65.00

Note: Full n = 107; Role Construction n = 107; Valence toward School n = 106; Self-Efficacy n = 107; Hoover- Dempsey and Sandler School-based n = 104; Hoover- Dempsey and Sandler Home-based n = 104; FIQ Home-based n = 98; FIQ School-based n = 104

Table 4. Bivariate Correlations Among All Study Variables

Variables	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1. Role Construction	--								
2. Valence toward School	.040	--							
3. Self-efficacy	.349**	.184	--						
4. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) School-based	.431**	-.124	.182	--					
5. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) Home-based	.556**	.005	.256**	.432**	--				
6. FIQ Home-based	.631**	-.077	.296**	.483**	.890**	--			
7. FIQ School-based	.586**	-.096	.330**	.692**	.501**	.629**	--		
8. (a) How old are you?	.048	-.111	-.138	-.106	-.204*	-.120	.087	--	
9. (b) Education Level	.191*	.287**	.204*	.038	.316**	.198	.055	.018	--

a Control variable

b Secondary variable

\* p < .05

\*\*p < .01

Table 5. *Summary of Standard Multiple Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Home-based and School-based Involvement (N = 107)*

Predictor Variable	HD Home-based Involvement			HD School-based Involvement		
	B	SE B	$\beta$	B	SE B	$\beta$
Role Construction	.356	.059	.532	.351	.081	.419
Valence toward School	-.036	.054	-.054	-.127	.072	-.161
Self-efficacy	.085	.076	.101	.065	.105	.061

Notes. HD Home-based Involvement Adj.  $R^2 = .305$ ; ( $p < .01$ ), HD School-based Involvement Adj.  $R^2 = .212$ ; ( $p < .01$ ).

Table 6. *Summary of Standard Multiple Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Home-based and School-based Involvement (N = 107)*

Predictor Variable	FIQ Home-based Involvement			FIQ School-based Involvement		
	B	SE B	$\beta$	B	SE B	$\beta$
Role Construction	.760	.105	.598	.733	.115	.535
Valence toward School	-.191	.098	-.157	-.192	.101	-.153
Self-efficacy	.235	.138	.145	.305	.149	.175

Notes. FIQ Home-based Involvement Adj.  $R^2 = .417$  ( $p < .01$ ), FIQ School-based Involvement Adj.  $R^2 = .367$ ; ( $p < .01$ ).

## Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date: Thursday, May 26, 2016  
IRB Application No HE1633  
Proposal Title: Parental motivational beliefs and involvement in school

Reviewed and Exempt  
Processed as:

**Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 5/25/2019**

Principal  
Investigator(s):

Joan Brown

Amy Williamson

Stillwater, OK 74078

Stillwater, OK 74078

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The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

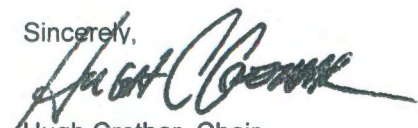
- The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes to the title, PI advisor, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of the research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Dawnett Watkins 219 Scott Hall (phone: 405-744-5700, dawnett.watkins@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,



Hugh Crethar, Chair  
Institutional Review Board

## Participant Information

**Study Title:** Parental Motivational Beliefs and Parent Involvement in School

### **Investigators:**

Joan Lea Brown, Oklahoma State University

Dr. Amy C. Williamson, Oklahoma State University

#### **1. PURPOSE OF RESEARCH**

- The current study will explore the motivational beliefs of parents and the associations with parent involvement in their child's school.

#### **2. WHAT YOU WILL DO**

- If you participate, you will be asked to complete an online survey. Your answers will be anonymous. In these surveys you will be asked to: 1) provide basic demographic information, 2) answer questions about your perceptions of your role in your child's educational success 3) answer questions about your involvement in your child's school.

#### **3. POTENTIAL BENEFITS:**

- Although there are no direct benefits to you, participation may give you an opportunity to reflect on your beliefs and perceptions about your parent involvement and your beliefs about your role as a parent in your child's education.

#### **4. POTENTIAL RISKS:**

- There are no risks associated with this project that are expected to be greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

#### **5. PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY:**

- You will complete the survey anonymously. No identifiable information will be collected.
- When information you provide on the survey is reported as part of the study in papers or presentations, none of the information will be linked to you individually.

#### **6. YOUR RIGHTS TO PARTICIPATE, SAY NO, OR WITHDRAW:**

- Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You have the right to say no.
- If you decide to participate in the study, you may change your mind at any time and withdraw. There are no consequences to you for withdrawing from the study.

#### **7. COSTS AND COMPENSATION FOR BEING IN THE STUDY:**

- There is no cost to you for participating this study.

#### **8. CONTACT INFORMATION FOR QUESTIONS AND CONCERNS:**

- You may contact the researchers at the following addresses and phone numbers, should you desire to discuss your participation in the study and/or request information about the results of the study: Dr. Williamson can be contacted at 405-744-4325 or by email at [amy.c.williamson@okstate.edu](mailto:amy.c.williamson@okstate.edu)
- If you have questions or concerns about your role and rights as a research participant, would like to obtain information or offer input, or would like to

VITA

Joan Lea Brown

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: Parent Motivational Beliefs and Involvement in School

Major Field: Human Development and Family Science

EDUCATION:

**M.S., Human Development and Family Science** August, 2016  
Oklahoma State University- Stillwater, Oklahoma

**B.S., Family Studies & Gerontology** June 2013  
Southern Nazarene University – Bethany, Oklahoma

**A.A., Liberal Arts** May 2010  
Tulsa Community College – Tulsa, Oklahoma

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE:

**Latino Youth Development in an Agricultural Context** (Funded by SWAG) 2015

**Center for Family Resilience, Oklahoma State University** – Tulsa, Oklahoma 2015

- Served Latino families in rural areas such as Muskogee and East Tulsa.
- Communicated instructions in English for collections and for testing.
- Delivered the collected data samples to OSU-Stillwater following IRB guidelines.

**Community Action Project (CAP Family Life Study)** –Tulsa, Oklahoma 2014 -2015