

PARENT INVOLVEMENT SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS OF PRE-SERVICE
EARLY CHILDHOOD TEACHERS WITH RESPECT TO GENERAL SELF-
EFFICACY BELIEFS AND PERCEIVED BARRIERS ABOUT PARENT
INVOLVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

PARENT INVOLVEMENT SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS OF PRE-SERVICE EARLY CHILDHOOD TEACHERS WITH RESPECT TO GENERAL SELF- EFFICACY BELIEFS AND PERCEIVED BARRIERS ABOUT PARENT INVOLVEMENT

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The aims of this study were; (1) to investigate pre-service early childhood teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs, parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, perceived barriers to parent involvement and self-reported skills in implementation of the parent involvement strategies, (2) to examine whether parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service early childhood teachers differ with respect to taking part in a course on parent involvement, and (3) to explore the predictive impact of pre-service early childhood teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement on their parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. The participants of the study were 601 third and fourth year early childhood teacher candidates attending four public and one private universities in Ankara. Data was collected in the fall semester of 2014-2015 academic year using the following three scales on; the General Self-

efficacy Beliefs, Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy, and Barriers to Parent Involvement.

The results of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses revealed that the Turkish version of the Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale is valid and reliable in terms of determining pre-service teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. Pre-service early childhood teachers were found to have moderate general self-efficacy beliefs, high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, and high perceived barriers to parent involvement. The results indicate that pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs do not differ with respect to taking part in a course on parent involvement. Moreover, the multiple regression analysis demonstrated that general self-efficacy beliefs have a predictive impact on parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs.

Keywords: Parent involvement, self-efficacy beliefs, perceived barriers, self-reported skills, pre-service early childhood teachers

ÖZ

ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ AİLE KATILIMINA YÖNELİK ÖZ-YETERLİK İNANÇLARININ GENEL ÖZ-YETERLİK İNANÇLARI VE AİLE KATILIMINA YÖNELİK BARIYER ALGILARI İLE İLİŞKİLENDİRİLMESİ

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Bu çalışma üç temel amaçtan oluşmaktadır: (1) Öğretmen adaylarının genel öz-yeterlik inançlarını, aile katılımına ilişkin öz-yeterlik inançlarını, aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algılarını ve aile katılımı uygulamalarına ilişkin becerilerine yönelik öz-değerlendirmelerini belirlemek (2) Aile katılımı dersinin öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına ilişkin öz-yeterlik inançları üzerinde anlamlı değişime sebep olup olmadığını incelemek, ve (3) Öğretmen adaylarının genel öz-yeterlik inançlarının ve aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algılarının onların aile katılımına ilişkin öz-yeterlik inançları üzerinde yordayıcı etkisini incelemek. Bu çalışmanın verileri dört devlet üniversitesine ve bir özel üniversiteye devam eden 601 üç ve dördüncü sınıf öğretmen adaylarından toplanmıştır. Veriler 2014-2015 eğitim-öğretim yılı güz döneminde üç ayrı ölçek uygulanarak toplanmıştır: Aile Katılımına İlişkin Öz-yeterlik Ölçeği, Genel Öz-yeterlik Ölçeği ve Aile Katılımına Yönelik Bariyer Ölçeği.

Açımlayıcı ve Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi sonuçları, ölçeğin öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına ilişkin öz-yeterlik inançlarını ölçmek için geçerli ve güvenilir olduğunu göstermiştir. Betimsel istatistik sonuçlarına göre öğretmen adaylarının orta düzeyde genel öz-yeterlik inançlarına, aile katılımına ilişkin yüksek öz-yeterlik inançlarına ve yüksek bariyer algılarına sahip oldukları tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımı uygulamalarına ilişkin becerilerini orta düzeyde değerlendirdikleri sonucuna varılmıştır. Sonuçlar aile katılımına ilişkin ders alan ve almayan öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına ilişkin öz-yeterlik inançları arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, genel öz-yeterlik inançlarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları üzerinde anlamlı bir yordayıcı etkisi olduğu sonucu ortaya konulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Aile katılımı, öz-yeterlik inançları, bariyer algıları, becerilere yönelik öz-değerlendirme, okul öncesi öğretmen adayları

To Memory of My Grandparents,

Şayan & Sabri Alaçam

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
DAP	Developmentally Appropriate Practice
DIP	Developmentally Inappropriate Practice
DV	Dependent Variable
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GPA	Grade Point Average
KMO	Kaiser's Measure of Sampling Adequacy
NNFI	Non-normed fit index
IV	Independent Variable
MoNE	Ministry of National Education
OBADER	Parent Support Education Guidance
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The significance of early childhood education is accepted throughout the world. It has been reported that early childhood education does not only affect children's intelligence quotient (IQ) in the short-term, but also have a long-term impact on their school achievement, grade retention, placement in special education and social adjustment (Barnett, 1995). Teachers play an important role in these achievements since effective teaching in the early childhood classroom environment depends on teachers' practices in these settings (Pianta et al., 2005). Furthermore, in the literature, it has been reported that teaching methods used by teachers (Blaney, 1980) and their classroom behaviors and practices are related to their self-efficacy beliefs (Ashton, Webb, & Doda, 1983).

In general, the perception of self-efficacy refers to people's judgments regarding their capabilities to perform a desired action (Bandura, 1982) and manage adversity in a broad range of challenging situations (Luszczynska et al, 2005). In other words, general self-efficacy means an individual's perceptions of their ability in order to perform well in a variety of situations (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998). In this regard, self-efficacy beliefs have an impact on how people think, feel, motivate themselves and act (Bandura, 1995). People who have high self-efficacy beliefs tend to take more challenging tasks, set higher goals for themselves, and persist in achieving them (Luszczynska et al., 2005). Similar to general self-efficacy beliefs, teacher efficacy beliefs also provide an insight into teachers' persistence, enthusiasm, commitment and instructional behavior, and contribute to student achievement, motivation and self-efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy (1998) focused specifically on teacher efficacy and defined it as "teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplishing a specific teaching task in a particular context" (p.3). The core of this definition is that teacher efficacy is context-specific, and one cannot have efficacy beliefs that cover all teaching situations. These efficacy beliefs

depend on the teaching task and teacher's competence on the specified issue (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998). Moreover, teacher efficacy has a direct impact on the outcomes in class. Since teacher efficacy beliefs are shaped early and it is difficult to change them once they are established, it is useful to understand the factors, which encourage and undermine efficacy beliefs in their early years of service (Hoy & Spero, 2005).

One of the contexts that need to be investigated in terms of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs concerns parent involvement. In the literature, the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the implementation of parent involvement practices has been reported in several studies (Garcia, 2004; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1987). Parent involvement is a significant issue in early childhood education since the strengths of the home and the expertise of the school are combined via parent-school collaboration. Parents are the first nurturers, socializers and educators of their children (Berger, 2008); therefore, they have the most influential role in their children's life (Wheeler & Connor, 2009). After parents, come teachers who are the first adults children interact with outside the family and who have an impact on young children's learning and development (Steven, 2003). Therefore, teachers should view parents as experts in the care of their children and cooperate with them in the education of their children (Olsen & Fuller, 2003). From this perspective, it is important to involve parents in education and school-related activities and issues beginning from the first years of schooling (Machen, Wilson & Notar, 2005).

Involvement of parents in their children's education is beneficial for all stakeholders including but not limited to children, parents and teachers (Keyser, 2006). Parent involvement has a key role in children's success in school (Epstein, 2008), and promotes positive educational outcomes for them (Morrison, 2013). The emotional and social development of children also benefits from the positive relationship between their parents and teachers since it facilitates the establishment of a trusting relationship with their teachers (Keyser, 2006). In addition to the benefits for children, parent involvement also improves communication between parents and teachers, and supports their efforts (Baker, Kessler-Skar, Piotrkowski & Parker 1999). Through this

partnership, parents are provided with information, resources and referrals, acknowledgement, support and empathy. Furthermore, they feel secure and confident when leaving their children to school (Keyser, 2006). On the other side, teachers can better meet their students' need in class since they can obtain information from parents since they have the greatest knowledge on their children's strengths and challenges (Arndt & McGuire-Schwartz, 2012). Knowing the children and their families better, teachers can prepare an ideal program, which considers the needs of each child (Keyser, 2006). Miedel & Reynold (1999) also highlighted the effect of parent involvement in increasing success in elementary school when families are involved in their children's early childhood education.

Parent involvement can be beneficial when implemented through effective parent involvement practices, which has been found directly related to teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Wu, 1995). Confident teachers have been reported to open their classrooms to parents and have regular interaction with them (Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones & Reed, 2002). Similarly, in the literature, when both teacher efficacy beliefs and parent involvement practices were investigated together, a relationship was found between the two (Wu, 1995; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1992; Garcia, 2004). In one study, teachers with higher teaching efficacy beliefs were found to be those who frequently and efficiently used different types of parent involvement techniques (Wu, 1995). Similarly, Lan (2013) suggested that a higher level of teaching efficacy in teachers was associated with the frequent use of parent involvement practices, which also confirmed the findings of Garcia (2004), who reported that teaching efficacy is a significant predictor of different types parent involvement activities that are reflected in Epstein's typology of home-school and community partnership.

In terms of the development of teachers' self-efficacy, pre-service teacher education programs have a considerable effect (Pentergast, Garvis & Keogh, 2011). More specifically, pre-service teachers' preparation for parent involvement has an impact on their feelings and practices regarding parent involvement activities (Katz & Bauch, 1999). This argument is supported by several studies in the literature (e.g. Morris & Taylor, 1998; Zygmunt & Fillwalk, 2006). For example, Morris & Taylor (1998)

reported that taking a course on parent involvement created a difference in pre-service teachers' planning and implementation of parent involvement programs. However, despite this experience having a positive impact on teachers' practice, teachers' parent involvement practices remain to be at a low level in schools (Hill et al., 2004). Although teachers and administrators acknowledge the importance of parent involvement, they do not implement parent involvement projects most (Barnyak & McNelly, 2009). In other words, there is a gap between what is said and what is done concerning parent involvement. There are many factors that impede such practices, which have been conceptualized as barriers to parent involvement (Hornby, 2011). Greenwood & Hickman (1991) listed some of these barriers as; not having sufficient teacher education on parent involvement, limited time on both parents' and teachers' side and the presence of diverse goals for children. In addition, teachers' attitudes, skills and knowledge were described as possible barriers to parent involvement since many teachers lack the required knowledge and skills to involve parents in education (Stuckey, 2010). Considering all of these, Hornby & Lafaele (2011) developed a comprehensive model to explain barriers to parent involvement. In this model, four main factors are identified as being related to individual parent-family, child, parent-teacher and society. In a different research study, it was found that compared to family barriers, school level barriers were found to have a higher predictive effect on parent involvement, and these barriers were explained as being related to the school's climate and family-school communication (Becher & Klein, 1999). Teacher related factors play a crucial role in school level barriers. Teachers may lack the skills to communicate well with parents. Furthermore, although teachers may favor parent involvement in school, such practices are still not supported by the curriculum and teachers' instruction (Stallworth, 1982). Since teachers are part of the barriers to parent involvement, they also have a key role in overcoming these obstacles (Savacool, 2011).

1.1. Significance of the Study

According to Bandura (1995), strong self-efficacy beliefs contribute to human accomplishment and personal well-being in different ways and help people view difficulties as challenges to be mastered rather than as a threat (Bandura, 1997). People

with strong self-efficacy beliefs have challenging goals for themselves and are committed to achieve them. Similarly, personal efficacy beliefs of teachers also have an impact on their general orientation toward educational processes and their instructional activities (Bandura, 1995). In other words, teacher effectiveness in the classroom is shaped by teachers' self-efficacy, which is a significant motivational construct. Teachers who have a high level of self-efficacy become more resilient in teaching and try harder in order to help all students to reach their potential (Pentergast et al., 2011). Furthermore, these teachers are more likely to overcome obstacles and persist in when faced with failures (Goddard, 2003). Research results revealed that teacher self-efficacy beliefs tend to increase during teacher education period (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990; Wenner, 2001) and experience they obtain during this period and the induction year has the most powerful effect on the development of teacher efficacy beliefs (Mulholland & Wallace, 2001). Therefore, these periods are important to examine efficacy beliefs since "once efficacy beliefs are established, they appear to be somewhat resistant to change" (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998, p.235).

The relationship between teachers' efficacy beliefs and their implementation of parent involvement practices has been investigated in different studies in the literature (Garcia, 2004; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1987) and it has been concluded that teachers' parent involvement beliefs significantly and positively predict their parent involvement practices (Thompson, 2012; Garcia, 2004). Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie (1987) reported that teaching efficacy beliefs were the strongest predictors of teachers' implementation of five types of parent involvement methods namely parent-teacher conferences, parent volunteering, parent tutoring, parent home instruction and parent support. Similarly, Garcia (2004) confirmed the existence of this relationship as well revealing the association between these beliefs and the implementation of different types of parent involvement practices. Teacher efficacy has been reported as the critical variable in effective parent involvement (Garcia, 2004). This also means that teacher efficacy on parent involvement can predict teachers' efforts to encourage parent involvement practices (Epstein & Dauber, 1991). This claim was further investigated in terms of the effect of teachers' and principals'

parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs on how schools plan, implement and support successful parent involvement programs (Barnyak & McNelly, 2009). Despite the significance of this issue, a great deal of the available research has been limited to the cause-effect and correlational relationship between parents' self-efficacy beliefs and their involvement in their children's education at home and at school (Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1992; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997) rather than focusing on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs on parent involvement (Barnyak & McNelly, 2009).

The lack of studies in teacher efficacy concerning parent involvement is also an issue in Turkey. All early childhood education departments have a standard curriculum the content of which is determined by the Higher Education Council. This curriculum only has one compulsory course on parent involvement. In addition to teacher education, the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) has also made some changes to underline the importance and necessity of parent involvement in early childhood education curriculum (MONE, 2013). However, problems have been reported with regard to the application and encouragement of parent involvement activities in Turkey (Erdoğan & Demirkasımoğlu, 2010; Yolcu, 2011). In their study, Erdoğan & Demirkasımoğlu concluded that although teachers and administrators acknowledge the significance of parent involvement, this is not reflected in their practices. As a possible explanation for this contradiction, İnal (2006) reported that although teachers believe in the benefits of parent involvement for schools, they are not competent enough to implement parent involvement strategies and activities. These studies demonstrating the existence of problems related to parent involvement, which is partly caused by the inadequacy of teachers, indicates the need for further research to investigate and improve the efficacy of teachers in this area.

Preparation for parent involvement activities through parent involvement courses has an impact on pre-service teachers' feelings and practices as classroom teachers (Katz & Bauch, 1999). This is probably because these courses enhance pre-service teachers' level of comfort and competence concerning parent involvement perceptions through the parent involvement assignments within the course programs. Most of these

assignments involve conducting interviews with parents, developing parental involvement plans, compiling parental involvement notebooks, and planning and organizing workshops with parents (Morris & Taylor, 1998). Furthermore, to improve the education of children, teachers should possess the necessary knowledge and skills and attitudes to work effectively with parents and students from different backgrounds (Morris & Taylor, 1998). At this point, experience in parent involvement courses has a crucial role in helping prospective teachers to obtain such knowledge and skills and adopt such attitudes. Studies conducted in different countries have shown the difference created by parent involvement courses in teachers' perception of their competency (Morris & Taylor, 1998; Katz & Bauch, 1999; Zygmunt & Fillwalk, 2006). In one study, pre-service teachers who had taken a course on parent involvement indicated that they felt "very prepared" to implement parent involvement activities compared to others who had not taken the course (Katz & Bauch, 1999). Similarly, Zygmunt & Fillwalk (2006) reported that course experience improved the feasibility and level of preparation perceived by pre-service teachers concerning the implementation of parent involvement strategies. As seen from the previous studies, when teacher education programs are integrated with instruction and activities in parent involvement, pre-service teachers feel better prepared and form positive opinions (Uludağ, 2008).

Contrary to the results of most previous studies, Zygmunt-Fillwalk (2011) found no significant difference between the practices of in-service teachers who had taken a course on parent involvement and those who had not. However, the qualitative results of this study revealed that teachers who had taken a course on parent involvement reported to adopt more creative practices regarding parent involvement than those without this experience. All these results indicate the effect of course experience in parent involvement, to varying degrees, on both pre-service and in-service teachers. However, there is limited research that evaluated the effectiveness of parent involvement courses in Turkey. In one study, Ahioğlu-Lindberg (2014) found that although pre-service teachers who had taken a compulsory parent involvement course had positive opinions towards parent involvement, pre-service teachers still considered that parent involvement was not supported enough for several reasons on both

teachers' and parents' side. This indicates that the sources of development of perceptions concerning barrier to parent involvement originate in pre-service years.

Despite the advantages of course experience, teachers are still faced with several barriers in the implementation of parent involvement strategies (Keyser, 2006). The most commonly discussed barrier is teachers' insufficient knowledge and skills regarding how to involve parents in school-related activities (Gonzalez-Dehass, 2005; Greenwood & Hickman, 1991; Moles, 1993). This can be attributed to teachers' fear that these activities will not be beneficial (Greenwood & Hickman, 1991). Furthermore, Demircan (2012) reported that teachers mostly face with barriers related to communication as a result of the limited interaction opportunities of both teachers and parents due to their busy work schedule or other reasons (Epstein & Becher, 1982; Moles, 1993). Moles (1993) confirmed the existence of all these barriers and further identified the psychological and cultural barrier to parent involvement. Furthermore, Baum & McMurray-Schwarz (2004) described barriers that are particularly faced by pre-service teachers as concerns related to the quality of teacher-family relationship, meeting children's basic needs in school with respecting to rights of parents, and the role of parents in education. If these barriers are well identified, it becomes easier to understand and overcome them (Keyser, 2006). An investigation into the barriers to parent involvement also provides researchers, parents and educators to recognize the areas that should be improved in parent-school collaboration (Williams & Sanchez, 2011). Although Demircan (2012) investigated the barrier perception of in-service teachers in Turkey, such research not been undertaken in terms of pre-service teachers in Turkey.

As seen from the review of the literature, most studies were conducted with in-service teachers (e.g. Erdoğan & Demirkasımoğlu, 2010; İnal, 2006). There is limited amount of research on parent involvement conducted with pre-service teachers in Turkey (Ahioğlu-Lindberg, 2014). However, pre-service period is the time when teachers acquire the knowledge, skills and confidence necessary to effectively work with parents for teachers (Tichenor, 2010). Furthermore, since teachers' beliefs related to their impact on parent involvement are predictive of their efforts in encouraging parent

involvement practices (Epstein & Dauber, 1991), these beliefs can also give an idea about their parent involvement practices in classroom environments. Therefore, the current study aimed to investigate parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service early childhood teachers, and the predictive impact of different variables on these beliefs namely general self-efficacy beliefs, and perceived barriers to parent involvement. Although teaching efficacy beliefs were found to be related with parent involvement practices in different research studies (such as Wu, 1995; Lan, 2013; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1987), general self-efficacy beliefs were not integrated into these studies. However, being related to the general ability perception of individuals (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998), general efficacy beliefs have an impact on the motivation and performance of individuals in a wide range of situations (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Taking into consideration the other variable, perceived barriers to parent involvement, will contribute to understand and overcome barriers regarding parent involvement. The other descriptive variable, self-reported skills are also related to an individual's judgement of their own competencies, which is also related to their teaching efficacy (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998). Since both skills and self-efficacy beliefs are necessary for competent functioning (Bandura, 1989), investigating these variables on parent involvement strategies will produce significant results regarding the competencies of pre-service teachers on parent involvement. Moreover, this study also aimed to examine whether taking courses on parent involvement change self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service early childhood teachers' concerning parent involvement. Course experience in parent involvement has been reported to have a crucial role in preparing teacher candidates for parent involvement practices (such as Morris & Taylor, 1998; Katz & Bauch, 1999; Zygmunt & Fillwalk, 2006). In this regard, the results of the current study will provide information about the effectiveness of these courses, and provide recommendations to enhance the content of these courses. To summarize, this study was undertaken to fill the gap in the literature, particularly in Turkey, regarding the investigation of parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service early childhood teachers.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

This study aims to investigate three main goals. The first goal is to examine the pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, general self-efficacy beliefs, and their current self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies. The second goal is to investigate whether parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service early childhood teachers change with respect to taking a course on parent involvement. The last goal is to determine the predictive impact of pre-service early childhood teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement on their parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. To this end, three main research questions were defined for the study:

R.Q.1. What are the general patterns of pre-service early childhood teachers' general efficacy beliefs, parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, perceived barriers to parent involvement and their current self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies?

R.Q.2. Do pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs differ with respect to taking a course on parent involvement?

R.Q.3. How well do pre-service early childhood teacher's general self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement predict their parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs?

1.3. Definition of Important Terms

1.4.1. Parent: A person who acts as a primary caregiver or performs the parental role, who can be a biological parent, a relative, adoptive parent, foster parent or a non-related caregiver (Berger, 2008).

1.4.2. Parent Involvement: A process for helping parents use their abilities to benefit themselves, their children and the early childhood program (Morrison, 2013).

1.4.3. General self-efficacy: "The belief in one's competence to tackle novel tasks and to cope with adversity in a broad range of stressful or challenging encounters, as

opposed to specific self-efficacy, which is constrained to a particular task at hand” (Luszczynska, Gutie’rrez-Don~a & Schwarzer, 2005, p.1).

1.4.4. Teacher Self-efficacy: “Teachers' belief or conviction that they can influence how well students learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated”(Guskey & Passaro, 1993, p. 4).

1.4.5. Self-efficacy Beliefs towards Parent Involvement: Confidence teachers have in providing parent involvement and educational activities (Shumow, 2004).

1.4.6. Barriers towards Parent Involvement: “The reasons for the gap between what is said and what is done in the name of parent involvement” (Hornby, 2011, p. 11).

1.4.7. Self-reported Skills in Implementation of Parent Involvement Strategies: Judgement of one’s own competencies in implementing parent involvement strategies.

1.4.8. Pre-service Early Childhood Teachers: Early childhood education majors who have not yet completed their undergraduate teacher education programs.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter is classified into seven sections. First, information about general self-efficacy, teacher efficacy and teacher-parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs are given. In the second section, different definitions, types and benefits of parent involvement are explained together with a description of teachers' roles in parent involvement process. The third section includes the barriers to parent involvement in early childhood education. Parent involvement in teacher education programs is presented using related studies on this issue and teacher education and MoNE (Ministry of National Education) early childhood curriculum in Turkey is contained section four. The theoretical background of the study is included in the fifth section. Previous studies about parent involvement conducted with pre-service and in-service teachers are reviewed in the penultimate section and finally section 2.7 contains a summary of this Chapter.

2.1. Self-efficacy

2.1.1. Definition and Sources of the Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (Bandura, 1997, p.3). These beliefs have an impact on people’s thinking, motivation, feelings and behavior (Bandura, 1977), and choice of activities and environmental demands (Bandura, 1982). People tend to select environments which they think they can manage, and they tend to avoid environments and activities which exceed their capabilities (Bandura, 1989). Additionally, self-efficacy judgments also determine how much effort will be spent and how long persistence will be retained when faced with obstacles and aversive experiences. In this respect, a higher level of self-efficacy is associated with higher performance accomplishments and lower emotional arousal (Bandura, 1982).

Bandura distinguished personal self-efficacy judgments from response-outcome expectations. Although personal self-efficacy was described above in terms of belief in our capability to accomplish certain goals, there is also the outcome expectation related to the consequence of the judgement. Mostly, outcomes depend on people's judgments regarding how well they will be able to perform in the certain situation. In this respect, performance is better predicted by perceived self-efficacy rather than the expected outcomes (Bandura, 1986).

Generalized and task specific self-efficacy has been distinguished in the research as subheadings of the perceived self-efficacy (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Initially, general self-efficacy was defined as "individuals' perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations" (Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998, p. 170). Similarly, it has been also described by Luszczynska, Doña & Schwarzer (2005) as one's beliefs of competence to deal with novel issues and difficulties in an array of stressful or challenging situations. In this regard, a broader range of human behaviors and coping outcomes are explained in the content of the general self-efficacy belief. On the other hand, specific self-efficacy addresses a particular task. (Luszczynska et al., 2005).

There are four main sources of the development of these self-efficacy beliefs. First and most effective is *mastery experiences* since through these experiences, authentic evidence is provided as to whether one can master the situation and be successful (Bandura, 1997). Meanwhile; if success is easily achieved then people can be more readily discouraged by failure. On the other hand, difficulties can teach a person that sustained effort is required to achieve success. After these experiences, if people are convinced that they will be successful, they can maintain this self-efficacy belief when facing difficulties and overcoming them (Bandura, 1995).

Secondly, self-efficacy can be achieved through is *vicarious experiences* which are provided by social models. When a person observes that others who are similar to them have become successful, that person can develop the belief that they have the abilities to achieve success (Bandura, 1986, 1995, 1997; Schunk, 1987). At this point, perceived similarity to the selected model strongly influences the impact of the model on the receiver. If the assumed similarity is greater, the models' success or failures will

be more persuasive for the receiver (Bandura, 1995). In particular, this modeling has an impact on the individual who has little prior experience on which to base their evaluations (Bandura, 1997).

Verbal persuasion is the third source of self-efficacy which aims to strengthen people's beliefs in their capabilities for achieving what they want (Bandura, 1977). When people are verbally persuaded that they have the capabilities to master given tasks, they expend greater and sustained effort compared to others who have self-doubts (Bandura, 1986, 1995; Schunk, 1989). They try hard to be successful, and self-affirming beliefs improve their skills and self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1986).

The last source of self-efficacy is the *physiological and emotional states* that affect the person's ability to judge their capabilities. According to Bandura (1997) a person's mood affects this judgment for example, when people have a high sense of efficacy, they consider their state to be energetic. In this respect, enhancing people's physical status, reducing stress and negative emotional tendencies, and correcting misinterpretations of bodily states can alter efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1995).

Based on the sources given above, self-efficacy beliefs regulate human functioning through four major processes; cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection which work together (Bandura, 1993). Through cognitive processes, people set challenging goals for themselves believing that they will be successful. In the motivational process, they form beliefs regarding their capabilities, and they focus on coping capabilities in affective process. Lastly, in the selection process people choose activities and environment to get into that they are capable to manage (Bandura, 1995).

2.1.2. Teacher Efficacy and Its Sources

The literature contains different definitions of teacher efficacy. For Dembo & Gibson (1985) it is "the extent to which teachers believe they can affect students learning" (p.173). In other words, it refers to beliefs of teachers about their impact on how well their students can learn even those with difficulties or who are unmotivated (Guskey & Passaro, 1993). Similarly, the other most commonly accepted definition was proposed by Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy (1998) as "the teacher's belief

in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context” (p.233). According to the authors teacher efficacy was context specific (1998), and teachers can feel more or less efficacious under different conditions.

Teacher efficacy has an impact on the effort that teachers invest in teaching, and their goals and aspiration level (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Teachers who have a higher level of efficacy beliefs will set reachable goals, be persistent in the face of difficulties, help low achieving students willingly, use innovative designs and management techniques that provide autonomy for students, and give instruction which improves their students’ self-perception of their academic skills (Silverman & Davis, 2009).

The theoretical model on teacher efficacy proposed by Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy (1998) included the suggestions concerning new sources of information contained in the model. The model contained the four major sources that influence teacher efficacy as described above. Firstly, the most powerful source of efficacy beliefs is *mastery experience* which includes the interpretation of past performance information. It is accepted that while successful performance improves efficacy beliefs, failure lowers them. Secondly, *vicarious experience*, which refers to the observation of others in real classroom settings, assists in making judgments about teachers’ own capabilities to teach successfully. The similarity between the model and the observer increases the impact on the efficacy, and the models’ failures or success undermine or improve their self-efficacy beliefs. Thirdly, *verbal persuasion*, which includes judgments of others about a person’s capabilities to teach, provides information about teaching and feedback regarding the teachers’ performance. Lastly, in a teaching situation, the level and type of *physiological arousal* differs. Positive emotions provide for self-assurance and an expectation of future success (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998).

In addition to the sources of teacher efficacy, *cognitive processing* is the other component in the model. It determines how the sources of information will influence the analysis of the teaching task, its context, and the assessment of personal teaching

competence (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998, p. 230). In the *analysis of the teaching task* and its context, following elements can affect the forming of beliefs about how to succeed in a particular setting: making judgments about efficacy in terms of the difficulty of task, the students' motivation, the availability and quality of instructional materials, teaching methods, and the physical conditions and climate of the teaching environment. The other part of the model, the assessment of personal teaching competence refers to the self-perception of teaching competence including judgments about current functioning. In other words, it determines whether the person's current abilities and strategies are adequate for the specific teaching task. Taking all these elements into consideration, the interaction between analysis of the teaching task and its context, and self-perception of teaching increases *personal teaching self-efficacy* if the source of information of positive (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998).

Based on their model, Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy (1998) stated that experienced teachers make judgments based on the expected efficacy for the task. On the other hand, inexperienced teachers rely on analysis of the task and vicarious experience (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998). In contrast to in-service teachers, it was field experiences that provided pre-service teachers with the opportunity to discover sources of efficacy. It is during their classroom teaching practice in class, they can have real mastery experiences. Furthermore, their mentor teachers can also become a source of vicarious experiences for these pre-service teachers. Additionally, other sources of self-efficacy for pre-service teachers are their perception and interpretation of physical and emotional states, and the encouragement from significant others (Er, 2009).

2.1.3. Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs and Parent Involvement

Many teachers have difficulty in building strong relationships with parents. Although some feel competent while working with children, they lack the same confidence when encountering families (Keyser, 2006). In relation to this situation, teachers' beliefs in their efficacy can help them to be more receptive to the involvement of their students' parents (Hoover-Dempsey et. al, 1987; 2002). The personal efficacy of teachers has

an impact on the techniques employed to involve parents these including the number frequency and coverage of techniques. Teachers with a higher level of teaching efficacy frequently used different types of parent involvement techniques and involved more parents in education resulting in the improvement of parent-teachers communication and children' learning. (Wu, 1995). In this respect, confident teachers open their classrooms to parents, communicate regularly with them, and solicit parental support for classroom activities (Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones & Reed, 2002).The relationship between teaching efficacy beliefs and parent involvement practices has been focus of a number research studies.

Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie (1987) examined whether there is a relation between parent involvement practices and different factors including the teachers' sense of efficacy. It was found that the potential role of teacher efficacy in parent involvement provided the most positive results since teaching efficacy contributes to parent involvement in several ways. It improves teachers' efforts to discuss programs and goals with parents. Moreover, when parents receive useful information from teachers, they feel that their participation is productive and significant. Similarly, another article by Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie (1992) mainly focused on parents' efficacy and parent involvement in their study, and verified the significant relation between teaching efficacy and implementation of parent involvement practices. A possible reason for this relation is that they presented evidence of a positive connection between teaching efficacy and the teachers' perceptions of parent efficacy (Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1992).

In addition to the evidence of the relationship between teaching efficacy and parent involvement practices, family involvement self-efficacy beliefs has also been integrated into some research studies. For example, Garcia (2004) mainly examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and specific practices of parent involvement. The data on self-efficacy beliefs was collected using the *Teacher Efficacy Scale* developed by Dembo & Gibson (1984) and the *Family Involvement Teacher Efficacy Scale* established by Garcia (2000). The author also developed and used the *Teachers' Family Involvement Practice Survey* to measure the level of

teachers' parent involvement practices. The results of this study revealed that there is a significant correlation between teacher efficacy beliefs and the five types of parent involvement practices described by Epstein. Teaching efficacy and family involvement efficacy were found to be significant predictors of parent involvement practices, and thus efficacious teachers showed more effort to involve parents in the educational process.

Likewise, the other study conducted by Lan (2013) investigated the relationship among teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, family involvement self-efficacy beliefs and usage of family involvement practices. The data was collected through a survey, and interviews. The results of the study confirmed that there is a moderately strong relationship between teaching self-efficacy beliefs and the use of parent involvement practices. A higher level of teaching efficacy was associated with the frequent use of parent involvement practices. However, a relationship was not found between family involvement self-efficacy beliefs and parent involvement practices despite having been found in previous research. The probable reason for this contradiction could be related to the instrumentation of the study that instruments may include inherent flaws.

In addition to comments above regarding 'factors improving teachers' efficacy beliefs on parent involvement', various research studies focused on the impact of in-service training and parent involvement courses on these teachers efficacy beliefs (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2002; Morris & Taylor 1998). In one of these research studies, Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2002) developed and applied the *Teachers Involving Parents* program to improve practicing teachers' beliefs, skills and strategies regarding parent involvement. The authors concluded that the program facilitated improvements in the teachers' efficacy, and their beliefs related to parents' efficacy in helping their children. The program participants also developed increasing efficacy to develop specific plans in order to involve parents. Therefore, researchers concluded that teachers' self-efficacy can be enhanced by respectful and collegial in-service education. Additionally, it was stated that if teaching efficacy is combined with a commitment to the importance of parent involvement, this will generate parent

invitations to involvement, develop persistence in overcoming obstacles, and positively improve parent-child-teacher relationships.

In another study, Morris & Taylor (1998) examined the impact of the experience of a selected course on the perception of the level of pre-service teachers comfort and competence in planning and implementing family involvement programs. Pre- and post- assessments related to teachers' ability to work with parents were conducted with pre-service teachers in order to determine whether there was a change on their perception after attending the course. The results revealed that the experience from the course improved the pre-service teachers' perception of comfort and competence levels in planning and implementing family involvement programs. However, Zygmunt & Fillwalk (2011) did not find a significant difference between two groups in-service teachers in which only one group took a course on parent involvement. Only minimal differences were reported between groups according to quantitative measures but, in the qualitative part of the study, the families' creative and less standard level of involvement was reported by in-service teachers who have taken the course on parent involvement. Moreover, the authors also mentioned the significance of collaboration between home and school.

Similarly, the impact of workshops on pre-service teachers was also explored by Stuckey (2010). Differing from previous research studies which have examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and parent involvement with two measuring tools, Stuckey (2010) developed a scale which brings together teacher efficacy and parent involvement in one instrument. In her study, she designed and conducted workshops with pre-service teachers regarding parent involvement. The strategies of goal-setting and construct response were used with different groups. Later, the effect of these methods on pre-service teachers' personal standards, which refers to guidelines directing cognition and behavior regarding involving parents, and pre-service teachers' efficacy towards parent involvement were examined. Results revealed that pre-service teachers' personal standards and efficacy increased after participating in workshops. However, no significant difference was found between

overlapping goal-setting and the constructed response groups on the dependent variables.

In contrast to previous research studies that associated teacher efficacy with parent involvement practices, other research linking self-efficacy with parent involvement attitudes was conducted by Kaya (2007). She examined the determinants of pre-school teachers' attitudes towards parent involvement, and also investigated whether teachers' attitudes differ with respect to different levels of self-efficacy. Kaya's results revealed that teachers having higher self-efficacy held more positive attitudes towards parent involvement than teachers who had lower self-efficacy.

To sum up, all these studies reveal that there is a positive relationship between teaching self-efficacy beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement and parent involvement practices. Moreover, in-service training, course experiences and workshops on parent involvement have an impact on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and may have a positive impact on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs toward parent involvement. Specifically, although there are some inconsistent results from research regarding effectiveness of parent involvement courses, these courses can be beneficial in varying degrees for prospective teachers as highlighted in the related literature (Zygmunt & Fillwalk, 2011).

2.2. Parent Involvement

2.2.1. Definition of the Parent Involvement

The main definition of parent involvement in this study is the parents' participation in their children's educational processes and experiences (Jeynes, 2005). However, there are a number of similar parent involvement definitions in the literature. For example Simon (2004) defines this involvement as activities occurring between a parent and teachers at home or at school that may contribute to the educational outcomes and development of the child. Likewise, another definition considers the parent involvement to be two fold at home and at school. The former refers to parent-child interactions at home, and the direct investment of parent's resources in their child's education. The other form of involvement is the parents' participation in processes at school (Sheldon, 2002). In general terms, parent involvement includes any activities

which are provided and supported by the school, and which empower parents in working for the benefit of their children's learning and development (Olsen & Fuller, 2003). Additionally, it also refers to any beliefs, attitudes, and activities of parents and other family members that support children's learning (Weiss, Kreider, Lopez & Chatman, 2005).

Parents and teachers are the two main parts of the parent involvement process however, they have different perspectives in terms of parent involvement. The parents tend to consider this as making children go to school and keeping them safe. On the other hand, teachers perceive parent involvement as their presence in school (Anderson & Mike, 2007). It is clear that achieving a single encompassing definition is impossible but it can be seen that all these definitions share similar characteristics. To sum up, parent involvement is a process which benefits parents, children and early childhood programs by helping parents to use their abilities for its benefits (Morrison, 2013).

2.2.2. Models and Types of Parent Involvement

Several parent involvement models have been developed to understand and make better use of parent involvement in education. Among them, Epstein and Hoover-Dempsey's parent involvement models have been widely recognized and used in the field (Tekin, 2011).

Epstein (1995; Epstein et al., 2002) described six types of parent involvement each including the following different practices of partnership; parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision making and collaborating with the community. *Parenting involves the* school assisting parents to prepare the home environment to support their children. Parent education programs and suggestions for home conditions are examples of this partnership practice. *Communicating* includes designing effective school to home and home to school practices related to the children's progress and school programs. Two examples of ways of providing communication are conferences and sending children's products home. *Volunteering* is regarded accepting and organizing parental support such as encouraging parents to become involved inside and outside the classroom. *Learning at home* pertains to giving information to parents about how to support their children at home with curriculum

related activities and homework. *Decision making* refers to the inclusion of parents in the school decision making process such as creating committees for family leadership and participation. Lastly, *collaborating with the community* means integrating community resources and services to support school programs, family practices, children's development and learning. This can be provided by giving information to parents about community services and activities (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2002).

The second widely accepted model was developed by Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler (1995), and based on the perspectives of parents in relation to parent involvement. According to Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, there are the following three main reasons for parents' involvement in their children's education; parental role construction related to participation in their children's education, a positive parental efficacy in order to help their children to be successful in school, and perceiving opportunities or demands for involvement from children and school. The construction of parental role is significant since this makes it possible for parents to think about and consider educationally related activities and responsibilities. The second reason concerning the parents' sense of efficacy is important for children's success because when parents believe in their knowledge and skill, they can help their children and find alternative sources for their skills and knowledge in necessary conditions. Third, the demand and opportunity from school also have an impact on involvement of parents. Moreover, it was stated in this model that specific forms of parent involvement are chosen by parents with respect to their own skills and knowledge, their energy and time including employment and other family demands, and with respect to demands for involvement in their children and the school. Also, it was suggested in the model that parent involvement has an impact on children's educational outcomes through mechanisms as modeling, reinforcement and instruction. According to this model, this impact is tempered by two variables; developmentally appropriate involvement activities and strategies, and fit between involvement and the school's expectations. Lastly, the major outcomes of parent involvement on children are also described as children's skills and knowledge development, and personal efficacy to be successful in school (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). This model was revised by Walker et al. in 2005. Parents' motivational beliefs regarding involvement and parents' perceived life

contexts are also emphasized in the revised form. In the revised model parents' ideas about their parental roles and responsibilities are influenced by their perception of the available resources including time, energy, knowledge and skills, and the motivational beliefs also affect their ideas about what they can do and what they actually do (Walker, Wilkins, Dallaire, Sandler & Hoover-Dempsey, 2005).

Influenced by these models, Morrison (2013) described six types of parent involvement and recommended activities in which parents could become involved. These are as follows:

- *Type 1: Personal / Individual Involvement and Empowerment:* Adult education classes, training programs, classroom and center activities, libraries and material centers.
- *Type 2: Home/ Family Involvement and Empowerment:* Performances and plays, telephone hotlines, newsletters, books and other materials for parents and children to use at home, a website for parents.
- *Type 3: School-Based Involvement and Communication:* Welcoming committees, tutor time and participation in workshops.
- *Type 4: Community-Based Involvement, Empowerment, and Leadership:* Family nights, cultural dinners, parent support groups, and home visits.
- *Type 5: Leadership and Decision Making / Advocacy:* Fairs and bazaars, school-parent councils, school site councils, curriculum development and reviews.
- *Type 6: State and National Involvement* (Morrison, 2013).

To conclude, there are different ways to include parents in parent-school activities, and communication has a crucial role to inform parents about these school activities and involve them. There are different types of communication types; one way and two way. One-way communication means that information school activities flows from the school to the parents. In two way communication the parents can give feedback to school. Examples of one way communication include: simple newsletter, notes, letters, newspapers, a district newsletter which focuses on informing community about school

events, media, a real suggestion box through which parents can share their positive comments and also their concerns, and handbooks that provide information for parents. Two way communication includes telephone calls, home visits, visits to classroom, student-parent exchange days in which parents spend a day in the classroom environment in the role of a child, and breakfast times for sharing. Providing two way communication in parent-teacher conferences also enables coordination of parent and teacher to give the best effort for the education of the children in their care (Berger, 2008).

2.2.3. Benefits of the Parent Involvement

Parent involvement in education has beneficial outcomes for all the stakeholders. The main beneficiaries are the children, parents, teachers and schools and the benefits they receive are summarized separately below.

Benefits for the Children: The healthy relationship between parents and teachers can be a model for their children's social development (Keyser, 2006), and allow the children to attain a higher level of social skills (Iruka, Winn, Kingsley, Orthodoxou, 2011). Children observe social, communication and problem solving skills while parents and teachers are in communication, and thus, can see them as a model. When parents feel comfortable with the teacher, children will also develop trusting relationship with the teacher which is very important for their emotional development. In this regard, it can be concluded that children are able to recognize when there is a respectful and caring relationship between teachers and parents, and the children can benefit from this (Keyser, 2006). In addition, parent involvement also promotes improvements in children's behavior, attitudes and attendance at school (Hornby, 2011). When parents are involved in their education children tend to adapt well to school and attend regularly (Morrison, 2013). The results of research undertaken by Warner (2010) verified that communication between parents and school resulted in an increase in the children's motivation for, and at school. Similar to the results of Warner's (2010) research Cheung & Pameranzt (2012) found that when parents were more involved in their children's learning, this contributed to their children's motivation to do well in school, and their children's enhanced self-regulated learning

and grade levels. From this research, it can be summarized that children achieve better grades and have higher self-esteem, self-discipline and motivation to school as a result of the parent involvement (Olsen & Fuller, 2003).

Benefits for Parents: Through their involvement, parents can obtain information about child development and teaching strategies (Keyser, 2006), and they can become more sensitive and responsive to their child's developmental needs (Olsen & Fuller, 2003). Additionally, parents can also become more active, and directly observe what is happening in the school (Olsen & Fuller, 2003). When parents discover what their children learn at school, they can become more willing to volunteer and support the school (Batey, 1996), and more involved in the activities of their children at home (Olsen & Fuller, 2003). In these processes, they can share both their children's struggles and accomplishment with the teacher. When parents are challenged this involvement can help them to receive support and referrals to resources (Keyser, 2006) and as a result, they feel more confident in parenting skills (Olsen & Fuller, 2003). In other words, parent involvement increases parental confidence and satisfaction with parenting (Hornby, 2011). Through this involvement a partnership is developed and trust is created between parents and teachers (Batey, 1996), and parents also can leave their children at school with trust (Keyser, 2006).

Benefits for Educators: Parent involvement allows the significant work of teacher to become visible to parents (Keyser, 2006) and teachers gain greater respect (Olsen & Fuller, 2003). Teachers can better understand the children and their family environment when parents share information with them. This assists in the development of a program which meets the needs of each child. Furthermore, parents are a crucial resource for the program with their ideas, materials, and community connections (Keyser, 2006). Teachers can also achieve increased trust from the children when they are in communication with their families (Keyser, 2006). Parent involvement contributes to increased academic achievement and better student discipline (Batey, 1996). As a result, teachers become more satisfied in their work, and they feel more effective and confident. To sum up, parent involvement improves parent-teacher relationships, teacher morale and the school climate (Hornby, 2011).

Benefits for the School: Schools which encourage parent involvement have higher quality programs compared to those which do not involve parents (Olsen & Fuller, 2003) because family participation improves the quality of early childhood programs (Morrison, Storey & Zhang, 2011). Moreover, parent involvement provides better community support for these schools and consequently, these schools also have better reputation in the community (Olsen & Fuller, 2003).

2.2.4. Roles of Teachers in the Parent Involvement Process and Skills Required to Work Effectively with Parents

In the process of parent involvement teachers have crucial roles such as facilitator, counselor, communicator, program director, interpreter, resource developer and friend (Berger, 2008). It is through these roles, they implement the school policy and procedure related to parent involvement (Hornby, 2011), and they become responsible for creating a link between classroom and home by providing activities, and encouraging parents' to active participate with their children in the home environment (Loughran, 2008).

In addition to providing involvement activities, another responsibility of teachers in this process is to understand the effect of barriers on parent involvement and find strategies for dealing these. Therefore, it is necessary for teacher's to develop skills for working effectively with parents. These skills include objectivity, sensitivity, genuineness, respect, empathy, and both positive and realistic thinking (Hornby, 2011). Furthermore, it is also necessary for teachers to have good interpersonal skills in order to work with parents in an efficient way (Hornby, 2000). All of these skills are necessary for teachers' to perform their role in the parent involvement process. Initially, in order to provide parents' active participation in the parent involvement process, it is necessary for teachers to establish strong relationships with parents by being patient, having empathy and being respectful. Moreover, it is also necessary for teachers to validate parents' concerns rather than judging them, and when necessary make recommendations for parents concerning the available educational resources. Another responsibility of teachers in this process to ensure that have the appropriate strategies to communicate with parents who may have difficulty in speaking, reading,

etc. ,within this sphere teachers should collaborate with different agencies such as Head Start (Kauffman, 2001).To sum up, for effective communication with parents, it is recommended that teachers; respect knowledge and expertise of parents; share information by means of two way communication; share power and decision making with parents; acknowledge and respect diversity; and create extended networks of support (Keyser, 2006).

In the parent involvement process, it is necessary for teachers to work with a diversity of parents including caregivers, working parents and relatives. In order to communicate effectively with these people, teachers also need to organize their thoughts and engage in clear communication. Teachers need to respect parents, encourage their participation and be flexible especially for working parents. For the latter teachers need to provide times for contact but without disrupting the classroom schedule. In order to create this relationship the first contact is of crucial importance. In the first weeks of the child starting school the teacher should have contact with each parent and discuss their child's adjustment to school. This will provide a baseline for the development of positive communication for the future. Additionally, observation reports are a useful tool to will improve communication between parents and teachers since it demonstrates to parents that teacher knows their child (Loughran, 2008). It is concluded that the responsibility of teachers is to establish positive communication with parents and provide involvement of diversity of parents to different parent involvement activities.

2.3. Barriers to Parent Involvement in Early Childhood Education Process

There are several possible barriers to the implementation of parent involvement in schools (Hornby, 2000) however, if these are identified and understood, it becomes easier to address and overcome them (Keyser, 2006; Lawson 2003).

Keyser (2006) identified barriers to parent involvement in terms of parents. First, there many stress factors were defined for families which affect their partnership with the teacher. These are related to money, sleeping, housing, transportation, balancing, work and parenting decisions. The second barrier was related to families having less time and feel pressured to do more things with their children in a restricted amount of time.

In comparison to past generations, more families work outside the home resulting in more children being in a child care, and this can lead parents to feel guilt, protective, jealousy and frustration in their relationship with school. The last barrier is that the experiences and assumptions of families affect their feelings about the school and the teacher (Keyser, 2006). Canter L. & Canter M. (1991) also summarized the roadblocks for parents as follows:

- *Parents are overwhelmed:* Parents feel that they do not have time and energy in order to support their children's education. There can be many reasons for this such as poverty, divorce, illnesses, and job stress.
- *Parents want to help but don't know how:* Parents need guidance and support to become involved in their children's education.
- *Parents' negative feelings about school:* Parents assume that there is nothing they can do about children's problem therefore, they consider that there is no reason to become involved.
- *Parents' negative view of teacher competence:* There are parents who do not respect teachers' professional expertise.

In addition to the barriers related to the parents, teacher based factors may also cause a lack of parent involvement. Keyser (2006) identified barriers to parent involvement in terms of the teachers. The first barrier is the lack of experience and training to work with parents. Second that teachers have limited time to get to know families and there is not an available place for their meetings. The third barrier is that teachers do not have sufficient experiences or training to face the challenges of working within culturally diverse program. Lastly feeling inadequate, less comfortable, lacking in child development knowledge, not respected and or valued all create a barrier to working with families (Keyser, 2006). Similarly, barriers to parent involvement from the teachers' perspective were also summarized by Canter L. & Canter M. (1991) as follows:

- *The myth of the "Good Teacher":* Teachers should handle students' problems by themselves because it is not professional to involve parents.

- *Negative expectations about working with parents:* The assumption is that parents do not support us and don't care.
- *Lack of training in working with parents:* There is agreement among teachers in that most of them are trained to teach students and special skills are required to work with parents.

In contrast to previous research, DeBruhl (2006) summarized barriers to parent involvement in general without separating the teacher and parents by referring to Jesse (1996) and Center Public Policy Priorities (1999). These are:

- Different beliefs of teachers and parents about the meaning of parental involvement.
- School buildings and classrooms that are not welcoming for parents and visitors.
- Schools' negative, neutral, or untimely communication.
- Inability of teachers to effectively reach out and communicate with parents.
- Distance between teachers and parents.
- Limited views of parental involvement and the public's perception of the school.
- Low expectations regarding parental involvement.
- Confusion about the role of teachers (Owens, 2004, cited in DeBruhl, 2006).
- Concerns about territories.
- Assumed passive role by schools.

In addition to the parent involvement barriers described in the previous paragraphs, the effect of family-school barriers on parents' involvement in their children's education was investigated by Becher & Klein (1999). Participants were chosen from the National Head Start / Public School Transition Demonstration Project and 151 families engaged in the study. Data was collected using various methods including scales and self-reports. The study found that there are many factors influencing family involvement in children's education, which can be divided into three elements; family

demographic variables, family structural variables and school-level variables. The results indicated that family demographic, and contextual variables do not have a significant role in parents' involvement in their children's education. On the other hand, school level barriers have the most significant effect and are positively related to participation in children's education at home. In this regard, the results of research indicated that school practices have more important effect on parent involvement than family factors.

Taking into consideration these barriers and the research regarding this issue, Hornby & Lafaele (2011) developed a comprehensive model which describes all the barriers influencing parent involvement in education. This model is based on the three contexts of school, family and community, and includes four main factors as barriers to parent involvement. First the individual parent and family factors which focus on parents' beliefs about involvement, current life contexts, perceptions of invitations for involvement, and class, ethnicity, and gender. The second factor is related to child, and this factor addresses age, learning difficulties and disabilities, gifts and talents, and behavioral problems. Third is the parent-teacher factor that includes differing agendas, attitudes, and the language used. Finally, the societal factor focuses on historic and demographic, political and economic issues.

Thus, it can be seen that there are a variety of barriers to parent involvement, and classroom teachers have the key role in overcoming obstacles to parent involvement (Savacool, 2011). If teachers become aware of these barriers, it will be easier to overcome them (Keyser, 2006).

2.4. Teacher Preparation Programs and Parent Involvement

2.4.1. Pre-service Teachers' Preparation on Parent Involvement

Pre-service teachers have conflicting expectations about families and their involvement in their child's education. Although they understand the significance of parent involvement, they envision very stressful relations with parents and other family members. In particular, they have concerns about the quality of the teacher-parent relationship, meeting children's basic needs in school with respect to the parents and

the role of parents in the process of education (Baum & McMurray-Schwarz, 2004). These may lead to teachers minimizing parent involvement in order to avoid conflicts (Baum & Swick, 2008). It was stated that pre-service teachers' feelings about parent involvement and their practices as classroom teachers regarding this issue can be influenced from their preparation for parent involvement activities (Katz & Bauch, 1999).

Early childhood education programs commonly contain a course that focuses on parent involvement (Baum & McMurray-Schwarz, 2004). The impact of this type of course on pre-service teachers has been reported in different research studies. For example, Morris & Taylor (1998) investigated the influence of course experiences on the comfort and competence levels of pre-service teachers' in planning and implementing family involvement programs in schools. Pre- and post- assessments were conducted, and the results showed that undertaking these courses made a significant difference to the pre-service teachers' planning and implementation of family involvement programs. Likewise, in another study, Zygmunt-Fillwalk (2011) also concluded that pre-service teachers who had taken a course on parent involvement placed more emphasis on the importance of collaboration between home and school compared to other teachers who had not taken the course.

In addition to the effectiveness of parent involvement courses in the pre-service period, Katz & Bauch (1999) conducted a study consisting of in-service and pre-service teachers some of whom had completed a parent involvement course and others who had not. The authors found that those teachers that completed a parent involvement course were most engaged in those activities at undergraduate level. These courses consisted of introductory home/school activities such as; written progress notes to families, calling family members by phone, participating in a meeting with a parent who has a child with special needs, and conducting parent teacher conferences. However; Katz and Bauch also reached the conclusion that despite the positive effect of the course on teachers' practices, both the in-service and pre-service teachers who have taken one course on parent involvement stated that they needed more preparation than a one semester course. Tichenor (2010) reported on the recommendations made

pre-service teachers to resolve this issue. The teachers that participated in the study indicated that they could be better prepared for working with parents through courses on parent involvement, field experiences regarding parent involvement and working directly with parents. Moreover, the pre-service teachers suggested that specific information related to the ways of implementing successful parent involvement programs should be provided generally in teacher education courses rather than only in parent involvement courses. Lastly, they commented on the need for specific guidance and suggestions about effective ways of working with parents.

In practice, pre-service teacher education focuses on the partnership between school, family and community on a theoretical level so teachers are not familiar with the kinds of problems which they can encounter in the first year of teaching. Therefore, early childhood teacher education programs need to include discussions of day-to-day problems and the practical solutions thus enlarging the experience of new teachers on which they can base their practices (Mahmood, 2013).

In teacher education programs, it is necessary for pre-service teachers to understand theories, history and research regarding parent involvement. Moreover, they need to comprehend the benefits of involving parents, strategies for reaching parents, effective communication skills, together with knowing how to conduct effective parent/teacher conferences, and encourage home-school collaboration. Furthermore, pre-service teachers should have opportunity to work with parents during course or field experiences. In this respect, teacher education programs should prepare teachers to implement a variety of strategies and techniques to get parents involved, and these programs should also teach them how to provide the involvement of all types of parents in education (Tichenor, 2010). Baum & Swick (2008) also made recommendations to enable pre-service teachers to work effectively with parents. These recommendations included; envisioning and communicating a clear conceptual framework to comprehensively understand families and issues; providing opportunities for self-examination of a teacher's own personal characteristics, beliefs and attitudes which affect parent involvement; allowing pre-service teachers to listen to the voices of parents and families, and providing a variety of experiential situations for them to

involve parents. In this regard, it is recommended that pre-service teachers should have in-depth and prolonged interactions with families to reach expectations of parent involvement courses.

2.4.2. Early Childhood Teacher Education Program in Turkey

In Turkey, the Council of Higher Education defines and arrange related to the required content and length of courses, and defines competencies that are applied across all programs of education faculties. Education faculties serve as the teacher training institutions in Turkey, and generally an undergraduate degree is awarded upon the successful completion of eight semesters study. The early childhood education programs consists of eight semesters in which the students take major area courses, professional teaching knowledge and general knowledge courses. There are also elective courses which are determined by the faculties (Council of Higher Education, 2007).

In the seventh semester of early childhood education program, there is one compulsory Parent Education. The content of this course is determined by the Council of Higher Education (2007) and includes; social structure; social development of culture and people; definition, structure and value of the family; family oriented education programs; definition of adult and adult learning; psychology of adulthood and adulthood stages; family theories, and parent involvement in early childhood education.

According to this program, one compulsory parent education course is given in the last year in the teacher training programs of most education faculties. Exceptionally, this course is given in the third year in a few universities. Although the contents of the course is predetermined by the YOK, course instructors are still free to redesign the content as long as they follow YOK's suggestions.

2.4.3. Ministry of National Education (MoNE) Early Childhood Education Curriculum

As in previous versions, parent involvement and parent education is important topic in the last revised Early Childhood Education Program (MoNE, 2013). The significance

of the family is identified in the first part of the program, and parent education and parent involvement is also given as one of the basic features of this program.

In this program, parent involvement activities are integrated into both the daily activity plans and the monthly plans. In addition to the daily and monthly plans there are; “Parent Education Need Recognition Form”, “Parent Involvement Preference Form” and “Forms in Parent Recognition Folder” which must be filled by parents in the beginning of the year. Furthermore, “Parent Support Education Guidance Integrated with the MoNE Early Childhood Education Program (OBADER)” was also constituted to be used with this program (MoNE, 2013).

First the significance, purpose and basic principles of parent education are explained in OBADER. It is stated that parent education is significant since it helps parents to gain knowledge and skills that are necessary for their children’s physical, emotional, and social development. Therefore, the aim of parent education is described as giving information to parents regarding child development, children’ education at school and increasing their participation in educational processes. Also, some basic principles are presented that include ethic principles, general principles and practice principles which provide guidelines in order to provide effective parent education. Then, the features, implementation process and assessment of parent education activities are referred to, and information is provided for the preparation of parent education. Some of the features that are mentioned concerning parent education are: face-to-face meetings, teachers’ implementation of activities, and using different materials and techniques. The implementation of parent education activities is also explained step by step such as introducing parents to the school and school personnel and the OBADER document. OBADER also states that after parent education activities are conducted then an assessment must be conducted to examine what has learned in the process. These parent education assessment techniques include game cards, sentence completion, self-evaluation forms, a behavior evaluation form, poster preparation, question-answer cards, and toy and book sharing. Other evaluation techniques such as forms and simple questionnaires are also suggested in OBADER. Furthermore, parent education activities can include organizing conferences, creating brochures and magazines for

parents and exhibiting them on panel. Before such parent education activities, it is mentioned that some preparation is necessary this includes deciding on topics, support materials and the time and place where the activities will be held. It is also considered necessary to define parent needs through questionnaires and interviews.

The next part of OBADER consists of a list of methods and techniques of parent education studies comprising sample event examination, demonstration, role playing, question-answer, and group studies. Group studies include brainstorming; sentence completion; self-stick notes that refers to writing ideas to self-sticks and paste on the wall, and then discuss all of the pasted ideas as a group; train which refers to discussion of different issues with the participants sitting in two lines like a train; predicting rule that refers to prediction of rule determined by the group; brick wall which refers to writing ideas on brick like papers and constituting brick wall bringing them together; and someone that refers to predicting person in group. After explanation of group studies, examples of sessions for parent education studies are presented.

The following parent communication methods and information channels are listed and explained in OBADER: telephone calling, short message services, manuals, visual-auditory records, photographs, notice boards, bulletins, newsletters, correspondence, communication notebooks, development portfolios, meetings, school visiting, arrival-departure times, internet based applications, and suggestion boxes. After this section, parents' participation in education activities are mentioned, and examples are given. Then, information on individual meetings and home visits are given including the purpose of home visits, example activities and there is also an observation form to assess home visiting. Lastly, information is provided concerning awareness raising of the support required for children with special needs. The OBADER document is accompanied by the *School Introduction and Family Recognition Folder*, and two CD's containing videos and presentations. The *School introduction and family recognition folder* includes activities to apply in the transition period which covers the process of adaptation which occurs in the early weeks of children's first entry to school, general information about the school, information about school's education program, and forms to be completed by parents (OBADER, 2013).

To sum up, parent education and parent involvement are emphasized in the curriculum and integrated into the plans of teachers. Moreover, parent involvement and parent education studies are also explained in detail in OBADER booklet, and it is necessary for teachers to use this OBADER guidance with the Early Childhood Education program.

2.5. Theoretical Framework of the Study

The theoretical construct of this study is based on two main theories; social cognitive theory and ecological system theory which have been chosen in order to justify the importance of parent involvement in education, and draw attention to significance of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in this process.

2.5.1. Social Cognitive Theory

This study is based on the theoretical framework of the self-efficacy developed from Bandura's social cognitive theory in 1986 in which human behavior is defined as a triadic, dynamic, and reciprocal interaction between personal behaviors, environment and behavior (Bandura, 1986). That means that each behavior bidirectionally influence each other (Bandura, 1997). In other words, this theory emphasizes the cognitive and social information-processing capacity of an individual, and focuses on human agency which is defined as the ability of human beings to make choices and impose them on his or her environment (Bandura, 1989). In human agency, personal efficacy beliefs are the key factor (Bandura, 1997). There is a close relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and human agency since self-efficacy beliefs are determinants of human motivation, and affect (Bandura, 1989), and similar to self-efficacy, human agency is also regulated through cognitive, motivation, affective and selection processes in this theory (Bandura, 1989).

As stated above, human agency is regulated through various processes. Cognitive processes affect human agency in the areas of goal making, analytic thinking, and strong self-efficacy development. Motivational processes regulate human agency with the strength of self-efficacy. When there are strong beliefs in capabilities, more persistence are seen in efforts. Affective processes are concerned with stress,

depression, and anxiety which are related to challenging issues that affect people's beliefs in their capabilities. Lastly, the selection process has an impact on human agency in that people prefer place and environments which they can deal with (Bandura, 1989).

In addition to human agency, reciprocal determinism is the second main issue in this theory. This means that people have capability to select and react to an environment. Behavior, cognitive and other personal factors, and environmental influences affect each other, and operate as determinants of each other (Bandura, 1986). In relation to these, learning occurs in a social context, and according to this theory it is attained through observation. There are several basic assumptions about learning and behavior in the content of this theory. First the continuous interaction between cognitive, behavioral and contextual factors provides a person with ongoing functioning. Another assumption is that people have the ability to influence their own behavior and environment in a purposeful way. The last assumption is that learning can occur without an immediate change in behavior because it also includes knowledge, cognitive skills, concepts, abstract rules, values, and other cognitive constructs (Denler, Wolters & Benzon, 2014).

Apart from human agency and reciprocal determinism, there are other core concepts of this theory. First, observational learning which is also described as vicarious learning or modeling. This means that learning is the result of observing the performance of others in the environment. Outcome expectations are another core concept referring to individuals' judgments regarding consequences after performing particular behaviors. Third is perceived self-efficacy which is related to an individual's judgments of their own capabilities as to whether they can achieve a particular task (Bandura, 1986). The fourth concept, goal setting, refers to the cognitive representation of desired outcomes (Denler et al., 2014). Self-regulation is the last concept which means the management and control of behavior, feelings and thoughts (Bandura, 1986). According to this theory self-efficacy beliefs are the basis for human motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment, and these beliefs foster expected outcomes. When there is a difference between self-efficacy beliefs and the

outcome expectations, self-efficacy beliefs determine the outcomes (Pajares, 2009). To sum up, this theory assists the conception of self-efficacy, and factors related to it. Therefore, implications of this theory provide significant information for the study.

2.5.2. Ecological Theory

Ecological systems theory emphasizes the significance of context in children's development (Bronfenbrenner, 1986), and according to Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological systems theory (1979, 2005), child development occurs within a nested series of contextual levels from immediate setting to the next setting. This is the micro-, meso-, exo-, macro- and chrono system. Every level in this system is interconnected and affects other subsystems (Weiss, Kreider, Lopez & Chatman, 2005).

The microsystem consists of "a pattern of activities, roles and interpersonal relations which is experienced by the developing person in a given face-to-face setting with particular physical and material features" (Bronfenbrenner, 2005, p.147). In this regard, an immediate context which child interacts constitutes the microsystem (Weiss et al., 2005). This system includes parents, family, peers, schools, neighborhood, religious groups, and parks (Morrison, 2013).

The second level, the mesosystem, includes linkages, interrelations and processes which take place between two or more settings in which the developing person is located (Bronfenbrenner, 2005) such as the relations between home, school and neighborhood (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The degree of connection, coordination, and continuity is represented across these microsystems of a child in the mesosystem (Weiss et al., 2005).

Next the exosystem consists of linkages and processes between two or more settings which do not directly involve the child but they are the results of events in those settings that influence the immediate setting of the child (Bronfenbrenner, 2005, p.148). Thus, the exosystem includes contexts which indirectly influence child (Weiss et al., 2005) for example the parents' work place or the parents' network of friends (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

The fourth level is the macrosystem which is the most distal region of the environment. It includes patterns of micro-, meso-, and exosystems with developmentally instigative belief systems, resources, hazards, lifestyles, opportunity structure, life course options, and social interchange patterns which are embedded in each of these systems (Bronfenbrenner, 2005). The societal print of a culture is given as an example of a macrosystem. This level is represented by resources, opportunities and constraints of children and families (Weiss et al., 2005); and culture, customs and values of society are also included in this system (Morrison, 2013).

Finally, the chronosystem refers to time both in the life trajectory and historical context (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). This is exemplified in changes in family structure over time having an impact on a child's development (Tekin, 2011) for example today's children are comfortable in using technology for their education compared to children in previous times (Morrison, 2013).

In these systems, family, school and society are considered as a whole in this theory, and interactions among them influence the developing person as an individual. Since this theory reveals how the environment affects children this helps researchers, parents and teachers to form their conception about how to behave towards to children and change the environment for their benefit.

2.6. Parent Involvement Research Conducted with Teachers

This section presents studies conducted with pre-service teachers and in-service teachers abroad and in Turkey regarding parent involvement in their child's education.

2.6.1. Studies Conducted Abroad with Pre-service Teachers

The impact of parent involvement course and field experience on pre-service teachers' parent involvement attitudes has been investigated by researchers. McBride (1989) examined the attitudes of pre-service teachers towards parent involvement. 271 pre-service early childhood teachers participated in the study, and data collection tool was adapted from the instrument developed by Epstein (1987). Quantitative data analysis results showed that pre-service teachers had positive attitudes towards the five types of parent involvement described by Epstein. However, these teachers felt that they

were unprepared to implement these parent involvement strategies but pre-service teachers who had student teaching field experience had more positive attitudes towards parent involvement, and the correlation analysis results revealed that pre-service teachers who completed a parent involvement course felt more prepared to implement parent involvement strategies.

In another study, conducted by Tichenor (2010), investigated the attitudes of pre-service teachers towards parent involvement in elementary schools, and investigated whether there were differences between their attitudes who were beginning a teacher education program and those completing teaching practice. In addition, pre-service teachers' feelings regarding their preparation in parent involvement strategies and their beliefs about the kinds of experiences that should be provided in teacher education were also examined in this study. A survey developed by McBride (1989) was used to collect data from 257 pre-service teachers of which 140 were beginning education courses, and 117 were completing teaching practice. The ANOVA results revealed that all the pre-service teachers had positive attitudes towards parent involvement but practicing teachers had more positive attitudes than the pre-services teachers who were at the beginning of their education. In addition, as expected, practicing teachers felt significantly more prepared to implement parent involvement strategies than beginning teachers. According to the beginning teachers, personal experiences contributed to their being prepared to work with parents. On the other hand, practicing teachers believed that field experiences and coursework contributed to their preparation for parent involvement.

In addition to impact of parent involvement course experiences on pre-service teachers' attitudes, their impact on these teachers' perceptions, feelings, and opinions were also examined in various research studies. Zygmunt-Fillwalk (2006) examined the change in pre-service teachers' perception of the importance, feasibility and level of preparation regarding parent involvement strategies after participating in a 16-week course on family and community relations. The study sample consisted of 132 pre-service teachers. Data was collected by means the pre and post administration of the Peabody Family Involvement Survey to treatment groups who attended a parent

involvement course and control groups who had not taken part in the course. Paired sample t-test results showed that there was a significant growth in the treatment groups' attitudes towards family involvement, feasibility perception in accomplishing these practices, and their preparation perception for such work. In particular, the participants' impressions of feasibility of strategies positively changed after the intervention.

Similarly, Uludağ (2008) investigated pre-service teachers' opinions towards parent involvement in elementary children's education. 223 pre-service teachers from United States participated in the quantitative part of the study, and 12 pre-service teachers from a selected sample at the end of practice teaching were involved in the qualitative part of the study. The *Parental Involvement Questionnaire* developed by Epstein & Dauber (1988) was used to collect the quantitative data, and the qualitative data was derived from interviews. The results revealed that teacher education programs which have parent involvement instruction and activities helped pre-service teachers to become better prepared for, and possess positive opinions towards parent involvement.

In addition to parent involvement course experiences, it was also found that direct experiences with parents had an impact on pre-service teachers' attitudes, perceptions and beliefs regarding parent involvement. Hedges & Gibbs (2005) conducted a case study in family homes with 14 student teachers in their 1st year of teacher education program that lasts six months. Observing families in their own homes gave the pre-service teachers an insight into the reality of the families' daily life. After the visits to the families interviews were conducted with five of the participant teachers to collect the data. After six months, it was found that these experiences had a positive impact on pre-service teachers' understanding of parenting and their attitudes towards establishing effective partnerships with parents.

A service learning project was devised by Freeman & Knoph (2007) with the aim of providing an authentic opportunity for pre-service teachers in order to be a resource for the families of the children with whom they worked in the study. In this project, activities were designed for the pre-service teachers to increase their expertise in working with families. At the end of project, the pre-service teachers summarized their

experience with a display of process and a handout. Anecdotal evidence from the pre-service teachers revealed that this project provided an opportunity for pre-service teachers to internalize specialized knowledge while working with families. The teachers gained requisite skills and dispositions to work with families. In this respect, authors concluded that service learning that refers providing authentic opportunities for pre-service teachers to implement course content enhanced the teachers' confidence, and improved their communication skills.

Another service learning project was instigated by Brannon (2013) in which pre-service teachers conducted family nights over a semester with children, and families who are considered as "high need" with limited English proficiency and low income level. The purpose of these family nights was to help pre-service teachers to build self-efficacy related to parent involvement, and help them to find ways of working with low income families who had limited proficiency in English. The data was collected via self-efficacy survey applied to the pre-service teachers before and after the program, and interviews were conducted with the participants at the end of the semester. After these family nights, pre-service teachers indicated that they had increased their knowledge, understanding of issues regarding working with high needs families due to limited English proficiency and low income level, and their confidence and ability on providing suggestions and engagement for families. In addition, this study also revealed the biases and stereotypes of pre-service teachers.

In addition to courses, field experience, and service learning, the impact of workshops on pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding parent involvement was also investigated in a study of Stuckey (2010). She designed and conducted workshops with pre-service teachers regarding parent involvement, and used a goal-setting strategy and construct response strategy as a method for different groups. After workshops, she examined the effect of these methods on pre-service teachers' personal standards which refers internalized principles for cognition and behavior of them towards parent involvement, and their efficacy towards parent involvement. To collect the data she developed two scales; *Personal Standards towards Parent Involvement in Education Inventory* and *Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Inventory*, and applied them to 104 pre-

service teachers. The results revealed that pre-service teachers' personal standards and efficacy towards parent involvement increased after participating in workshops. However, no significant difference was found between overlapping goal-setting and the constructed response groups on the dependent variables.

Despite the positive effect of teacher training on pre-service teachers being reported in various research studies. Research conducted by Denessen, Bakker, Kloppenburg & Kerkhof (2009) reached different conclusion. They aimed to determine the impact of teacher training on teachers' attitudes and competencies from all grade levels. The researchers developed a survey and applied it to 545 Dutch pre-service teachers. Results showed that the student teachers' competence level was quite low despite teacher training. The pre-service teachers reported that they did not feel prepared to communicate with parents at the beginning their teaching career. However, they had very positive attitudes towards parents, and their attitudes were related to their personal biography in the study, not to their experiences in teacher training according to the results of the regression analysis.

To explain the results of the research undertaken by Denessen et al. (2009), Graue & Brown (2003) examined the opinions of pre-service teachers concerning home-school relations when they entered teacher education program in order to better understand today's schools' practices. They examined 130 junior elementary and secondary pre-service teachers' thoughts about working with families. A short survey developed by the researchers was used to collect the data. The results of the study indicated that pre-service teachers begin their teacher training with certain constructions regarding the relationship between family and education, and these constructions were related to their own experiences. It was also revealed that pre-service teachers assume that families support teachers' work in the classroom. These constructions and assumptions found to limit the pre-service teachers opportunities in developing a parent-teacher relationship since there was a distance between the teachers ideas differed from the parents. The parents adopted quite traditional roles in terms of their involvement in their child's education, furthermore, the parents considered that there was moderate

school support and collaboration. To conclude, personal experience was found to shape teachers' present and future practices.

For her dissertation, Baum (2000) investigated the beliefs of pre-service teachers towards different issues including parent involvement. 19 pre-service teachers participated in focus groups to discuss their beliefs, and interviews were also conducted with six of them. Grounded theory was used in the data analysis and the results of the study showed that pre-service teachers viewed open communication with families as significant in their relations. They believed that knowing background of the families improves both child's education and their own relationship with the family because home life affects both the child's developmental progress and behavior at school. However, a group of participants thought that relationship with families would be challenging and other pre-service teachers had concerns regarding respecting the parents' rights and boundaries.

Although some of the pre-service teachers have concerns related to parent involvement, according to the results of various research studies most felt prepared for parent involvement activities. In one of these research studies Pedro, Miller & Bray (2012), adapted a survey research methodology in order to examine pre-service teachers' perceptions of knowledge and dispositions for working with parents and families. 83 pre-service early childhood teachers participated in the study which focused on important areas such as teacher knowledge of conducting parent teacher conferences; affecting school policies and accessing resources for parents and families; building a community in which parents feel comfortable; and understanding the value of parental involvement and parents' ability to make educational decisions. The results indicated that most of the pre-service teachers felt prepared to work with parents; conduct effective parent-teacher conferences; understanding value of parental involvement; and determine the parents' knowledge of their child's educational needs.

2.6.2. Studies Conducted Abroad with In-service Teachers

The relationships between teaching efficacy beliefs and parent involvement practices of teachers have been presented in various research. For example, Wu (1995) investigated the relationship between the teacher's sense of personal and teaching

efficacy, school climate and teacher's parent involvement practices in the early childhood programs of Taiwan schools. 397 kindergarten teachers participated in the study. Four instruments including Teachers Parent Involvement Practices Survey, Teacher Efficacy Scale, Revised Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire for Elementary Schools, and Demographic Data Sheet were used to collect the data. In results, it was reported that most of the teachers used the following parent involvement techniques: home visits, problem contacts, class notes and good performance contacts. A significant relationship was found between the effective use of these different parent involvement techniques and teachers' sense of personal and teaching efficacy. Moreover, the school climate, collegial teacher behavior and demographic variables were also correlated with teachers' parent involvement practices. It was concluded that the school type, in-service training on parent involvement and grade level were related to teachers' effective use of parent involvement techniques.

In another study, Lan (2013) set out to explore the relationship between teachers' teaching self-efficacy beliefs, their family involvement self-efficacy beliefs and their use of family involvement practices. *Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale* and the *Family Involvement Teacher Efficacy Scale* were used to collect data regarding the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, and the *Teacher's Family Involvement Practices Survey* was used to record family involvement practices. In addition, in order to obtain qualitative data to investigate in depth the relationships between variables interviews were also conducted with 49 teachers from two different schools who had participated in the quantitative part of the study. The results revealed that there is a moderately strong relationship between teaching self-efficacy and the use of parental involvement practices. Furthermore, having higher level of teaching self-efficacy was also associated with the frequent use of parent involvement practices. It was also found that communication including telephone calls, meeting at school, and parent-teacher conferences were the most frequently used parent involvement practices. However, contrary to previous research, no relationship was found between family involvement self-efficacy and the use of parental involvement practices.

One of the contradictory results of Lan's findings was explored in a study by Thompson (2012) in which he examined the relationship between teachers' parental involvement beliefs, years of teaching and their training on parental involvement practices. Data was collected by means of two questionnaires; *Teacher Beliefs about Parental Involvement* and *Teacher Beliefs about the Importance of Specific Involvement Practices*. The results of the regression analysis confirm that there is a significant relationship between teachers' parental involvement beliefs and parental involvement practices. Parental involvement beliefs were found as a positive predictor of parental involvement practices. This shows that teachers will expend more effort on parent involvement if they believe in the significance of parent involvement. However, it was found that years of experience and parent involvement training had no impact on their parent involvement practices.

In contrast, it was verified in different research studies that teacher training on parent involvement has an impact on their parent involvement practices. In one of these studies, Zygmunt-Fillwalk (2011) investigated the relationship between teachers who had taken a family and community relations undergraduate course and their teaching practices. Data was collected by means of *Peabody Family Involvement Survey* from 60 teachers. In the treatment group 21 teachers had attended a parent involvement course and the control group consisted of 39 teachers who had not taken a parent involvement course. According to quantitative measures including an ANOVA analysis the results showed minimal differences between the groups. However, the qualitative results reported that the teachers in the treatment group engaged with families in creative, and less standardized levels of involvement in comparison to the members of the control group. In addition, the treatment group members stated the benefits and importance of collaboration between home and school however, the control group members expressed antagonism and ambivalence regarding the families.

In addition to teacher training, in-service teacher education programs also have an impact on teachers' beliefs regarding parents and their involvement. In the research presented by Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones & Reed (2002) developed the Teachers Involving Parents in-service teacher-education program. This program aimed to

increase participant elementary and middle school teachers' beliefs, skills and strategies related to parental involvement. In addition, there was a goal to strengthen teaching efficacy and teachers' beliefs regarding parents' efficacy to help their children' learning. Two public schools participated in the study. Quantitative and qualitative data analysis results revealed that both participating (n=40) and non-participating (n=23) teachers of this program had higher parent involvement beliefs at the beginning of the study, and no significant gains were reported for both groups in terms of parent involvement beliefs after in-service program. However, this program provided a significant increase especially in participant teachers' teaching efficacy, and their beliefs about parent efficacy to help their children's learning and practices of involvement.

Despite the positive impact of teacher training and in-service teacher education programs' on teachers' beliefs and practices related to parent and parent involvement, Barnyak & McNelly (2009) determined that there is inconsistency between their beliefs and practices related to parent involvement according to result of. They investigated teachers' and administrators' practices and beliefs regarding parent involvement. The participants were 3700 elementary school teachers and 300 administrators. "The Parent Involvement Inventory" was used to collect the data. T-test analysis showed that there is an inconsistency between practices and beliefs of teachers and administrators. Although they have strong beliefs on parent involvement practices and its importance, their practices are not consistent with their beliefs. They do not implement their beliefs in practice.

In order to describe the barriers to parent involvement in children's education, Williams & Sanchez (2011) conducted in-depth interviews with parents and school personnel in an African-American inner-city high school. Two semi-structured interview protocols were developed containing four sections; conceptualizations of parental involvement, home-school interactions, and strengths and weaknesses of home-school communication. In total, 25 in-depth interviews were conducted in the study, and participants indicated that although some parents want to be involved, they faced a variety of barriers. In the results, the four themes of parent involvement barriers

were described as; time poverty, lack of access meaning difficulty in gaining access to the school, lack of financial resources, and lack of awareness in that parents were not familiar with school policies. Moreover, school personnel also viewed parents as lacking knowledge concerning what school personnel could or could not do in parent-school collaboration. Parents and school personnel proposed the following three main elements that could minimize the barriers; involvement opportunities, incentives and effective communication.

Similar to the work of Williams & Sanchez (2011), Savacool (2011) conducted a study in order to determine the barriers which parents face, and define difficulties facing teachers. In the literature, there was little research focusing on helping teachers examine why parents do not choose to be involved in their child's education. For this purpose, Savacool used questionnaires and interviews to collect the data. Parents and teachers from a New York child care center participated in the study. The factors which contribute to parent-school relationships were described as follows: social economic background, parental involvement, school attendance, school influences, individual and family influences, and teacher/parent communication. The results revealed that all the teachers agreed on the necessity of creating a strong bond between teachers and parents. However, both teachers and parents stated that there is not enough time to build a strong bond due to work, family and other commitments.

In another study, Mahmood (2013) examined preschool and kindergarten teachers' views on working with parents in their first year of teaching. In particular, the focus of the study was the concerns of teachers. Data was collected from interviews that were conducted with 14 first-year teachers in New Zealand. According to the results of the interviews, the main finding was that parental involvement is a challenging issue for early childhood teachers. The findings reflected the following four constructs of; lack of reciprocity that refers to not mutual experiences of new teachers in reaching parents, difficulties of building relationships that refers to difficulty of connection, power-dependence that refers to inequality in relationships, and the social identity of early childhood teachers which refers to their perception of the social status of their profession. The results also revealed that parents are not responsive despite the efforts

of the teachers. In relation to this problem, it was stated that in teacher education presenting the ideal relationship between the teachers and parents is not sufficient. It was suggested that the reality of practice should be reflected, and challenges of working with families should be part of teacher education to provide new teachers' with success in this area of teaching.

Radzi, Razak & Sukor (2010) also aimed to reveal the perception and concerns of primary school teachers related to encouraging parent participation in school in order to improve students' academic achievement. A furthermore aim was to determine the aspect(s) of parent involvement favored by parents from the teachers' perspective. A questionnaire was developed based on Epstein's parent involvement model, and the sample consisted of 60 respondents. The results revealed that participants had a satisfactory level of parent involvement, and parenting and communication were the most preferred involvement types by them. It was also found that in the view of teachers, communication was the most favored type of involvement.

The dissertation written by Ladner (2003) had a different purpose, which was to examine parents' and teachers' perceptions of parent involvement and their understanding of parent involvement at home and school. Furthermore, Ladner (2003) aimed to determine whether there was a difference between their perceptions. Data was collected through a survey consisting of 6 open-ended questions, and applied to 780 parents and 57 teachers. From the results of the data analysis, a gap was found between the perceptions of parents and teachers. In other words, it was found that the parents' parent involvement perception is broader than that of the teachers. Both parents and teachers thought that parent involvement is related to school. However; according to the parents, activities at home and in the community were also related to parent involvement. In addition, this study also revealed that teachers were aware of the barriers which parents faced, and busy working hours were the most frequently mentioned barrier.

2.6.3. Studies Conducted in Turkey with Pre-service Teachers

Ahioğlu-Lindberg (2014) aimed to examine the opinions of pre-service teachers on parent involvement. 520 fourth year students from primary education department and

subject teaching programs participated in the study. A parent involvement survey developed by Epstein & Dauber and adapted into Turkish by the researcher was used to collect the data. The results indicated that all the participant pre-service teachers from different departments had positive opinions towards parent involvement with the pre-service primary teachers had more positive opinions in all dimensions compared to others in all dimensions. It was also found that pre-service subject teachers working with secondary level students had limited knowledge and less positive views on the issue. According to all the participants, parent involvement was not supported in schools for different reasons originated from both teachers and families. Although pre-service primary teachers mostly mentioned teacher based factors as obstacles, pre-service subject teachers mostly mentioned family based factors. Teacher based obstacles include number of working hours, unwillingness to engage family intervention, not understanding the importance of participation, escaping from professional responsibilities that parent involvement is seen as a part of it, and low motivation to pursue a teaching career. On the other hand, family based factors include not being concerned with parent involvement activities, low education level, and being busy with work.

In another study, Cevher-Kalburan (2014) investigated the concerns and solutions of pre-service teachers on different areas including parents. 100 early childhood pre-service teachers participated in the study. The participants were asked to respond to two open-ended questions sent via e-mail, and to gain more in-depth information interviews were conducted with six participants. The results revealed that pre-service teachers had concerns related to communication with and attitudes of parents. In relation to the former the participants indicated concerns on establishing effective contact with parents, and they suggested using body language and being cheerful to resolve this concern. In relation to the negative attitudes of parents, the teachers also suggested adopting a positive approach towards parents, and maintain frequent contact with them.

2.6.4. Studies Conducted in Turkey with In-service Teachers

Various studies were conducted with in-service teachers in order to investigate their views, opinions, attitudes, implementations and barrier perceptions concerning parent involvement. In one of these studies, İnal (2006) examined the frequency of activities applied in schools by means of the “Family-School-Community Collaboration Evaluation Form”, and examined the views of in-service teachers regarding parent involvement in schools using the “Evaluation of Parent-School Collaboration to Education Form” developed by researcher to collect the data. 81 teachers participated in the study, and results revealed that although teachers accepted the benefits of parent involvement, they were deficient in the methods and activities to implement parent involvement. Teachers generally organized meetings to inform parents about their children’s academic progress, but home visits were conducted less frequently. Moreover, teachers stated that they contacted parents when there was a problem related to child. Therefore, it was concluded that parent participation was insufficient in schools.

Erdoğan & Demirkasımoğlu (2010) also investigated the views of teachers on parent involvement but integrated administrators’ views into their research. Interviews were conducted with 10 teachers and 10 administrators to collect the data. The results revealed that both teachers and administrators agreed on the necessity of integrating parents in the education process but they were not able to show this sensitivity in the implementation. The participants’ reason was that the parents were passive and unwilling to engage in parent involvement activities. Parent involvement was limited to parents’ coming to school and obtaining information about their children from the teacher or participating in meetings in the school. In relation to this, it was also stated the most important reason for parents’ non-involvement were negative attitudes of both teachers and parents. To sum up, this study concluded that effort are not expended in schools by teachers and administrators in order to overcome barriers and increase the involvement of parents.

In another study, Akkaya (2007) investigated the opinions of teachers and parents regarding family involvement activities implemented in preschools. In order to collect

the data, interviews were conducted with 25 preschool teachers and 25 parents. It was found that there was an overlap between the opinions of the teachers and parents regarding family involvement activities. Both teachers and parents were pleased to become part of family involvement activities. However, it was found that teachers benefit more from activities which include parents in class but parents are more involved in out of class activities. Moreover, teachers expect to increase parent involvement and engage fathers in the process, but parents expect the involvement process to contain the implementation of a variety of activities.

Kaya (2007) examined the attitudes of preschool teachers towards parent involvement. She investigated whether there were differences between the attitudes of preschool teachers in public and private schools towards parent involvement. She also investigated the impact of different factors on teachers' attitudes. These factors were; school type, educational level, graduated program, experience, income, number of students, age group, taking course on parent involvement and preparation for parent involvement by means of course/s, in-service education, sending school newsletters, and frequency of sending these publications. Additionally, she examined whether there were differences in attitudes of teachers with respect to different self-efficacy levels. *The Attitudes of Teachers towards Parent Involvement Scale* was used to collect the data, and 161 preschool teachers from public schools and 121 preschool teachers from private schools participated in the study. The results revealed that there was no difference between the attitudes of public and private school teachers. In addition, it was shown that graduated program, income, number of children, preparation through courses and in-service training did not have an impact on teachers' attitudes towards parent involvement. However, there was a significant difference based on the self-efficacy level of teachers. Teachers with higher self-efficacy beliefs had more positive attitudes towards parent involvement.

Taking a different purpose, Demircan (2012) examined the relationship among preschool teachers' and preschoolers' parents' developmentally appropriate practice (DAP) and developmentally inappropriate practice (DIP) beliefs in relation to parental involvement attitudes and the perceived parental involvement barriers. Data was

collected from 279 teachers and 589 parents. *Teachers' Beliefs Scale (TBS)* and *Parents' Beliefs Scale* were used to collect information from teachers and parents regarding their beliefs about DAP. *School and Family Partnerships Questionnaire* was used to report parents' and teachers' attitudes and the barriers on parental involvement. There was a significant relationship between the teachers' and parents' DAP and DIP beliefs in relation to their parent involvement attitudes (PIA) and parent involvement barriers (PIB). It was found that parent involvement attitudes and parent involvement barriers were significant contributions to their DAP and DIP beliefs. Especially, PIA was found to be main predictor of DAP and DIP beliefs. In addition, it was found that teachers and parents have higher points on the parent involvement barrier scale. Thus, both teachers and parents have great barrier perceptions towards parent involvement. Although the teachers considered that the greatest barriers on communication including parents' acceptance of critical evaluations for their children's work and behavior, parents stated the greatest barrier in involvement because of the lack of care for other children in the family. Parents with other children have less time for involvement because they need to spend time with the other children.

2.7. Summary

This literature review chapter focuses on five major aspects. Firstly, a detailed explanation of general self-efficacy beliefs and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the relationship is revealed between teaching efficacy, self-efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement and parent involvement practices after reviewing studies. Secondly, definition, importance of parent involvement in children's education, and significant role and needed skills of teachers in this educational process is shown. Thirdly, it is highlighted that parent involvement is low level in practice, and this results from various barriers as described by teachers. Fourthly, pre-service teachers' preparation on parent involvement is explained in reference to various studies, Council of Higher Education teacher education program and National Early Childhood Curriculum (MoNE, 2013). Social cognitive theory and ecological theory are summarized. Finally, a review and summary is given of studies conducted with pre-service teachers and in-service teachers on parent involvement both abroad and in Turkey.

The literature review of the studies in Turkey shows that there is lack of research conducted with pre-service teachers on parent involvement, and no study has been conducted to investigate pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement. Moreover, the available research has not analyzed parent involvement in detail. This study has considered the important issues regarding benefits of parent involvement and significant role of teachers in this process and will contribute to literature through the investigation, in a single study, of pre-service teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement, perceived barriers to parent involvement and self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies. Figure 2.1 illustrates the relationships between the different elements involved in part involvement in early childhood education.

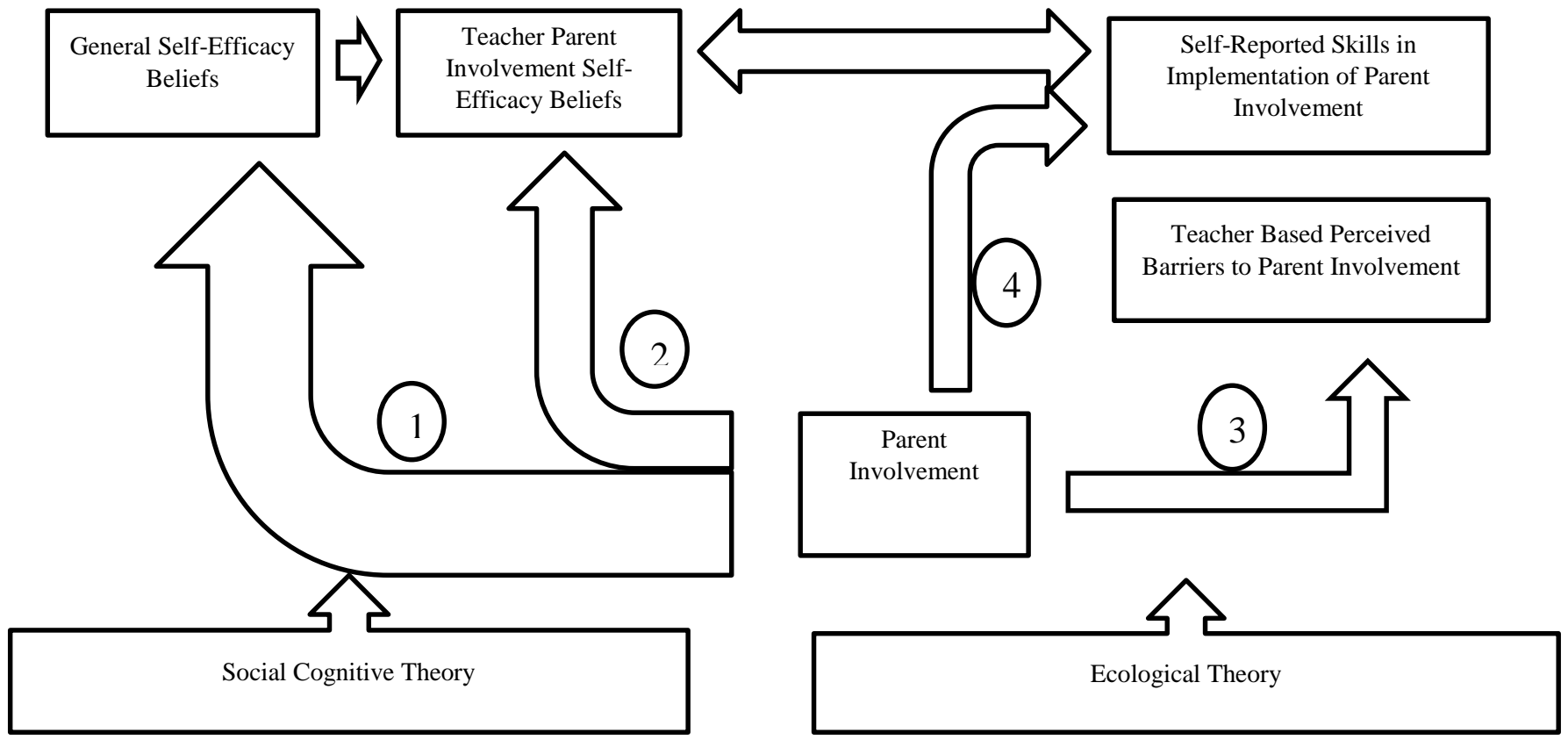


Figure 2.1 Elements of the Study

Note: 1-General Self-efficacy Beliefs, 2- Teacher Self-efficacy Beliefs concerning Parent Involvement, 3- Teacher Based Perceived Barriers to Parent Involvement, 4-Self-reported Skills in Implementation of Parent Involvement

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents how the data was collected and analyzed in this study. First, the design of the study, and then the population and sample are presented. Secondly, data collection tools, adaptation of the instruments and information about the pilot study are described. Then, the procedure of the study and the results of the confirmatory factor analysis are presented. Finally, data analysis is given and, the limitations and threats to the internal validity of the study are identified.

3.1. Design of the Study:

The main aim of the current study is to examine pre-service early childhood teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs, parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, perceived barriers to parent involvement, and their current self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies. In addition, this study investigated whether parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs differ with respect to taking a course(s) on parent involvement strategies. Finally, it was also aimed to determine the predictive impact of pre-service early childhood teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement on their parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. To achieve the aims of the study, quantitative methods and a cross-sectional survey research design were employed (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012), and the following research questions were formulated:

R.Q.1. What are the general patterns of pre-service early childhood teachers' general efficacy beliefs, parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, perceived barriers to parent involvement and their current self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies?

R.Q.2. Do pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs differ with respect to taking a course(s) on parent involvement?

R.Q.3. How well do pre-service early childhood teacher's general self-efficacy beliefs, and perceived barriers to parent involvement predict their parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs?

3.2. Population and Subjects

3.2.1. Major Characteristics of the Target Population

The target population of the study was all third and fourth-year pre-service early childhood teachers in Ankara. The aim was to reach the entire population defined as all third and fourth-year pre-service early childhood teachers enrolled in four public universities and one private university in Ankara. The participants were purposively selected for the study based on the criterion that parent involvement course was provided in the third year or fourth year in the chosen universities. Most of the target population of pre-service-teachers were willing to take part in the study, and data was collected from 601 pre-service early childhood teachers in Ankara out of 650 registered pre-service early childhood teachers. The data collection process lasted a total of 3 months.

3.2.1.1. Demographic Information on Pre-service Early Childhood Teachers

A total of 601 pre-service early childhood teachers participated in the study. Forty-three (7.2 %) were male and 558 (92.8 %) were female; and the ages ranged from 19 to 25. In addition, 321 (53.4) were third-year students and 280 (46.6) were last year students attending five universities. The numbers of students from each university are presented in Table 3.1.

3.2.1.2. Information Related to Parent Involvement

In addition to the questions related to demographic information, the participants were asked additional questions to identify their self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies in the early childhood setting. The first question was whether they had taken any courses on parent involvement. Forty five% of the participants responded that they had taken a course on parent involvement. Furthermore, 44% reported that they had a moderate level of skills in implementing parent involvement strategies. Table 3.2 presents a summary of the responses.

Table 3.1

Demographic Information of the Participants

Gender	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Female	558	92.8
Male	43	7.2
University	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
University A	78	13.0
University B	105	17.5
University C	251	41.8
University D	121	20.1
University E	46	7.7
Year	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
3rd year	321	53.4
4th year	280	46.6

Table 3.2

Information concerning Parent Involvement

Course Taken	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Yes	270	44.9
No	331	55.1
Self-Reported Skills	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
Very Incompetent	42	7.0
Incompetent	212	35.3
Moderately competent	263	43.8
Competent	74	12.3
Very Competent	10	1.7

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

Data was collected using a demographic information form and three main scales on *General Self-Efficacy Beliefs* (Yeşilay et al., 1996), *Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy* (Stuckey, 2010) and the *Parent Involvement Barrier Teacher Scale* (Demircan, 2012). The last scale is a part of the School Family Partnerships Questionnaire that was developed by Epstein & Salinas in 1993 to identify teachers' and parents' attitudes towards parent involvement and barriers to parent involvement. Detailed information on these scales is given in the following paragraphs.

3.3.1. Demographic Information Form

This form was developed by the researcher to gather demographic information about the participants. The survey consisted of multiple-choice questions to obtain information such as the gender, the type of high school attended, age, university, years in the department, grade point average (GPA), whether the participants took a course on parent involvement and did an internship. Appendix A contains the demographic information form.

3.3.2. General Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale

This scale was developed by Schwarzer & Jerusalem in 1979 initially to assess optimistic self-beliefs to cope with a variety of difficult demands in life. In other words, a general sense of efficacy involving people's beliefs about their capability to perform novel or difficult tasks was measured. Initially, this scale consisted of 20 items. Then, it was reduced to 10 items by the same developers in 1981. The items of this scale are not domain specific. For example, "I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough" and "When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions". This is a 4-point Likert-scale with one factor structure presenting the following choices: 1=Not at all true, 2=Hardly True, 3= Moderately true and 4= Exactly true. Later, the scale was adapted to 28 languages, and it has been used in many studies with thousands of participants (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). The Turkish adaptation of the scale was undertaken by Yeşilay et al. in 1996, who did not report on the reliability estimate. However, the reliability of the scale was computed

as ranging from 0.76 to 0.90 in several studies conducted in different countries (Zhang & Schwarzer, 1992; Schwarzer et al, 1997; Scholz et al., 2002; Luszczynska et al, 2005). In the current study, the Cronbach's Alpha value was found to be .89 for the current sample.

3.3.3. Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale

3.3.3.1. The Original Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale

The original *Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale* was developed by Stuckey in 2010 to identify pre-service teachers' level of efficacy towards parent involvement in education. This was a 6-point Likert-scale with the following choices: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Mildly Disagree, 4= Mildly Agree, 5= Agree and 6=Strongly Agree. The Cronbach's Alpha level of the scale was $\alpha = .83$. The original scale had two factors with a total of 11 items. The results of the Varimax rotated factor analysis revealed two basic components as the sense of confidence, which a person may have in completing a task, and the anticipatory belief, which addresses the outcome of the task related behaviors of a person. The first factor explained 51% of the variance and the second factor accounted for 10% of the variance. Examples of the sample items are; "I will be able to involve parents in the classroom" and "I will be able to effectively engage parents in fostering good studying and learning habit in children." Factors and items loaded to those factors are given in Table 3.3.

Stuckey (2010) categorized the pre-service teachers according to their total scores as having high (those scoring between 60 and 46), average (45-31) and low (30 and below) self-efficacy beliefs about parent involvement. The same categorization was applied to the Turkish version of the scale.

Table 3.3

The Rotated Component Matrix for the Original Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale (Stuckey, 2010)

Variables	Confidence	Anticipatory
1. I will be able to involve parents in the classroom.	.86	.13
2. I will be able to get parents to volunteer at school.	.83	.15
3. I feel confident that I will be able to get parents to volunteer at school.	.81	.05
4. I expect to be able to foster parents' participation in school related activities at home.	.55	.22
5. I will be able to engage parents to get involved in academic activities such as reading to children.	.50	.45
6. I will be able to get parents to trust my leadership.	.39	.19
7. I will know how to provide interesting activities for children	.05	.74
8. I will be able to effectively engage parents in fostering good studying and learning habits in children.	.05	.67
9. I am confident that I can clearly communicate involvement needs to parents.	.32	.66
10. I will be successful in engaging parents in educational activities.	.55	.58
11. I will be able to build strong rapport with parents that will lead to effective involvement.	.17	.48

3.3.3.2. Adaptation of the Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale to Turkish

For the adaptation process, first, the required permission was obtained from the developer of the scale through e-mail. Then, 11 items of the scale were translated into Turkish by two experts with an excellent command of English and Turkish. One of the translators was the researcher; and the other translator was a research assistant who

worked in another department and was blind to the scale. Translated versions were compared and 100% agreement was reached between the two translations.

In the second step of the translation, the Turkish version of the *Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale* was translated back to English by an expert from the English Language Teaching Department with an excellent command of English and Turkish, and who was also blind to the original scale. The differences between the original and translated forms were examined by the translator and the researcher as well as an expert from the Early Childhood Education Department, and changes were made to two items until an acceptable compromise was reached.

Finally, the translated scale was e-mailed to three experts from the Early Childhood Education Department with an excellent command of English and Turkish. Based on their recommendations, experts were asked to comment on the appropriateness of items in terms of both Turkish language and culture. According to the suggestions of these experts, final changes were made to the Turkish version and the adaptation process was completed.

3.3.3.3. Pilot Study

Before the main study, a pilot study was conducted with 200 third and fourth-year pre-service early childhood teachers from a state university located in the northern part of the Turkey. After obtaining permission from the university, the convenience sampling method was used to collect data. Data was collected in the spring semester of the 2013-2014 academic year. Then, the validity and reliability analyses of the *Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale* were conducted using the pilot data as explained in the following section. Summaries of validity and reliability analysis are presented in the following parts.

3.3.3.4. Validity of the Turkish Version of the Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale

“Validity refers to the appropriateness, meaningfulness, correctness, and usefulness of the inferences a researcher makes (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012, p.147)”. When selecting an instrument, validity is the most important issue to consider because a valid

instrument measures what it intends to measure (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). In other words, it provides the data, which is appropriate for and related to the purpose of the study.

There are different kinds of evidence that can be collected to validate research such as content-related, criterion-related and construct-related evidence. Content-related evidence concerns the content and format of an instrument; such as the clarity of printing, size of type, appropriateness of language, and the clarity of directions. Criterion-related evidence is obtained by comparing the results of instruments measuring the same items. Construct-related evidence demonstrates “the nature of psychological construct or characteristic being measured by the instrument” (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012, p.148). In the adaptation of the *Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale*, both content and construct related evidence was gathered.

The most common way of confirming the content-related validity of research is to discuss the content-related issues with an expert who has sufficient information on what is intended to measure with a given instrument (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). In the adaptation of the *Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale* to Turkish, each step was evaluated by different experts in terms of the language, cultural adequacy and format of the scale as explained in Section 3.3.3.2. Following the translation process, one expert from the Early Childhood Education Department of METU reviewed the translation of the scale and identified the items that were ambiguous in meaning or inappropriate for the Turkish culture. In accordance with these suggestions, the final version of the scale was completed as given in Appendix C.

Construct-related evidence was obtained by performing a factor analysis on the data collected using the Turkish version of the scale. Factor analysis has been defined as “statistical technique applied to a single set of variables when the researcher is interested in discovering which variables in the set form coherent subsets that are relatively independent of one another” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p.612). Therefore, the main purpose of conducting a factor analysis is to combine highly related variables

to convert complex data into a simple form. There are two types of factor analysis namely exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

The aim of the EFA is to “describe and summarize data by grouping together variables which are correlated” and the CFA is performed to “test a theory about latent processes” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 614). Since the scale used in this study was adapted to a new culture, both an EFA and a CFA were conducted to obtain evidence on the construct-related validity of the Turkish version. In the EFA, item total correlations of 11 items were investigated. The corrected item-total correlation values indicate the degree to which each item correlates with the total score (Pallant, 2007). Table 3.4 presents the item-total correlation for each item.

Table 3.4

Item-Total Statistics for Turkish Version of Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Statement1	47.46	55.270	.699	.918
Statement2	47.39	56.796	.650	.920
Statement3	47.31	56.132	.758	.915
Statement4	47.44	56.395	.718	.917
Statement 5	47.14	56.396	.719	.917
Statement 6	47.39	57.344	.690	.918
Statement 7	47.45	55.427	.752	.915
Statement 8	47.37	56.561	.666	.919
Statement9	47.40	55.420	.801	.913
Statement10	47.45	57.344	.617	.922
Statement11	47.47	57.387	.608	.922

Corrected item-total correlation values lower than .3 indicate that the item measures something different from the scale as a whole (Pallant, 2007). As seen in the Table 3.4,

all items have a high correlation with the total score. Therefore, the factor analysis was conducted with all 11 items.

There are certain assumptions that should be validated to perform a factor analysis. The first one concerns the optimal sample size. Regarding this assumption, Tabachnick & Fidell (2013), suggested that the sample size depends on magnitudes of correlations and the number of factors. A smaller sample size is enough if there are strong correlations and a few factors. On the other hand, MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang and Hong (1999) suggested that variables with communalities around .5, and those with a high sample size of 100 to 200, are sufficient to conduct a factor analysis. In the current study, only two items had communality values under 0.5 (see Table 3.5); however since these values were close to 0.5 and the sample size of the data was large enough, all items were included in the analysis. Therefore, it can be concluded that the first assumption concerning the sample size was validated in this study.

Communalities also show how much variance each item has in common with the other items. A value less than .3 indicates that the item does not fit well with the other items (Pallant, 2007). Table 3.5 shows that all the values were above .3, thus all items fit well with each other.

Table 3.5 *Communalities for the Turkish Version of Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale items*

	Initial	Extraction
Statement1	1.000	.573
Statement2	1.000	.510
Statement3	1.000	.659
Statement4	1.000	.608
Statement5	1.000	.608
Statement6	1.000	.567
Statement7	1.000	.653
Statement8	1.000	.532
Statement9	1.000	.715
Statement10	1.000	.457
Statement11	1.000	.448

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The second assumption in conducting a factor analysis is regarding the values obtained from Kaiser’s Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity. To conclude that all items are correlated with each other, a KMO value of higher than .60, and a significant value (less than .05) from the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity are required (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Table 3.6 presents the values obtained from the KMO and Bartlett’s Test of sphericity.

Table 3.6.

The Results of the KMO and Bartlett’s Test for the Turkish Version of Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale Items

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.915
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1299.399
	df	55
	Sig.	.000

As seen in Table 3.6, the KMO value was found to be very high, which indicated that the data set could be used for the factor analysis. Furthermore, the value obtained from the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant, which means that there is a high correlation between the variables of the scale.

After validating the two assumptions for the factor analysis, the principal component analysis was conducted as part of the EFA. This is a technique to identify which variables in the subsets are independent of other subsets and combined into factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The eigenvalue of a factor indicates the total variance explained by that factor (Pallant, 2007). According to the Kaiser criterion, items with an eigenvalue greater than 1 should be retained. On this basis, one factor in the principal component analysis (Component 1) was validated based on the Kaiser criterion (Crocker & Algina 1986), which explained 58% of the variance in participants’ efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement activities (see Table 3.7).

Table 3.7

Total Variance for the Turkish Version of Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.329	57.541	57.541	6.329	57.541	57.541
2	.997	9.065	66.606			
3	.740	6.725	73.332			
4	.661	6.007	79.339			
5	.457	4.159	83.498			
6	.400	3.637	87.135			
7	.374	3.402	90.537			
8	.321	2.920	93.457			
9	.277	2.515	95.972			
10	.249	2.263	98.236			
11	.194	1.764	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



Figure 3.1

The Results of the Scree Test for the Turkish Version of Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale

In addition to the Kaiser criterion eigenvalue, a scree test was performed since it was described by Costello & Osbrone (2005) as the best choice to determine the number of factors to retain. In this test, yielded factors are visualized in a scree plot, which includes a break point where the curve flattens out. According to Costello & Osbrone (2005), factors above the break point should be retained. As seen in Figure 3.1, the curve flattens out after the second factor. Based on the results of the scree test, only one factor was retained.

Factor loadings indicate the correlation between an item and a factor. The Component Matrix in Table 3.8 presents the unrotated loadings of each item on one variable (Pallant, 2007). Items load quite strongly (above .6) on the component.

Table 3.8
The Component Matrix for the Turkish Version of Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale

Component Matrix ^a	
	Component
	1
Statement1	.757
Statement2	.714
Statement3	.812
Statement4	.780
Statement5	.780
Statement6	.753
Statement7	.808
Statement8	.729
Statement9	.846
Statement10	.676
Statement11	.670

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

3.3.3.5. Reliability of Turkish Version of Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale

After obtaining content and construct-related evidence to validate the scale, the reliability of the scale was computed. The reliability of an instrument is related to the consistency of scores obtained using that instrument (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012).

The Cronbach's Alpha is the most commonly used method for the estimation of reliability. The Cronbach Alpha values above .7 are considered to be acceptable; however, a value of higher than .8, is recommended (Pallant, 2007).

In the pilot study, the total Cronbach alpha level for the Turkish version of the *Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale* is .93 for 11 items. This means that 93% of the scores represent the true scores. Each item in the scale was also individually analyzed in terms of its reliability. Item-Total Statistics for the scale was given in Table 3.4. The reliability analysis of the main study showed a Cronbach alpha level of .87.

3.3.4. Parent Involvement Barrier Teacher Scale

This scale was developed as part of the *School and Family Partnership Questionnaire* by Epstein & Salinas in 1993. The questionnaire was constructed in two parts; one contains 18 items to determine the attitudes of parents and teachers on parent involvement, and the other consists of 10 items to identify the barriers to parent involvement. The questionnaire is based on a 5-point Likert scale with following choices: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Agree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5=Strongly Agree. In 2012, this scale was adapted to Turkish by Demircan, who used the second part of the scale in her study to gather information about in-service teachers' perceived barriers related to parent involvement. Even though this barrier scale had one factor with 10 items, Demircan excluded one of the items (item 9) from her main study since this item was 'not applicable' (.238) according to the corrected item-total correlation test. In Demircan's study, the Cronbach's Alpha level of the scale was found to be $\alpha=.74$. After obtaining necessary permission from Demircan, this scale was adapted to pre-service teachers since certain items were only appropriate for in-service teachers. For example, one item from the original scale, "Most of the parents do not want to participate in school related activities", was modified as "It is not preferred by most of the parents to participate in school related activities". Two other example items from the modified scale were "Most of the parents are not capable of supporting their children in school related activities." and "Schools and parents have different aims for education of the children." A reliability analysis was conducted using the modified version and the Cronbach's Alpha Value was found to be .70 for the current sample.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure of the Study

Prior to the application of the instruments, necessary permissions were obtained for the collection of data from the Applied Ethics Research Center in METU and the Rector's Office of each of the chosen universities. In coordination with the administration and instructors, the researcher scheduled appropriate time over the three-month period in the fall semester of 2014-2015 academic year to administer the instruments to the third and fourth-year students enrolled in all participating universities. It took approximately 20 minutes to complete the surveys. The researcher invited the pre-service teachers to participate in the study in their own classroom environment, explained the purpose of the study and informed them about their responsibilities prior to the administration of the scales. The participants had the right to refuse to participate in the study at the onset or to withdraw from the study at any time. To ensure the anonymity of the participants and the confidentiality of the research data, the participants were asked not to write their names on the forms. The questionnaires were collected by the researcher immediately after being completed by the participants. All the information provided by the participants remained confidential and anonymous.

3.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using the Collected Data

After collecting the data, CFA was initially conducted using the LISREL 8.8 statistical program (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006). The LISREL output displayed the goodness of fit statistics that indicate how well the dataset fits the model. Brown (2006) categorized fit indices into three groups as "absolute fit, fit adjusting for model parsimony, and comparative or incremental fit" (p.82). The absolute fit category contains the Chi-square (χ^2), the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and the root mean square residual (RMR) indexes (Brown, 2006). Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger & Lind, 1980) is widely used in fit adjusting for model parsimony. Regarding RMSEA, Browne & Cudeck (1993) suggested that values lower than .05 indicate a good fit and those lower than .08 indicate an adequate fit; however, values greater than .10 should be rejected. Lastly, the common indexes for the comparative or incremental fit groups are comparative fit index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990) and non-normed fit index (NNFI) (Brown, 2006). CFI and NNFI values are

between 0 to 1 but values which are closer to 1 indicate a better fit (Brown, 2006). Furthermore, comparative fit indices can also be represented by the incremental fit index (IFI) and the normed fit index (NFI) (Hu & Bentler, 1995). In the literature, at least one index from each group is recommended since each group provides different types of information for the model fit (Brown, 2006). The chi-square, RMSEA, CFI and NNFI were evaluated in this study to interpret the results of the CFA.

3.5.1. CFA for General Self-efficacy Beliefs Scale-Turkish Form

It was hypothesized that the variables V1 to V9 loaded on the latent variable, which is the “general self-efficacy belief”. Figure 3.2 presents the hypothesized model.

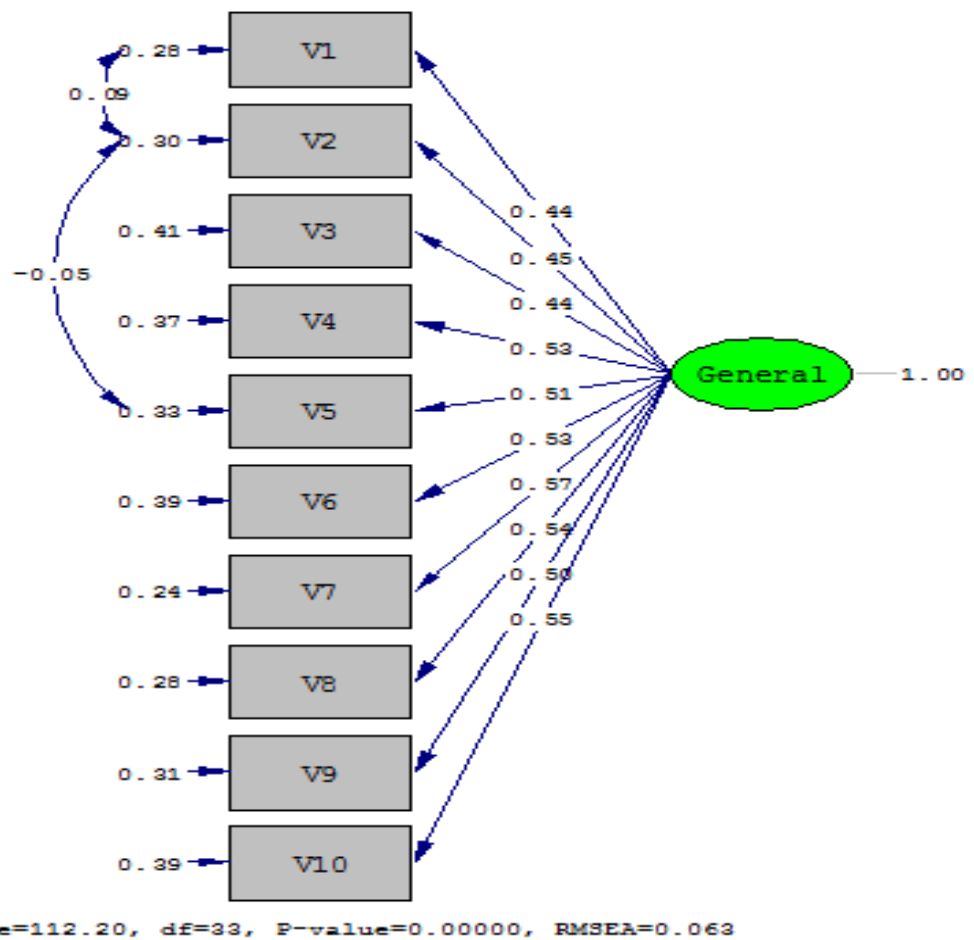


Figure 3.2. The hypothesized model for the 10-Item Turkish Version of the General Self-efficacy Beliefs scale.

Note. General = General Self-efficacy Beliefs.

The goodness of fit statistics between the General Self-efficacy Beliefs Scale and the dataset are presented in Table 3.10. Good fit values were obtained with an NNFI value of .98 and a CFI value of .99, both of which are greater than .90 (Kline, 1998). The RMSEA value was found to be .063, which is an indicative of adequate fit being lower than .08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The χ^2/df (3.4) value indicated a good fit because it was less than .5 (Kelloway, 1998). As a result, it can be concluded that one-factor general self-efficacy beliefs scale has a good fit.

Table 3.9

The Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of the Models for the General Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale-Turkish Form

Model	df	χ^2	χ^2/df	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA
One Factor	33	112.20*	3.4	0.98	0.99	0.063

Note. NNFI = non-normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

* $p < .001$.

3.5.2. The CFA for Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale-Turkish Form

It was hypothesized that the observed variables V1 to V11, loaded on the latent variable, which is the “self-efficacy belief concerning parent involvement”. This hypothesized model is given in Figure 3.3.

The goodness of fit statistics between the Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale-Turkish Form and the dataset are presented in Table 3.11. Both the NNFI (.98) and the CFI (.99) were indicatives of a good fit being greater than .90 (Kline, 1998). The RMSEA value was found to be .053, which was considered adequately fit being lower than .08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The χ^2/df (2.7) value indicated a good fit since it was less than .5 (Kelloway, 1998). As a result, it can concluded that one-factor self-efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement scale has a good fit.

Table 3.10.

The Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of the Models for the Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale-Turkish Form

Model	df	χ^2	χ^2/df	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA
One Factor	43	115.88*	2.7	0.98	0.99	0.053

Note. NNFI = non-normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

* $p < .001$.

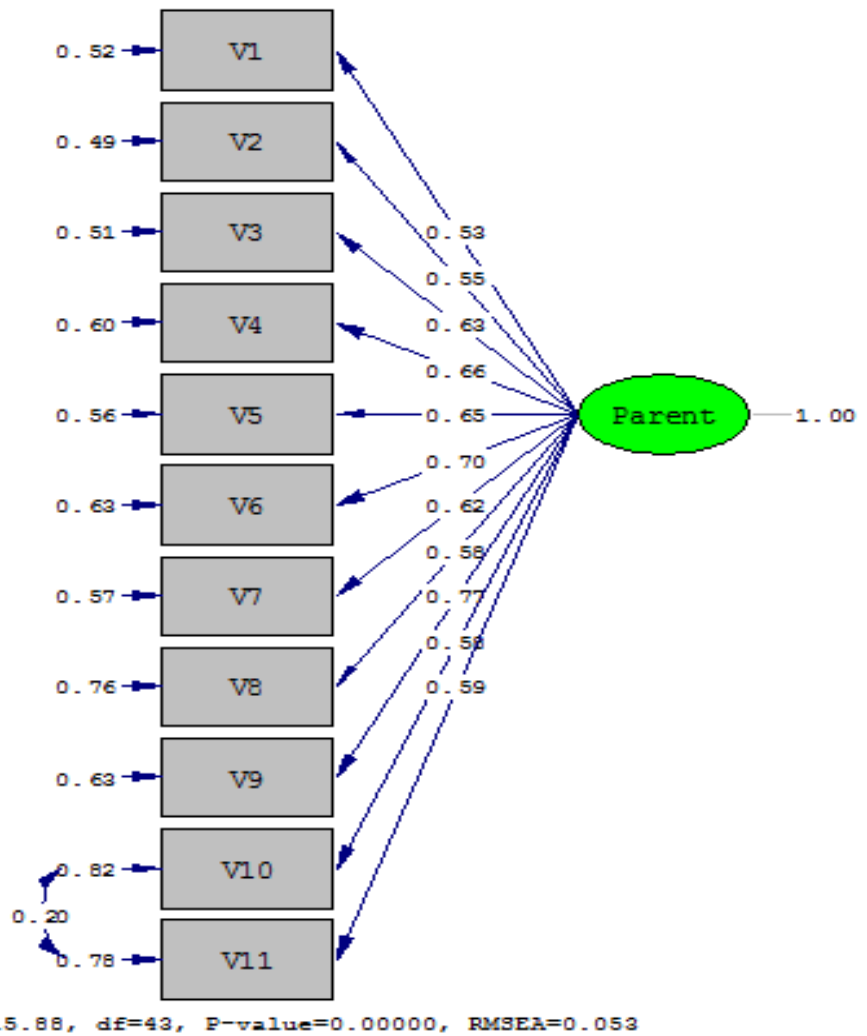
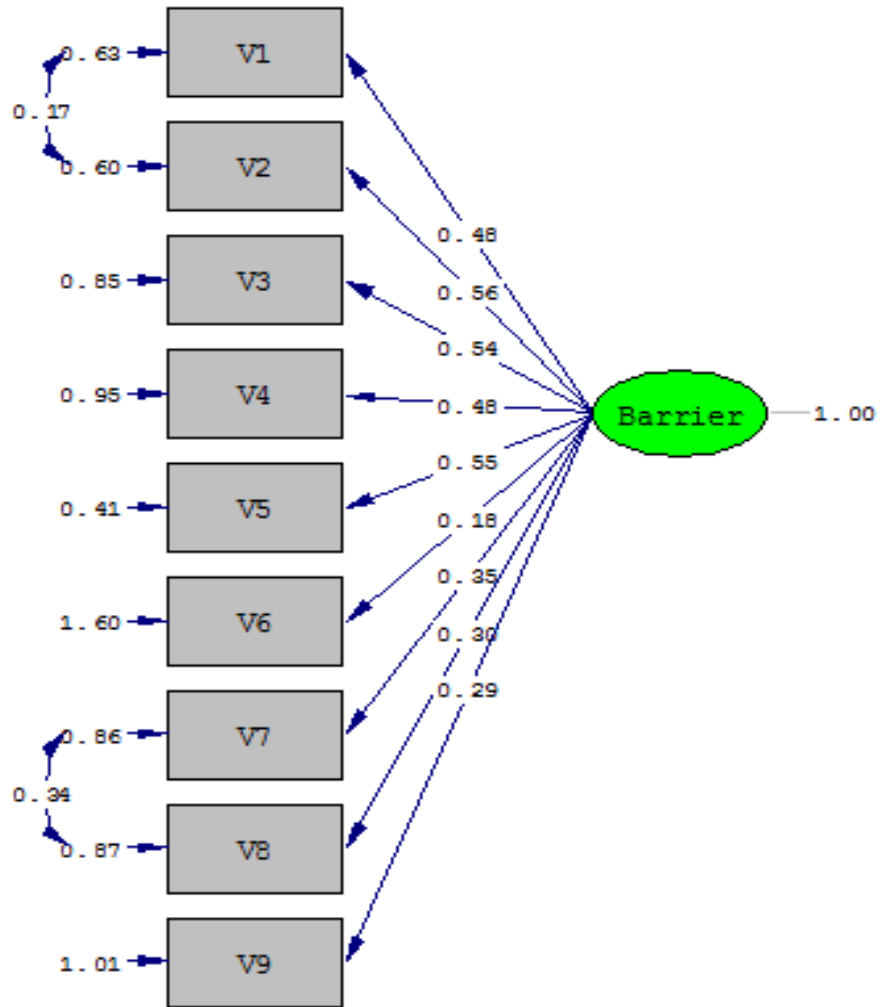


Figure 3.3. *The hypothesized model for the 11-Item of Turkish Version of Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale*

Note. Parent = Self-efficacy Beliefs concerning Parent Involvement

3.5.3. The CFA for Parent Involvement Barrier Teacher Scale- Turkish Form

It was hypothesized that the observed variables V1 to V10 loaded on the latent variable, “perceived barriers to parent involvement”. This hypothesized model is presented in Figure 3.4.



Chi-Square=61.85, df=25, P-value=0.00006, RMSEA=0.049

Figure 3.4. Hypothesized model for the 9-Item of Parent Involvement Barrier Teacher Scale-Turkish Form

Note. Barrier = Perceived Barriers to Parent Involvement

Table 3.12 presents the goodness of fit statistics between the Parent Involvement Barrier Teacher Scale-Turkish Form and the dataset. The NNFI and CFI values were both greater than .90 (.95 and .97, respectively), which indicated a good fit. (Kline, 1998). The RMSEA value was found to be .049 which is considered to be good fit being lower than .05 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Being lower than .5, the χ^2/df (2.5) value also indicated a good fit (Kelloway, 1998). As a result, it can be concluded that one-factor parent involvement barrier teacher scale has a good fit.

Table 3.11.

Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of the Models for Parent Involvement Barrier Teacher Scale –Turkish Form

Model	df	χ^2	χ^2/df	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA
One Factor	25	61.85*	2.5	0.95	0.97	0.049

Note. NNFI = non-normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

* $p < .001$.

3.6. Analysis of the Data

Prior to analyses, the dataset checked for errors and no error was detected. The SPSS 22.0 Package program was used for data analyses. First, a descriptive analysis was performed to investigate the general pattern of pre-service early childhood teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs, parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, perceived barriers to parent involvement and their self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies. These descriptive statistics provided information about the means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values. Second, an independent sample t-test, which is an inferential statistical test, was conducted to investigate whether pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs differed with respect to taking a course(s) on parent involvement. In addition, inferential statistics were used to investigate the predictive impact of pre-service early childhood teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement on their parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. To examine the predictive impact of these variables on the participants' self-efficacy beliefs

concerning parent involvement, a multiple regression analysis was conducted using the collected data.

3.7. Assumptions and Limitations

The participants were assumed to honestly respond to the items of the instruments and reveal their actual beliefs about general self-efficacy, parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement. However, two limitations can be given for the current study. First, this study was based on the assumption that the participants accurately responded to all measures. Secondly, data was collected only from the universities in Ankara, which made it difficult to generalize the findings.

3.8. Threats to the Internal Validity of the Study

Internal validity has been defined as, “any relationship observed between two or more variables should be unambiguous as to what it means rather than being due to something else” (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012, p.166). This means that the differences observed in the dependent variable should be directly related with the independent variable, and should not be related with the other unintended variables. Identifying possible threats to the internal validity of the study can help researchers design their study accordingly or minimize these possible threats. For survey-based research, possible internal threats are subject characteristics, mortality, location and instrumentation (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012).

According to Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun (2012), in studies, subjects are selected based on specific characteristics; however, the selected group may differ in terms of other important characteristics which can affect the results. This is one of the threats to the internal validity of studies. To minimize the effect of this threat, in the current study, third and fourth-year students enrolled in the universities in Ankara were chosen as the sample group assuming that they would have similar characteristics based on having similar ages and living in the same city.

Another threat to the internal validity of the study is the mortality threat due to withdrawal of subjects from the study or failure to collect all scales (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). In this study, to the increase the amount of participation, the researcher

administered the scales in compulsory courses. In addition, the data collection time was determined in accordance with the suggestions of instructors to choose the most appropriate time for the students. Furthermore, the purpose of the study was clearly explained and the significance of completely filling the questionnaires was specifically emphasized to increase the number of completed surveys. The participants filled in the questionnaires during the application time, and all the questionnaires were returned to the researcher. Incomplete questionnaires were excluded from the data analysis. Therefore, mortality is not considered a threat for this study.

Locations where the participants complete the questionnaire can also affect the results of the study (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). The researcher administered the scales to all pre-service teachers in their own classroom environment and conditions were similar in all education faculties. As a result, location was not a threat to the internal validity of this study.

Instrumentation can pose some threats to the internal validity of the study. One of these threats is instrument decay, which occurs when an instrument is changed or scored in a different way, instrument decay may occur (Fraenkel Wallen & Hyun, 2012). In this study, the *Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale* was adapted to Turkish but the original scoring was not changed. Furthermore, all scales were printed in the same format to ease the scoring process. Therefore, instrument decay was not a threat to the validity of this study. Another possible threat regarding instrumentation is the data collector characteristics (Fraenkel Wallen & Hyun, 2012). Since the same researcher collected the data, the data collector characteristics were the same for all classes. The final threat related to instrumentation is data collector bias. The data collector may consciously or unconsciously change the responses of the participants (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012). In the current study, the data collector was trained by an expert in research design in terms of what to explain at the beginning of the application and how to adopt a standardized approach throughout the application. In addition, there was no treatment in the application, which encouraged an interaction between the data collector and the participants.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In this study, three analysis methods were used to answer the research questions of the study. First, a preliminary analysis was conducted to ensure that the assumptions required by the analysis were met. Secondly, the descriptive statistics for the study variables were determined and an independent sample t-test was performed. Finally, a multiple regression analysis was undertaken. This chapter presents the findings of these analyses in detail.

4.1. Research Question 1: What are the general patterns of pre-service early childhood teachers' general efficacy beliefs, parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, perceived barriers to parent involvement and their self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies?

To answer this question, descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data collected using a demographic information form and three scales on the *Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy*, the *General Self-efficacy Beliefs* and the *Parent Involvement Barrier Teacher Scale*. Mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values obtained from these three scales and pre-service teachers' self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics

Name of the Scale	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	N
Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale	53.38	6.625	31	66	601
General Self-efficacy Beliefs Scale	27.41	5.353	11	40	601
Parent Involvement Barrier Teacher Scale	31.40	4.713	14	45	601
Self-reported Skills in Implementing Parent Involvement Strategies	2.66	.843	1	5	601

The descriptive statistics in Table 4.1 show that pre-service early childhood teachers had a high level of parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs ($M=53.38$) according to the criteria determined by Stuckey (2010). According to Stuckey (2010), pre-service teachers who scored between 46 and 60 have high self-efficacy beliefs. The results also indicate that pre-service early childhood teachers had moderate general self-efficacy beliefs. Even though there is no criterion to interpret the general self-efficacy belief scores, it has been recommended to examine the median of scores to make an interpretation (Schwarzer, 2011). In this study, the mean score for general self-efficacy beliefs was found to be 27.41 that is around the median of the scale (maximum score:40, minimum score 10), and therefore, it can be concluded that they have moderate general self-efficacy beliefs. Furthermore, the results obtained from the barrier scale were evaluated according to the median of scores as explained by Demircan (2012). The participants' mean score in barrier perceptions was found to be 31.40, which is above the average median of the scale (maximum score: 45, minimum score 9). Therefore, it was concluded that pre-service early childhood teachers had high barrier perceptions towards parent involvement. Lastly, the pre-service early childhood teachers were found to have moderately competent self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies ($M=2.66$) with respect to the means given in Table 4.1.

According to the descriptive results in Table 4.3, pre-service teachers do not believe in themselves when faced with discouragement from outside. For example: the lowest mean ($M=2.49$) was obtained from the item, "If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want", which was marked as "hardly true" by 46% of the participants. On the other hand, pre-service teachers believe in their ability to manage unexpected situations. This is indicated by the responses to the item, "Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations", which had the highest mean ($M=3.11$) and was marked as "moderately true" by 49% of the participants.

Table 4.4 demonstrates that pre-service teachers strongly believe that they can clearly communicate to the parents the necessity of being involved in their children's education ($M=5.05$, 70.1%), and they will get parents to trust their leadership in parent

involvement ($M= 5.00$, 74.3%). However, pre-service teachers were found to have lower means in terms of encouraging parents to volunteer at schools ($M= 4.68$, 60.8%). These results show that although pre-service early childhood teachers believe in their abilities in this process, they are not sure whether they will be able to ensure parent involvement in schools.

In Table 4.5, different barrier perceptions are presented. In terms of these perceptions, pre-service teachers obtained the highest score from parents' acceptance of critics and assessments about their children ($M= 4.05$, 82%). However, only 29.3% of the participants believe that the parents' availability in classroom has a negative impact on their children's education ($M= 2.65$). Furthermore, more than half of the participants consider that most of the parents do not want to participate in school-related activities ($M= 3.48$, 56.6%) and most are not competent to support their children in these activities ($M=3.60$, 60.9).

Table 4.2

Self-reported Skills in Implementing Parent Involvement Strategies

	M	Very Incompetent		Incompetent		Moderately Competent		Competent		Very Competent	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%
1. Current self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies	2.66	42	7.0	212	35.3	263	43.8	74	12.3	10	1.7

As seen in Table 4.2, most of the participants believe that they have a moderately competent level of skills in implementing parent involvement strategies (43.8%). Of the remaining participants, 42.3 % believe that they have incompetent skills for parent involvement strategies.

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics for the General Self-efficacy Beliefs Scale

	M	Not at all true		Hardly True		Moderately True		Exactly True	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1. If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.	2.65	31	5.2	213	35.4	290	48.3	67	11.1
2. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	3.11	16	2.7	95	16.0	294	48.9	195	32.4
3. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	2.49	34	5.7	279	46.4	250	41.6	38	6.3
4. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	2.63	49	8.2	209	34.8	256	42.6	87	14.5
5. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	2.77	12	2.3	181	30.1	334	55.6	72	12.0
6. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	2.74	28	4.7	188	31.3	300	49.9	85	14.1
7. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.	2.67	32	5.3	206	34.3	292	48.6	71	11.8
8. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.	2.86	18	3.0	161	26.8	309	51.4	113	18.8
9. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	2.63	41	6.8	222	36.9	259	43.1	79	13.1
10. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	2.86	24	4.0	164	27.3	284	47.3	129	21.5

Table 4.4
Descriptive Statistics for the Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale

	M	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Mildly Disagree		Mildly Agree		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1. I will be able to effectively engage parents in fostering good studying and learning habit in children.	4.99	0	0	10	1.7	9	1.5	123	20.5	296	49.3	163	27.1
2. I will be able to get parents to trust my leadership.	5.00	0	0	10	1.7	6	1.0	138	23.0	264	43.9	183	30.4
3. I expect to be able to foster parents' participation in school related activities at home.	4.96	0	0	13	2.2	4	.7	156	26.0	249	41.4	179	29.8
4. I will be able to get parents to volunteer at school.	4.77	1	.2	26	4.3	7	1.2	178	29.6	252	41.9	137	22.8
5. I am confident that I can clearly communicate involvement needs to parents.	5.05	0	0	10	1.7	10	1.7	160	26.6	180	30.0	241	40.1
6. I will be able to involve parents in the classroom	4.77	0	0	28	4.7	8	1.3	181	30.1	240	39.9	144	24.0
7. I will be able to build strong rapports with parents that will lead to effective involvement	4.84	1	.2	17	2.8	6	1.0	180	30.0	245	40.8	152	25.3
8. I will know how to provide interesting activities for parents.	4.75	1	.2	27	4.5	12	2.0	181	30.1	241	40.1	139	23.1
9. I feel confident that I will be able to get parents to volunteer at school	4.68	1	.2	39	6.5	9	1.5	187	31.1	230	38.3	135	22.5
10. I will be able to engage parents to get involved in academic activities, such as reading to children.	4.80	2	.3	23	3.8	14	2.3	172	28.6	233	38.8	157	26.1
11. I will be successful in engaging parents in educational activities.	4.76	4	.7	25	4.2	12	2.0	177	29.5	236	39.3	147	24.5

Table 4.5 *Descriptive Statistics for the Parent Involvement Barrier Teacher Scale*

	M	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1. Most of the parent are not competent to support their children in school related issues or lessons.	3.60	9	1.5	68	11.3	158	26.3	288	47.9	78	13.0
2. Most of the parents do not want to participate in school related activities.	3.48	11	1.8	97	16.1	153	25.5	274	45.6	66	11.0
3. Most of the parents work a lot not to be able to have a role in their children's education.	3.25	31	5.2	127	21.1	160	26.6	228	37.9	55	9.2
4. Most of the parents are not informed about school policies.	3.41	25	4.2	107	17.8	142	23.6	250	41.6	77	12.8
5. Most of the parents have difficulty in accepting critics and assessments about their children.	4.05	7	1.2	28	4.7	73	12.1	314	52.2	179	29.8
6. Availability of the parents in classroom affects children's education negatively.	2.65	134	22.3	169	28.1	128	21.3	115	19.1	55	9.2
7. Absence of a person at home who cares with children and others decrease the parent involvement level.	3.73	14	2.3	61	10.1	119	19.8	286	47.6	121	20.1
8. Inadequacy of transportation decrease the parent involvement level.	3.78	15	2.5	57	9.5	97	16.1	306	50.9	126	21.0
9. Parents and schools have different aims about child development and education.	3.45	22	3.7	99	16.5	152	25.3	240	39.9	88	14.6

All these results indicate that although pre-service teachers understand the significance of parent involvement and have high self-efficacy beliefs to implement it, they do not think they have very competent skills in implementing parent involvement strategies. Moreover, they have a high barrier perceptions regarding parent involvement.

The pre-service teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs was found to be high with an average score of 53.38. Based on Stuckey's criteria, parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers' were considered to be high in 89% and average in 11% of the participants (Figure 4.1 and Table 4.6). No participants were included in the low level of self-efficacy belief since none of the participants equal to or lower than 30.

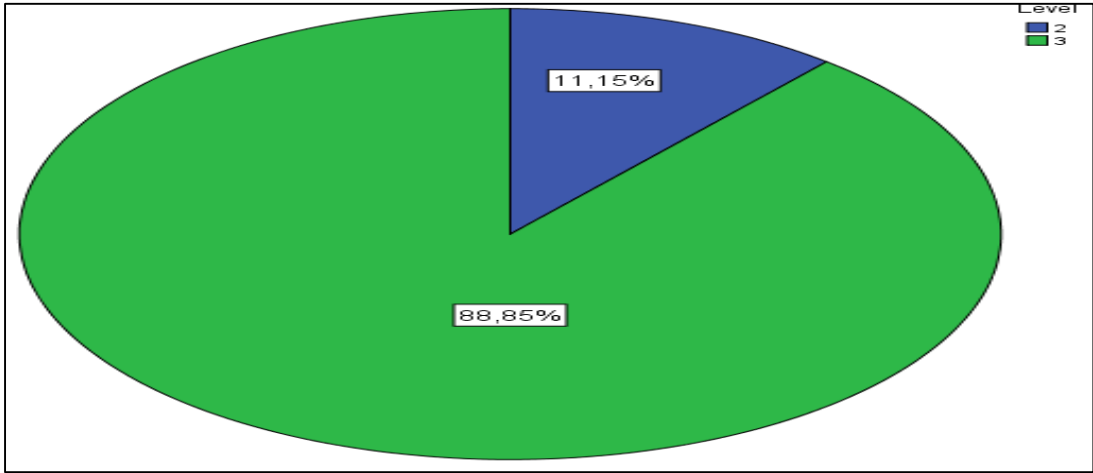


Figure 4.1

Percentages and levels of the pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs

Level 2 (shown in blue): Average level of self-efficacy beliefs

Level 3 (shown in green): High level of self-efficacy beliefs

Table 4.6

Percentages and levels of the pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs

Categories	f	%
2 (average)	67	11.1
3 (high)	534	88.9

4.2. Research Question 2: Do parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service early childhood teachers differ with respect to taking course on parent involvement?

To investigate this research question, an independent sample t-test was performed. In this analysis, mean score on continuous variable is compared for the subjects of two different groups (Pallant, 2007). In the present study, there is one dependent variable, which is parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. The two different groups of pre-service teachers are those who took a parent involvement course and those who did not. According to Pallant (2007), an independent sample test has five assumptions concerning the level of measurement, random sampling, independence of observations, normal distribution and the homogeneity of variance. Before proceeding with the analysis, these assumptions were met. The results obtained from the independent sample t-test based on each assumption are presented below.

To meet the first assumption, the level of measurement, the dependent variable must be measured at the interval or ratio level, and must be continuous (Pallant, 2007). In this study, in order to examine differences with respect to taking a course on parent involvement, the mean scores for parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs were used as a continuous but not categorical variable. This way, the level of measurement assumption was met.

The second assumption is that the data used in the independent sample t-test is randomly selected. However, it is difficult to achieve random sampling in most studies (Pallant, 2007). Since the entire third year and fourth year pre-service early childhood teachers in Ankara participated in the study, it was assumed that random sampling was not an issue.

The third assumption, independence of observation, means that the participants of the study are not influenced from any other factors and are independent of each other (Pallant, 2007). In the data collection process of this study, the participants' responses were not influenced from any other factor and therefore, this assumption was not violated.

According to the normality assumption, the scores of each group are normally distributed on the dependent variable (Pallant, 2007). In this study, the two groups for the independent sample t-test were those who took a course on parent involvement and those who did not. As presented in Table 4.7, the skewness and kurtosis values for both groups were between -2 and 2, therefore the mean scores were normally distributed in both groups (Pallant, 2007).

Table 4.7

Skewness and Kurtosis Values for the Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Beliefs regarding Taking a Course on Parent Involvement

Groups	Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Beliefs Score		
	Skewness	Kurtosis	N
Taken Parent Involvement Course	-.255	.499	601
Not Taken Parent Involvement Course	-.122	.347	601

Finally, the homogeneity of variance was investigated using the Levene's test of equality variance. As shown in Table 4.8, the result of the Levene's test was found to be .419 which is below the significance level ($>.05$). This indicates that the two groups had equal variances (Pallant, 2007).

Table 4.8

The Results of the Levene's Test for the Equality of Variances Results

	Levene's Test of Equality of Means	
	F	Sig.
Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Beliefs Score	.653	.419

After all assumptions were checked and no problem was found, the independent sample t-test analysis was conducted. As seen in Table 4.9, no significant difference was found ($t(599) = -1.80, p = .072$) in the mean scores in terms of parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs between pre-service early childhood teachers who took a course on parent involvement ($M = 53.82, SD = 6.76$) and those who did not ($M = 52.84, SD = 6.43$). Therefore, it can be concluded that both groups had similar self-efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement.

Table 4.9

The Results of the Independent Sample T-Test

T-Test for the Equality of Means						
t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of Difference	
					Lower	Upper
-1.804	599	.072	-.978	.542	-2.043	.087

The mean score of pre-service teachers who took a parent involvement course was calculated as 53.82 with the standard deviation of 6.76 while the mean score of those who did not take any courses on parent involvement was calculated as 52.84 with the standard deviation of 6.43. The results of the independent sample t-test revealed no statistically significant difference in the mean scores between the two groups. In other words, participants in both groups have high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs.

4.3. Research Question 3. How well pre-service early childhood teacher's general self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement predict their parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs?

For this research question, a standard multiple linear regression analysis was performed. In this analysis, there are a set of independent variables and one dependent variable, and the results reveal the variance that is explained by independent variables (Pallant, 2007). In the present study, there was one dependent variable, which is the parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, and there were two independent variables namely general self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement. Therefore, a standard multiple regression analysis was considered to be appropriate. Before proceeding with the analysis, the required assumptions were checked. According to Tabachnick & Fidell (2013), a standard multiple regression analysis requires six main assumptions concerning the ratio of cases to independent variables (IVs), absence of outliers among the IVs and the dependent variables (DV), absence of multicollinearity and singularity, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity of residuals, independence of errors, and absence of outliers in the solution. The results of the standard multiple regression analysis with regard to each assumption are given below.

The first assumption concerns the sufficiency of the sample size. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), the sample size should be $> 50 + 8M$, ($M =$ number of independent variables). Since there were 601 participants in the current study, this assumption was met.

Since outliers among the IVs and the DV have a considerable effect on the regression analysis; they should be deleted, rescored or the transformed before the regression run or using a residual analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In the current study, the outliers were deleted before the regression run.

Multicollinearity occurs when there is a high correlation (above .9) between independent variables, and singularity happens when one IV is combination of the other independent variables (Pallant, 2007, p.149). In the current case, the correlation between the independent variables was lower than .7. Tolerance Value and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) value also provide information about multicollinearity and singularity. Tolerance value less than .10 and VIF values above 10 indicate the probability of multicollinearity (Pallant, 2007). As seen in Table 4.10, all tolerance and VIF values in this study met multicollinearity and singularity assumptions. .

Table 4.10

Tolerance and VIF values for all independent variables

Variables	Tolerance	VIF
General Self-efficacy Beliefs	1.000	1.000
Parent Involvement Barrier	1.000	1.000

To investigate the assumption of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity; the scatter plot of residuals and the normal probability plot (P-P) were examined (Pallant, 2007). In the scatter plot, there should be a rectangular shape and no points should exceed +/- 3.3. In the normal P-P, there should be a straight line from bottom left to top right and a normal distribution on the histogram (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Figure 4.2, Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4 present the Histogram, Normal P-P Plot, and. Scatter Plot.

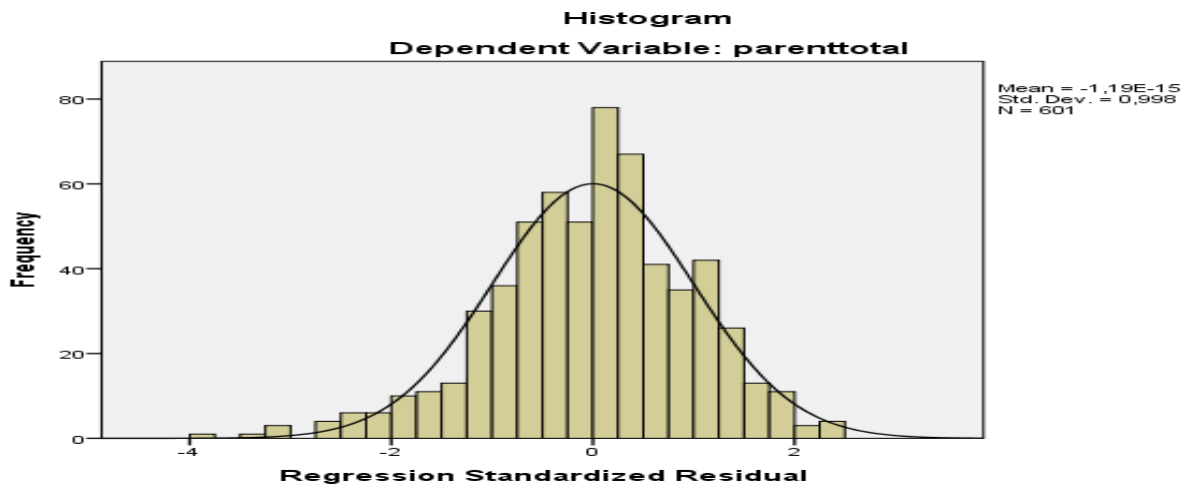


Figure 4.2

Histogram

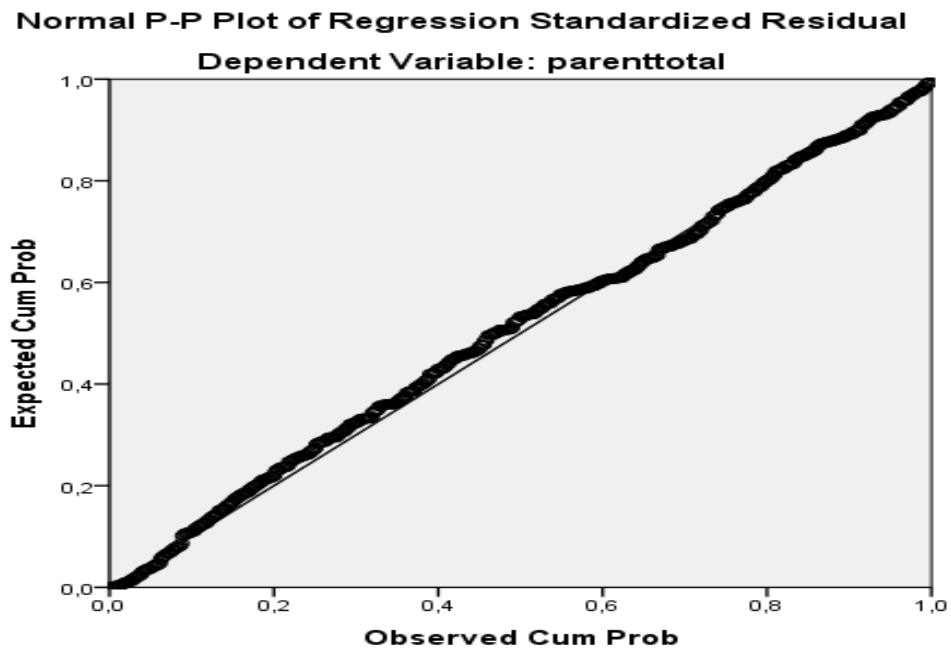


Figure 4.3

Normal Probability Plots (P-P) of Regression Standardized Residuals

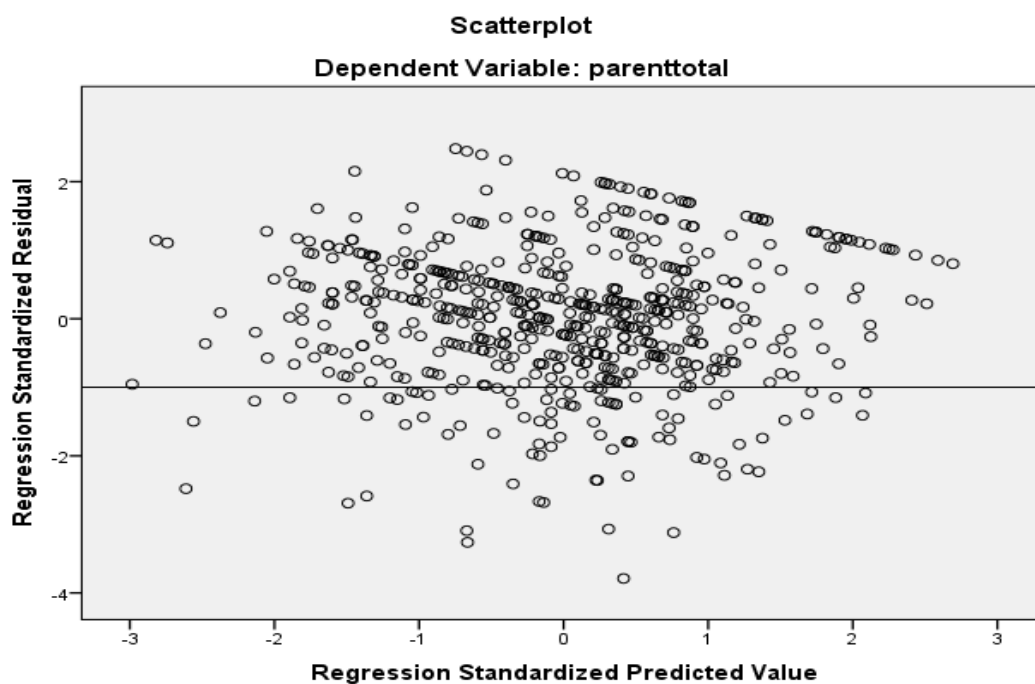


Figure 4.4

The Scatter Plot

Histogram, Scatter Plot of Residuals and Normal P-P Plot indicate no violation of the Normality, Linearity and Homoscedasticity assumption.

According to the independence of errors assumption, the Durbin-Watson values should be between 1.5 and 2.5 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In the current analysis, Durbin-Watson value was found to be 1.931, which indicates that the assumption was met.

The last assumption is the absence of outliers in the solution. Cases with large residuals are called the outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Outliers can be examined from both the residual plot (see Table 4.8) and by the analysis of the Mahalanobis Distances and Cook's Distances. According to the Chi-Square Table that provides the critical values for Mahalanobis Distances (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), the critical values for the current study is 13.82. In addition, the max value for Cook's Distance was found to be .030. As shown in Table 4.11, the results with regard to the Mahalanobis Distances indicate two outliers but according to Pallant (2007) it is usual to have a few

outliers in the stated sample size. Moreover, Cook's distances indicate no outliers in this study.

Table 4.11

Residual Statistics

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Mahal. Distance	.013	14.169	1.997	2.090	601
Cook's Distance	.000	.030	.002	.003	601

After ensuring that all the assumptions were met, the standard multiple linear regression analysis was performed to determine the predictive effect of general self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement on parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service early childhood teachers.

First, an ANOVA table was created using the outputs this table provides information about the significance of the model (see Table 4.12). According to the results of the ANOVA test, this model predicted the scores for parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs at a significant level.

Table 4.12

ANOVA Table for the Whole Model

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	5083.222	2	2541.611	71.523	.000
Residual	21250.282	598	35.536		
Total	26333.504	600			

Predictors: General Self-efficacy Beliefs, Perceived Barriers to Parent Involvement,

Dependent Variable: Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Beliefs

Pearson correlations were examined to identify the relationships between parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, general self-efficacy beliefs, and perceived barriers to parent involvement (Table 4.13). The results of the correlation analysis indicated a statistically significant positive correlation between these variables. The strength of correlation can be categorized as medium ($r = .436, p < .01$) for general self-efficacy beliefs (Cohens, 1988).

Table 4.13

Correlation between the Scores

		General Self- efficacy Beliefs	Perceived Barriers to Parent Involvement
Pearson Correlation	Parent Involvement Self- efficacy Beliefs	.436	.044
Sig.(1-tailed)	Parent Involvement Self- efficacy Beliefs	.000**	.142

** $p < .01$

The result obtained from the overall model was also significant, $R^2 = .193, F(2, 598) = 71.523, p < .05$. The effect size indicated that this model explained 19.3% of the variance in the parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers. The significant predictor of the model were found to be general self-efficacy beliefs ($\beta = .437, p = .000$). Perceived barriers to parent involvement ($\beta = .053, p = .146$) were not significant in terms of parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs when considered together (Table 4.14).

Although general self-efficacy beliefs were found to be a statistically significant predictor of parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, the model is very limited due to the small effect size ($R^2 = .193$).

Table 4.14

Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Belief

	B	Std. E.	β	Sig.
Constant	36.186	2.081000
General Self-efficacy Beliefs	.541	.045	.437	.000
Perceived Barriers to Parent Involvement	.075	.052	.053	.146

R=.439 R²=.193 F_(2,598)= 71.523, p<.05

Dependent Variable: Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Belief

The regression equation for predicting the parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs is presented below:

$$\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2$$

$$\hat{Y} = 36.186 + .541 (\text{General self-efficacy beliefs}) + .075 (\text{Perceived Barriers to Parent Involvement}).$$

\hat{Y} is the dependent variable (parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs); β_0 is the intercept before any response; β_1 , β_2 represent slopes for each independent variable. X_1 , X_2 represent the independent variables namely general self-efficacy beliefs, and perceived barriers to parent involvement, respectively. According to the results, the intercept before response (β_0) was 36.186. The standard multiple linear regression analysis in this study showed that independent variables that were measured accounted for 19.3% of the variance in parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs when all independent variables were included in the model (Table 4.12).

Adjusted R^2 provides information on how much of the variance in Y could be explained if the model had been derived from the population from which the sample was taken (Field, 2009, p.221). The IBM SPSS Statistics 22 program provided an Adjusted R^2 that is calculated with Wherry's equation but this equation has previously been criticized. Therefore, Field (2009) recommended using Stern's formula to

calculate the Adjusted R^2 as follows:

$$\text{Adjusted } R^2 = 1 - \left[\left(\frac{n-1}{n-k-1} \right) \left(\frac{n-2}{n-k-2} \right) \left(\frac{n+1}{n} \right) \right] (1 - R^2)$$

In this formula, n represents the sample size ($n=601$); k is the number of independent variables ($k=2$) and R^2 is the value which is the output provided by the SPSS ($R^2=.193$) (Table 4.9). After applying this formula to this data, the Adjusted R^2 was calculated as .187, which indicated that this model explained 19% of the total variance in the parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs when applied to a different dataset according to this formula.

4.4. Summary

The current study was conducted for the following three main purposes; to examine the pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, general self-efficacy beliefs, perceived barriers to parent involvement and their self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies; to investigate whether there were any significant differences in pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs with respect to taking a course on parent involvement; and as well as to determine the predictive impact of general self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement on pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs.

In accordance with the purposes of the study, the findings can be summarized as follows: First, it was found that pre-service early childhood teachers had high level of parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs ($M= 53.38$) according to the criteria determined by Stuckey (2010). Moreover, pre-service early childhood teachers were found to have moderate general self-efficacy beliefs. Despite the absence of criteria to interpret general self-efficacy belief scores, it has been recommended to examine the median for this purpose. The mean for general self-efficacy belief scores was calculated as 27.41, which is near the median of the scale, and therefore, it can be

concluded that the participants had moderate general self-efficacy beliefs. Moreover, it was shown that pre-service early childhood teachers had high barrier perceptions concerning parent involvement since the mean score for their barrier perception was found to be 31.40, which is above the average. Lastly, it was found that the participants had moderately competent self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies ($M=2.66$) with respect to the given means. Second, the results demonstrated that pre-service teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs did not differ with respect to taking a course on parent involvement. Third, the results indicated that general self-efficacy beliefs had a significantly predictive impact on pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. However, no significant correlation was observed between perceived barriers to parent involvement and parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The final chapter of this study is divided into three parts. First, the results of the study are summarized and interpreted in comparison with the previous research. Secondly, the possible implications are presented to provide ways of enhancing pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. Finally, recommendations are offered for future studies.

5.1. Major Findings of the Study

5.1.1. The General Pattern of Pre-service Early Childhood Teachers' General Self-efficacy Beliefs, Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Beliefs, Perceived Barriers to Parent Involvement and Self-reported Skills in Implementing Parent Involvement Strategies

In this study, pre-service early childhood teachers were found to have moderate general self-efficacy beliefs. Similarly, moderate general self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers were found in different countries including Germany and China (Schwarzer et al, 1997). General self-efficacy is the generalization of the Bandura's self-efficacy concept (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2004). Although self-efficacy is task specific, generalized self-efficacy includes generalized competence belief. It refers to individuals' viewing themselves as capable or not in order to perform demands in different situations (Chen et al, 2000). Since general self-efficacy refers to beliefs about competencies to deal with difficulties in a range of stressful situations (Luszczynska et al., 2005), pre-service teachers may thought complex and better judged themselves, and as a result they had moderate general self-efficacy beliefs to cope with such a broad range of situations. Moreover, moderate general self-efficacy beliefs of the participants in the current study indicate that pre-service early childhood teachers' moderately believed in their capabilities, which can moderately lead to success in their new endeavors (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998). Furthermore, general self-efficacy was also found to be associated with different positive psychological constructs such as optimism, self-regulation and self-esteem (Luszczynska et al.,

2005), and its contribution to self-conception was also reported to have a possible effect on teachers' performance in schools (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998). Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that pre-service teachers with moderate general self-efficacy beliefs are expected to be moderately positive and confident about different issues regarding their occupation.

Secondly, the results of this study have revealed that pre-service early childhood teachers had high level of parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs according to the criteria determined by Stuckey (2010). Since pre-service early childhood teachers are not offered enough opportunities to interact with parents, the possible source for their high self-efficacy beliefs can be the social models around them. Bandura (1997) suggested that modeling is particularly significant for individuals with less prior experience on which they can base their evaluations. These teachers can observe the available models to increase their confidence. Other possible reason for high self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers can be related to being unaware of the problems concerning parent involvement in education. Supporting this, Mahmood (2013) stated that courses provide strategies to establish a partnership with parents, and it is expected that parents would respond positively. However, in reality, this is not always the case. Therefore, not having experienced these problems in the pre-service period, pre-service teachers may have high self-efficacy beliefs about parent involvement. Similarly, other studies reported high level of self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers. For example, Pedro, Miller and Bray (2012) demonstrated that 83% of pre-service teachers felt prepared to work with families. In another study, Tichenor (2010) confirmed that both junior and senior pre-service teachers believed that they were prepared to implement parent involvement strategies. Having high self-efficacy beliefs towards parent involvement, pre-service early childhood teachers are also expected to undertake related practices in their classroom when they graduate. The reason underlying this claim is that confident teachers open their classrooms to parents, have regular communication with them and ask for parental support related to their work in class (Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones & Reed, 2002).

The other possible reason for high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs is the preexisting beliefs of pre-service teachers. They gain these pre-existing beliefs by

means of experiences gained through previous education (Hallingsworth, 1989), and they bring these pre-existing beliefs to teaching environment in their field experiences (McDiarmid, 1990). This influence was also called as an insider effect by Pajares (1992). Pajares (1992) called pre-service teachers as insiders since they are the students in education system and learn to become teacher as well as integrating their perspectives and existing beliefs. Moreover, in the literature it is also claimed that existing beliefs are valued more and not likely to change (Hallingsworth, 1989). Therefore, pre-service early childhood teachers' pre-existing beliefs may also be effective in their high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs.

In order to determine pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs "Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale" was adapted into Turkish. Although this scale consist of two factors in the original version as the sense of confidence, which a person may has in completing a task, and the anticipatory belief, which addresses the outcome of the task related behaviors of a person (Stuckey, 2010), it was found in the current study that this scale consists of one factor in the Turkish version. Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis were conducted to get evidence on the construct related validity of the adapted scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), and one factor was retained. One of the possible reason of factorial difference is that particularly pre-service early childhood teachers participated in the current study despite a specific department was not stated in the original study. Another possible reason is that this scale was adapted into a different culture, cultural differences may be another possible explanation of the factor difference. Researchers who are familiar with both language and culture have a crucial role to determine equivalence of construct between cultures (Hambleton & Patsula, 1999). In this regard, to overcome possible cultural differences, this scale was also examined by researchers, and it was concluded that content of items refers to one factor called parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. This may indicate that anticipatory beliefs that is stated in original version are not comprehend in Turkish culture. In other words, the pre-service early childhood teachers may believe in themselves to provide parent involvement but they do not anticipate outcome of events regarding parent involvement. Furthermore, higher education system in Turkey for pre-service teachers

may be the other possible reason for this situation. In parent involvement courses, theoretical knowledge is generally included. On the other hand, in Stuckey's (2010) study pre-service teachers participated in a workshop about parent involvement and then filled the parent involvement scale. In the content of that workshop, pre-service teachers have opportunity to practice parent involvement activities and think about outcome of activity process. However, participants in this study did not have opportunity to participate in a practical training on parent involvement. Therefore, it may be concluded that Turkish pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy only refer to their efficacy beliefs on this issue not including outcome expectancy that is the contribution of current study to efficacy theory regarding parent involvement.

Thirdly, it has been shown that pre-service early childhood teachers have high perceived barriers to parent involvement. The greatest barrier perception was found to be related to communication, which included the item of parents' acceptance of criticism regarding their children. This result is in agreement with the results of other studies that also reported communication as one of the greatest barriers to parent involvement (Erdoğan & Demirkasımoğlu, 2010; Savacool, 2011; Demircan, 2012, Cevher-Kalburan, 2014). Cevher-Kalburan (2014) demonstrated that pre-service teachers have concerns particularly about establishing effective communication with parents. In fact, communication when effectively established with parents can be a way to overcome parent involvement barriers. This was confirmed by Williams and Sanchez (2011), who stated that both teachers and parents reported effective communication as one of the ways to overcome parent involvement barriers. Here, the classroom teacher has the key role since they can adopt an open-door policy for parents (Savacool, 2011). However, the results of the current study showed that teachers have different perceived barriers to parent involvement, most of which are related to family-based factors. Similarly, Ahioğlu-Lindberg (2014) reported that pre-service elementary teachers considered family based factors to be barriers to parent involvement. The results of the previous studies can be used to explain the underlying reasons for this situation. For example, Uludağ (2008) found that pre-service teachers have positive opinions on parent involvement, and they have high self-efficacy beliefs

about parent involvement. Therefore, these teachers may not consider barriers to be related to themselves and they may focus on parent-based factors. On the other hand, since self-efficacy beliefs have an impact on how much effort is spent on difficulties and obstacles (Bandura, 1982), pre-service teachers with high self-efficacy beliefs will go to a greater extent to overcome these barriers. Furthermore, in the related literature the investigation of barriers has been considered significant since becoming aware of the barriers make it easier for teachers to overcome them (Keyser, 2006).

The fourth main conclusion of this study is that pre-service early childhood teachers have moderately competent self-reported skills in implementation of parent involvement strategies. According to Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy (1998), teachers' judgements about how they currently function are affected from their self-perception of teaching. In other words, teachers' efficacy may have an impact on their self-reported skills. In the current study, although pre-service early childhood teachers did not feel they had very competent skills to work with parents, they still had high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. Content of parent involvement courses could be a factor on this issue. This may be due to the teacher education programs focusing on cognitive components rather than classroom behaviors, skills and activities. Such programs are based on discussions, classroom readings, dialogues and classroom experimentation (Richardson, 2003). However, there is a lack of practical experience and as a result, pre-service early childhood teachers may expect stressful relationships with parents. In fact, communication is fundamental in parent-teacher relationship. A positive communication between parents and teachers improves the relationship (Mandel, 2007). This relationship between two microsystems of the child is included in the mesosystem of Ecological Theory, and that is asserted as significant in the healthy development of the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). Therefore, teachers need to have a variety of skills to establish this positive relationship and work effectively with parents (Hornby, 2011).

Also, this can be due to the feeling of inadequacy in working with families, which, according to Keyser (2006), is one of the barriers to parent involvement. Furthermore, in the OBADER (2013) booklet, parent education and involvement activities are explained in detail and different strategies are provided for teachers. Therefore, this

result also indicates the necessity of using the OBADER booklet in parent involvement courses.

5.1.2. Differences in Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Beliefs with respect to Taking Part in a Course on Parent Involvement

The data obtained from the current study was also used to determine whether taking part in a course on parent involvement had an impact on parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service early childhood teachers. The results of the independent sample t-test showed no significant difference in parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs with respect to taking part in a course on parent involvement. Contrary to the results of the current research, a number of studies reported such a difference. For example, Katz and Bauch (1999) concluded that pre-service teachers who had taken part in a course on parent involvement felt more prepared to implement parent involvement activities compared with others who had not. Similarly, Morris and Taylor (1998) found that course experience created a difference in pre-service teachers' comfort and competence levels in planning and implementing parent involvement strategies. Furthermore, Zygmunt and Fillwalk (2006) reported that course experience resulted in pre-service teachers adopting positive attitudes and improved efficacy beliefs in terms of being prepared to work with families compared with the other group who had not taken part in a course. Uludağ (2008) also found that teacher education program helped pre-service teachers to feel better prepared and have positive opinions about parent involvement. In light of these results, it can be concluded that parent involvement course experience is effective and changes pre-service teachers' perceptions and feelings about their level of preparation regarding parent involvement. The contradictory results obtained from the current study can be attributed to the content of parent involvement courses. Similarly, Denessen et al (2009), who found no significant difference in pre-service teachers' perception of their competency in parent involvement after teacher training, suggested that such parent-teacher partnership courses only focus on communication skills of pre-service teachers to prepare them to communicate with parents and neglect other important issues and lack empirical knowledge. Lack empirical knowledge on parent involvement combined with the absence of direct communication with parents can be other possible

reasons for the results being similar in both groups of the current study. This is also in agreement with the study by, which showed the importance of field experience in terms of contributing to the preparation of pre-service teachers for parent involvement.

In Turkey, there is only one compulsory course devoted to parent involvement and education in teacher education programs. There is no doubt that this course is one of the essential components of the program; however, one course is not adequate to prepare teacher candidates for implementing a variety of parent involvement strategies (Baum & McMurray-Schwarz, 2004). Moreover, in most of the chosen universities, this parent involvement course is given in the last year in the teacher education programs, which may delay the development of an insight into these strategies. Since the beliefs of pre-service teachers are formed over a long period, these beliefs have a strong effect on their approach to learning and teaching in classrooms when they first start practicing. Therefore, it is difficult to change these beliefs through a limited number of courses (Richardson, 2003) over a limited period of time.

The similarity in self-efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement between pre-service teachers who had taken part in a course on parent involvement and those who had not does not mean that the parent involvement courses were ineffective. In fact, both groups were found to have high self-efficacy beliefs about parent involvement. These high self-efficacy beliefs can be explained by considering their personal experience. This claim is also supported by Tichenor (2010), who conducted a study with beginning teachers and student teachers on parent involvement. In that study, beginning pre-service teachers reported that their personal experience (such as school career and experience in working with parents) prepared them for parent involvement. On the other hand, student teachers indicated that field experience and courses contributed to their preparation for implementing parent involvement strategies. Similarly, in the current study, third year students may responded to the questionnaire items based on their personal experience (both in their personal life and in teacher education programs). Supporting this argument, Denessen et al (2009) revealed the relationship between pre-service teachers' positive attitudes towards parent involvement and their personal biography. In other words, students reported positive attitudes towards parent involvement if their parents had been involved in their

education in the past. Similarly, Graue & Brown (2003) concluded that personal biography has an impact on teachers' both present and future practices regarding parent involvement. These research results confirm the significance of the contexts in children's development and future life as emphasized in the Ecological Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). On the other hand, fourth year students in the current study may have responded to the items based on course and field experience. This is consistent with the studies by Tichenor (2010) and McBride (1989), who both confirmed the significant impact of field experience on student teachers' positive attitudes toward parent involvement.

5.1.3. The Predictive Effect of General Self-Efficacy Beliefs, and Perceived Barriers to Parent Involvement on Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Beliefs

The results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that general self-efficacy beliefs has a statistically significant correlation and predictive impact on parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. On the other hand, no significant correlation was found between perceived barriers to parent involvement and parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs.

The correlation between general self-efficacy beliefs and parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs can indicate that teacher candidates with high general self-efficacy beliefs are also expected to have high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. This result confirms another relationship between general self-efficacy beliefs and the teaching performance of pre-service teachers. Since self-efficacy beliefs have an impact on the motivation of individuals (Bandura, 1982), pre-service teachers can be motivated for teaching when they have high general self-efficacy beliefs. This idea is supported by the literature, where general self-efficacy beliefs have been defined as a factor contributing to positive self-conception, which is considered to be an important impact on job performance (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998). In the literature, the relationship between teaching efficacy beliefs and parent involvement practices has been emphasized (Wu, 1995; Lan, 2013). Since general self-efficacy beliefs cover a wide range of beliefs including teaching efficacy, the results of these studies can also provide useful information about the relationship between general self-efficacy and

parent involvement practices. Wu (1995) found that teachers with high teaching efficacy beliefs frequently and efficiently used different parent involvement techniques.

The correlation between teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs and parent involvement practices can also be as a result of teachers who are confident being more able to establish a better relationship with parents (Chung, Marvin & Churchill, 2005). Implementation of parent involvement practices also indicates the self-efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement since self-efficacy beliefs have an impact on what kind of activities will be undertaken with parents and how (Bandura, 1989). On the other hand, current study results evidenced that although pre-service early childhood teachers have high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, they have moderate general self-efficacy beliefs. The possible reason is that since general self-efficacy beliefs refer to generalization of self-efficacy concept (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2004), pre-service teachers may better judge themselves. However, because of the fact that parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs is domain specific, and they focus on specific area and have high self-efficacy beliefs.

In the current study, no significant relationship was found between perceived barriers to parent involvement and parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. However, self-efficacy beliefs have an impact on motivation, and have a determinant role on how much effort will be expended and retained in the face of the obstacles (Bandura, 1989). Therefore, it can be concluded that although self-efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement are not directly related with perceived barriers to parent involvement, these beliefs may still predict how much effort teachers will be expend on overcoming these barriers. In the current study, pre-service early childhood teachers were found to have both high barrier perceptions towards parent involvement and high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. The greatest reported barrier was related to communication. For example, the barrier that was most reported by pre-service teachers was the parents' acceptance of teachers' critical evaluations on their child's work and behavior. This is also in agreement with Demircan (2012), who suggested that the relationship between the teacher and parents have a crucial role in overcoming this barrier. However, pre-service teachers frequently expressed their concerns about

the quality of parent-teacher relationship. They acknowledged the importance of parent involvement but, in general, still expected to have stressful relationships with parents and families (Baum & McMurray-Schwarz, 2004). Similarly, in the current study, despite reporting high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, pre-service early childhood teachers also had high barrier perceptions. On the other hand, these high self-efficacy beliefs can help pre-service teachers persist longer when faced with obstacles and make them more likely to overcome these barriers (Goddard, 2003).

5.2 Educational Implications of the Study

5.2.1. Implications Related to the General Patterns of General Self-efficacy Beliefs, Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Beliefs, Perceived Barriers to Parent Involvement and Self-reported Skills in Implementing Parent Involvement Strategies and the Predictive Impact of General Self-efficacy Beliefs and Perceived Barriers to Parent Involvement on Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Beliefs

In this study, pre-service early childhood teachers were found to have moderate general self-efficacy beliefs, which have a significant predictive impact on parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. General self-efficacy beliefs refer to individuals' beliefs in their abilities in order to deal with a variety of situations (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998). In this regard, generalized self-efficacy aims at having broad and stable personal competence in overcoming a variety of difficulties (Luszczynska, Gutie' rrez-Don~a & Shwarzer, 2005). In the literature, the significance of general self-efficacy has been emphasized in terms of increasing performance and motivation (Gist & Mitchell, 1992), and high general beliefs have been found to be related to greater success in new endeavors (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998). In light of this knowledge, it can be concluded that general self-efficacy can have an impact on both the success of parent involvement practices and parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, and therefore efforts should be expended to support these beliefs in pre-service years. Increasing opportunities for socio-cultural, artistic and sportive activities may help to increase general self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers (Çapri et al., 2012). Moreover, vicarious experience obtained through social models and verbal persuasion

improves general self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1995). Practicing teachers can provide a social model for pre-service teachers to improve their moderate general self-efficacy beliefs. Therefore, it is necessary for pre-service teachers to take, as their social models, confident teachers who are successful in their job and will verbally encourage pre-service teachers to achieve more success. In addition, parent involvement course instructors be a source of verbal persuasion for pre-service teachers, and therefore these instructors should adopt teaching methods that will encourage pre-service teachers to improve their self-efficacy beliefs. Since general self-efficacy beliefs and parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs are interrelated, improvement of general self-efficacy beliefs can also result in pre-service teachers believing in their abilities to promote parent involvement activities. For these reasons, teachers' general self-efficacy beliefs should be supported in pre-service years (Greenwood & Hickman, 1991).

Secondly, the results of the current study revealed that pre-service early childhood teachers have high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. However, this high level of parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs should still be supported through courses on parent involvement. In the literature, course experience in parent involvement has been reported to have an impact on pre-service teachers' competencies concerning parent involvement (Morris & Taylor, 1998). Moreover, trainings on parent involvement can be provided in different periods of teacher education to increase their self-efficacy beliefs. In this way, pre-service early childhood teachers can also be informed about parent involvement strategies through seminars, workshops and service learnings. Stuckey (2010) reported that workshops on parent involvement in education enhanced efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers on parent involvement. Similarly, Brannon (2013) found an increase in the knowledge, confidence and ability of pre-service teachers concerning parent involvement issues after service-learning. Moreover, to retain these efficacy beliefs as a continuation of pre-service education, ongoing in-service training can be provided for these teachers to respond to their needs (Katz & Bauch, 1999). For example, Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones and Reed (2002) revealed in their study that in-service training has an impact on the self-efficacy beliefs of in-service teachers concerning parent involvement. Therefore, in-service

trainings that particularly focus on OBADER (2013) can be designed for teachers to contribute to the comprehension and effective use of this booklet by teachers and to enhance their self-efficacy beliefs.

Field experience can also have an impact on improving pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. It has been shown that a mentor teacher's self-efficacy beliefs that are perceived by pre-service teachers have an impact on the pre-service teachers' own self-efficacy beliefs (Carter, 2006). In light of this information, it is reasonable to expect that mentor teachers have an impact on the parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers. Therefore, there mentor teachers should be in close interaction with pre-service teachers, and they should be provided with in-service training if necessary. To this end, there should be a collaboration between mentor teachers and universities. Moreover, mentoring can also be provided for pre-service teachers when they become in-service teachers to support and retain their high self-efficacy beliefs as reported in the current study.

In the study of Briscoe (1991) regarding science, pre-service teachers believed that their previous experiences could be source of their teaching. Furthermore, since educational beliefs of pre-service teachers have a crucial role in acquiring and interpreting knowledge, unexplored entering beliefs may cause old and infective teaching practices (Pajares, 1992). Therefore, pre-service teachers' incoming beliefs should be investigated for providing appropriate placement, providing information for their supervision and comprehending their learning (Hallingsworth, 1989) related to parent involvement.

Thirdly, in the current study, it has been demonstrated that pre-service teachers' high perceived barriers to parent involvement do not have a significant predictive impact on parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. Similarly, different studies have reported that both pre-service and in-service teachers have a variety of perceptions concerning barriers to parent involvement (Ahioğlu-Lindberg, 2014; Cevher & Kalburan, 2014; Demircan, 2012; Becher & Klein, 1999; Savacool, 2011; Williams & Sanchez, 2011). These barriers include feeling inadequate and less comfortable when working with parents (Keyser, 2006); negative expectations about working with parents (Canter L.

& Canter M. (1991); and lack of time (Savacool, 2011; Williams & Sanchez, 2011). In order to decrease the effect of identified barriers on pre-service teachers' perceptions of parent involvement, pre-service teachers can be informed about the problems and possible solutions for these problems in their education. Rather than simply portraying an ideal relationship between parents and teachers in courses on parent involvement, the challenges of working with parents should be part of these courses to prepare new teachers that are successful in managing this issue (Mahmood, 2013). However, one course would not be enough to incorporate all the challenges in parent involvement. In a study by Katz & Bauch (1999), pre-service teachers who had taken part in a course on parent involvement reported that they still felt the need for more preparation. This confirms that one semester is not sufficient for pre-service teachers. A number of courses should be organized to present the possible barriers to parent involvement as well as discussing the ways to overcome these barriers. If teachers learn the sources of barriers to parent involvement, it will be easier for them to overcome barriers (Keyser, 2006). Overcoming these barriers will also considerably increase parent involvement since school level barriers including teacher-based factors have been reported to have a significant predictive impact on parents' participation (Becher & Klein, 1999).

To reduce the number of barriers to parent involvement, Savacool (2011) recommended providing opportunities and incentives for such involvement, and effective communication between parents and teachers. This means that teachers' efforts have a crucial role in overcoming obstacles to parent involvement. Even though the current study did not reveal a correlation between pre-service teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs and their perceived barriers to parent involvement, teachers' effort and persistence in overcoming barriers is also related to their parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. This idea was supported by Bandura (1982), who reported that self-efficacy beliefs have an impact on the how much effort is expended and how persistent teachers are in overcoming obstacles to parent involvement. Therefore, it can be concluded that although pre-service early childhood teachers have a variety of barrier perceptions of parent involvement, they are most likely to expend more effort and retain more persistence in order to overcome them, particularly

considering their high self-efficacy beliefs. For these reasons, it is recommended to teach both possible parent involvement barriers and solutions to pre-service early childhood teachers, and support their parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs to increase their persistence. To reach this purpose, OBADER (2013) booklet could be examined in detail in parent involvement courses, and possible barriers and barrier solutions could be identified while practicing sampled activities in OBADER. Furthermore, this booklet provides a detailed explanation about activities related to communication with parents. Despite this, expectation of communication barriers by pre-service teachers indicate two points. Initially, OBADER booklet may not be used effectively in teacher education programs, and the other one is that possible communication problems and solution ways are not mentioned in the content of OBADER. Therefore, such a part can also be integrated into content while teaching this booklet in order to help pre-service teachers become more aware of the barriers to parent involvement.

The fourth major result obtained from the current study was that pre-service early childhood teachers had moderately competent self-reported skills in the implementation of parent involvement strategies. As reported in the related literature, belief is an important construct of teacher education and the primary goal of the teacher education is to change, develop and refine these beliefs. However, these beliefs are difficult to change in pre-service education period due to insufficient time and experience required to understand the significance of academic and skill preparation (Richardson, 2003). In light of this knowledge, it can be concluded that both beliefs and skills are interrelated with each other. The reason why pre-service teachers in this study had high self-efficacy beliefs concerning parent involvement but moderately competent self-reported skills in implementing parent involvement strategies may be the content of parent involvement courses in the chosen universities. Since investigation of the content of parent involvement courses is beyond the scope of the current study, there is a possibility that these courses only focus on theoretical knowledge on parent involvement rather than practices, and therefore pre-service teachers may not have felt very competent about their skills related to the implementation of parent involvement activities. However, with their high parent

involvement self-efficacy beliefs, these pre-service teachers can increase their confidence about their skills in the implementation of parent involvement strategies. In this regard, parent involvement courses should provide activities that will allow pre-service teachers to practice and demonstrate their skills. They also need to observe OBADER-related practices of mentor teachers in their traineeship, and be provided with opportunities to participate in such activities and have first-hand experience. This idea was also supported by Graue & Brown (2003), who recommended that students should be given opportunities in teacher education programs to further improve their theoretical knowledge through the experience of working with families in different settings. Similarly, Greenwood & Hickman (1991) suggested creating opportunities for pre-service teachers to contact with parents. The effectiveness of these recommendations has been reported by other studies in the literature. Freeman and Knoph (2007) found that pre-service teachers' competence and confidence of in working with parents increase when they are given the opportunity to directly experience it during their education. Similarly, Hedges and Gibbs (2005) underlined the positive influence of working with parents on understanding parenting and establishing a parent-teacher partnership. To sum up, these processes may also help two crucial microsystems of the child to begin to work together from undergraduate years and enrich mesosystem experiences for the benefit of the child as its stated importance in Ecological Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 2005). To this end, parent involvement courses could be integrated with the practice teaching experiences, and these courses could be taken before the last year since developing skills is not easy and necessitates long process (Richardson, 2003).

On the other hand, people with similar skills may perform differently for different reasons (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). For example, self-efficacy beliefs can play an important role in performing these skills. Bandura (1989) stated that both skills and self-efficacy beliefs are necessary for competent functioning. For pre-service teachers to be effective in implementing parent involvement, their high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs should be supported by highly competent parent involvement skills. Therefore, pre-service teachers' strength and weaknesses on their parent involvement skills should be followed. In this regard, a course specifically on parent involvement

skills can also be added to the teacher education program, and parent involvement also could be integrated into content of other courses like math and science in order to encourage pre-service teachers to improve their skills on parent involvement.

5.2.2. Implications Related to Taking a Course on Parent Involvement and the Content of Courses on Parent Involvement

It is necessary for pre-service teachers to acquire the knowledge, skills and confidence to work effectively with parents in the pre-service period (Tichenor, 2010). Different studies have reported on the importance of course experience in parent involvement in terms of preparing pre-service teachers to effectively manage parent involvement (McBride, 1989; Uludağ, 2008; Katz & Bauch, 1999; Zygmunt & Fillwalk, 2006). For example, McBride (1989) found that pre-service teachers who had completed parent involvement courses felt more prepared to implement parent involvement strategies. In another study, Uludağ (2008) confirmed that such experience helped pre-service teachers to become better prepared for parent involvement strategies. However, the results of the current study revealed no difference between parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers who had taken part in a course on parent involvement and those who had not taken. Therefore, the parent involvement courses should be further investigated in terms of their content.

In the current early childhood teacher education system in Turkey, theoretical knowledge is included in one compulsory course on parent involvement and there is no opportunity for field experience. However, one of the most important sources of teacher candidates' beliefs regarding teaching and learning is experience in schooling and instruction. Through such experience provided in the classroom environment, pre-service teachers can develop beliefs on procedural and practical knowledge (Richardson, 2003). From this point of view, pre-service early childhood teachers should be provided with opportunities to have direct contact with parents throughout the courses and field experience (Tichenor, 2010; Graue & Brown, 2003). Regarding this, Tichenor (2010) recommended that parents be invited to the class during course hours or pre-service teachers be required to participate in different parent involvement activities such as parent-teacher conferences as part of an assignment in the course.

With this practical training on parent involvement, pre-service teachers can learn how to put their theoretical knowledge into practice regarding parent involvement, and apply different parent involvement strategies to their teaching environments. This can also help them retain their high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs when they become an in-service teacher. Being better prepared in parent involvement, teachers can also use parental involvement strategies more effectively.

As explained above, theoretical knowledge on parent involvement is included in the content of one compulsory course, which is in the last year in most of the chosen universities. However, one semester is not enough to prepare teachers for parent involvement activities (Ahioglu-Lindberg, 2014). Rather than offering only one course devoted to parent involvement, the required knowledge should be provided over the period of the entire early childhood education program (Baum & McMurray-Schwarz, 2004). In other words, pre-service teachers should be systematically prepared for parent involvement activities over the pre-service years (Katz & Bauch, 1999). To this end, the scope of other courses in early childhood education can be extended to incorporate parent involvement. Moreover, the number of courses on parent involvement can be increased to focus on specific aspects of parent involvement. For example, the systems of Ecological Theory could be examined in detail and used as a tool to state the significance of the parents and collaboration with parents on children's development in the content of those courses (Bronfenbrenner, 2005).

Since teacher education courses focus on how to develop a partnership between school, family and community, new teachers are unfamiliar in their first teaching year with the problems they can face (Mahmood, 2013). Therefore, day-to-day practical problems and the ways to deal with them should be part of courses on parent involvement courses. In addition, these courses should include a broad range of information on parent involvement and education rather than focusing only on how to promote communication between parents and school. In relation to this, Graue & Brown (2003) recommended including the following items in the parent involvement courses: critical reflection on education and parents that is necessary to understand pre-service teachers' biography on this issue, content for diverse families, various practices to provide home-school communication, and field-based experience with families.

Among these, personal biography of pre-service teachers has been found to have a great impact on pre-service teachers' attitudes, competencies and feelings regarding parent involvement (Tichenor, 2010; Denessen et al, 2009). This is also suggested as one of the possible factors that may have had an impact on the results of the current study. Therefore, to increase the effectiveness of parent involvement courses, personal biography of teachers should also be reflected using different activities (Graue & Brown, 2003).

To sum up, parent involvement activities have a significant role in the early education years, and the current Early Childhood Education curriculum (MoNE, 2013) provides detailed information about the ways to involve parents in their children's schooling. In order to have more room for parent involvement, early childhood teachers are required to integrate parent involvement activities in their daily schedules and monthly plans. This requirement starts from teacher education years when pre-service early childhood teachers are asked to prepare daily plans including parent involvement activities. Therefore, mentor teachers and instructors in universities should collaborate with pre-service teachers to teach them the importance of effectively implementing parent involvement activities and give pre-service teachers the opportunity for first-hand experience. Furthermore, the OBADER (2013) booklet, is a guide for teachers that covers all the methods and techniques used in parent education and parent involvement including telephone calling, short message services, manuals, visual-auditory records, photographs, notice boards, bulletins, newsletters, correspondence, communication notebooks, development portfolios, meetings, school visiting, arrival-departure times, internet-based applications and suggestion boxes. This booklet can be integrated into different courses in the teacher education program together with related activities. This way, pre-service teachers can learn more about parent involvement before their last year, which allows them to be more aware about the issues concerning parent involvement when they take the parent involvement course in the curriculum and in their field experience. They can then implement parent involvement activities based on their course and field experience. Moreover, the integration of parent involvement into different courses can also help pre-service teachers to internalize parent

involvement and overcome negative associations they may have from their personal experience.

5.3. Recommendations for Future Research

In the related literature, there is limited amount of research on teacher's self-efficacy about parent involvement practices (Barnyak & McNelly, 2009). In the current study, pre-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs towards parent involvement were investigated, and pre-service early childhood teachers were found to have high parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. To have a deeper understanding of pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs, a case study can be conducted and semi-structured interviews can be used with participants on parent involvement to detect their strengths and weaknesses. In addition, since the data in the current study was collected using questionnaires, the participants may have not reflected their actual self-efficacy beliefs and may have chosen the options they considered were socially appropriate rather than their actual thoughts and feelings. Therefore, in-depth interviews can also be useful to obtain detailed information about pre-service teachers' actual parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs. Moreover, to understand the effectiveness of parent involvement courses, the same scale can be used in an experimental research design in which the results obtained from a single group is investigated before and after taking a parent involvement course. Also, content of parent involvement courses could be examined in order to determine strength and weaknesses of those courses.

It is suggested that practice teachers spend time with in-service teachers to observe them and learn techniques for working with parents (Greenwood & Hickman, 1991). Since in-service teachers are important role models for pre-service teachers, their parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs can also be examined in another study. Another related recommendation is to conduct a study to examine both pre-service teachers' and in-service teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy together, and compare the results obtained from the two groups. If there is a decrease in self-efficacy beliefs for in-service teachers, reasons can be identified and solutions can be offered to increase their self-efficacy beliefs.

Mahmood (2013) found that according to new teachers there is an inconsistency between teacher education programs and the real world of teaching related to parent-teacher relationships. Therefore, new teachers were dissatisfied with pre-service education. Therefore, despite having high self-efficacy beliefs, pre-service teachers may not retain this high level when they become in-service teachers. In this regard, examination of teachers' beliefs during their first year of teaching can be an indication of how effective teacher preparation programs are (Scott-Little et al., 2006). Therefore, as a follow up study, this scale can be applied to the same teachers when they become in-service teachers to determine whether there has been a change in their self-efficacy beliefs after this process, and factors that may have an effect in this change can be identified. In addition, interviews can be conducted with participants to get in-depth information on their self-efficacy beliefs related to parent involvement.

In the current study, pre-service early childhood teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs and general self-efficacy beliefs were found to be correlated with each other. In a further study, pre-service early childhood teachers' teaching efficacy beliefs and parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs can be investigated together to determine whether there is a correlation between them as suggested by a number of studies (Lan, 2013; Wu, 1995; Hoover-Demsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1987).

Different studies have reported on the impact of personal biography of pre-service teachers on their attitudes and beliefs concerning parent involvement (Graue & Brown, 2003; Denessen et al, 2009; Tichenor, 2010). Therefore, such an impact can also be investigated in terms of pre-service teachers' parent involvement self-efficacy beliefs and perceived barriers to parent involvement. Moreover, pre-service early childhood teachers' perceived barriers to parent involvement can be explored when they become in-service teachers to see whether there has been a change in their perceptions after they start practicing. If high barrier perceptions are found, possible solutions can be identified by conducting interviews with these teachers, and recommendations can be made in accordance with the results.

Another recommendation for further research concerns pre-service early childhood teachers' self-reported skills in implementation of parent involvement strategies. This

can be deeper investigation including questions to evaluate pre-service teachers' specific parent involvement skills and to determine for which of these skills they need more training. Moreover, an in-depth study could be conducted in order to determine how their skills could be improved.

Last but not least, in the current study, the data was collected from universities in Ankara. In further research, data can be collected from different universities throughout Turkey to allow for generalization of results.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Demographic Information Form

Sevgili Öğretmen adayları,

Bu çalışma okul öncesi dönemde aile katılımı etkinliklerinin uygulamasına yönelik sahip olduğunuz genel öz-yeterlik inançlarınızı, aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarınızı ve aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algılarınızı belirlemeye yönelik bir araştırmadır. Ölçekte yer alan soruları içtenlikle doldurmanız, güvenilir sonuçlara ulaşmamızı sağlayacaktır. Sonuçlar sadece araştırmacılar tarafından bilimsel amaçlı kullanılacak ve üçüncü şahıslarla paylaşılmayacaktır. Lütfen tüm soruları eksiksiz cevaplamaya ve her bir soru için tek bir seçeneği işaretlemeye özen gösteriniz. Çalışmaya katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Arş. Gör. Nur ALAÇAM
ODTÜ Eğitim Fakültesi

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Refika OLGAN
ODTÜ Eğitim Fakültesi

Cinsiyetiniz: Erkek..... Kadın.....

Yaşınız:.....

Mezun Olduğunuz Lise Türü:

Okuduğunuz
Üniversite:.....

Sınıfınız: 3.Sınıf 4.Sınıf.....

Üniversite Genel Not ortalamanız:.....

Eğitimde aile katılımı ya da aile eğitimi dersi aldınız mı? Evet..... Hayır.....

Cevabınız evet ise kaç ders aldınız?

Şu anki aile katılımı yöntemlerini uygulamaya yönelik becerilerinizi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?

1: Çok yetersiz 2: Yetersiz 3: Orta düzeyde yeterli 4: Yeterli 5:Çok yeterli

APPENDIX B: General Self-efficacy Scale-Turkish Form

Aşağıda sunulan ifadeleri dikkatle okuyunuz. Verilen ifadeye katılıp katılmadığınızı, her ifadenin karşısında yer alan satırdaki, size uygun düşen derecelendirmeyi daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

(1=bu ifade benim için kesinlikle doğru değil) (4=bu ifade benim için tümüyle doğru)

	Doğru Değil	Biraz Doğru	Daha Doğru	Tümüyle Doğru
1-Yeni bir durumla karşılaştığımda ne yapmam gerektiğini bilirim.	1	2	3	4
2-Beklenmedik durumlarda nasıl davranmam gerektiğini her zaman bilirim.	1	2	3	4
3-Bana karşı çıkıldığında kendimi kabul ettirecek çare ve yolları bulurum.	1	2	3	4
4-Ne olursa olsun, üstesinden gelirim.	1	2	3	4
5-Güç sorunların çözümünü eğer gayret edersem her zaman başarırım.	1	2	3	4
6-Tasarılarımı gerçekleştirmek ve hedeflerime erişmek bana güç gelmez.	1	2	3	4
7-Bir sorunla karşılaştığımda onu halledilmeye yönelik birçok fikirlerim vardır.	1	2	3	4
8-Güçlükleri soğukkanlılıkla karşılarım, çünkü yeteneklerime her zaman güvenebilirim.	1	2	3	4
9-Ani olayların da hakkından geleceğimi sanıyorum.	1	2	3	4
10-Her sorun için bir çözümüm vardır.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX C: Assessment of Parent Involvement Efficacy Scale-Turkish Form

Lütfen her bir ifade için katılım düzeyinizi yansıtan rakamı daire içine alınız.

1: Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum 2: Katılmıyorum 3: Biraz Katılmıyorum 4: Biraz Katılıyorum
5: Katılıyorum 6: Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Aile Katılımı ile İlgili İfadeler	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Öğretmen olduğumda...						
1- Çocuklara kendi eğitim ve öğretimleri ile ilgili düzenli alışkanlıklar kazandırılmasında ailelerin etkili katılımını sağlayabileceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2-Ailelerin katılım sürecinde liderliğime güvenmelerini sağlayabileceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3- Ailelerin evde okulla ilgili etkinliklere katılımını teşvik edebileceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4- Ailelerin okulda gönüllü olmalarını sağlayabileceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5-Ailelere katılımının gerekliliğini açık bir şekilde anlatabileceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6-Ailelerin sınıf içi katılımını sağlayabileceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7-Aileler ile etkili katılımı sağlayacak güçlü ilişkiler kurabileceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8-Aileler için ilgi çekici etkinlikleri nasıl hazırlayacağımı bileceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9- Ailelerin okulda gönüllü olmalarını sağlama konusunda başarılı olacağım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10-Ailelerin çocuklara kitap okumak gibi akademik etkinliklere katılımlarını sağlayabileceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11-Ailelerin seminer gibi eğitici etkinliklere katılımlarını sağlayabileceğim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX D:Parent Involvement Barrier Scale-Turkish Form

	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Karasızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Aşağıda öğretmen adaylarının mesleğe başladıklarında, çalıştıkları okulda eğitimde aile katılımı sürecinde karşılaşılabilecekleri çeşitli engelleri içeren cümleler yer almaktadır. Her bir cümleyi okuyup hakkındaki görüşlerinizi düşününüz. Lütfen sizin için en uygun olan rakamı daire içine alınız.					
1. Anne babaların pek çoğu çocuklarına okul/dersler ile ilgili konularda destek olmak konusunda yeterli değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Çoğu anne baba okul ile ilgili etkinliklerde yer almak istemez.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Çoğu anne baba çocuklarının eğitiminde rol alamayacak kadar yoğun çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Çoğu anne baba okul politikaları hakkında bilgilendirilmez.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Çoğu anne baba öğretmenlerin çocukları hakkında yaptığı eleştiri ve değerlendirmeleri kabul etmekte zorluk çeker.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Anne babaların sınıfta olması çocukların eğitimini olumsuz etkiler.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Evdeki diğer bireylere ve/veya çocuklara bakacak kimsenin olmaması eğitimde aile katılımı oranını düşürür.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Ulaşım imkânlarının azlığı/yetersizliği eğitimde aile katılımı oranını düşürür.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Okulun ve ailenin çocuk gelişimi/ eğitimi için farklı hedefleri vardır.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E: Turkish Summary

GİRİŞ

Okul öncesi eğitimin önemi tüm dünyada kabul görmektedir. Sadece kısa vadede değil uzun vadede de çocukların okul başarısı ve okula uyumunda etkili olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır (Barnett, 1995). Etkili öğrenme ortamı öğretmenlerin sınıf içi uygulamalarına bağlı olduğundan bahsedilen okul başarısında öğretmenler çok önemli bir role sahiptir (Pianta ve ark., 2005). Alan yazınında öğretmenlerin sınıf içi uygulamalarının onların sahip oldukları öz-yeterlik inançları ile ilişkili olduğu öne sürülmektedir (Ashton, Webb & Doda, 1983).

Öz-yeterlik algısı, bireyin belirli bir performansı gösterebilmek için kendi yeterliklerine yönelik öz değerlendirmesidir (Bandura, 1982). Genel öz-yeterlik algısı ise bireyin belirli bir duruma değil farklı durumlardaki yeteneklerine yönelik yargısıdır (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998). Bu bağlamda öz-yeterlik inançları bireylerin nasıl düşündüğü, hissettiği ve davrandığı üzerinde etkili olabilmektedir (Bandura, 1995). Yüksek öz-yeterliğe sahip bireyler kendileri için ulaşılması zor amaçlar belirleyip, onlara ulaşabilmek için ısrarcı olabilmektedirler (Luszczynska ve ark., 2005). Genel öz-yeterlik inançlarına benzer olarak öğretmenlerin öğretim ileri ilgili öz-yeterlik inançları da kendilerinin gayretine, ve eğitime yönelik davranışlarına yansıyabilmektedir (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Öğretmeye yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları belli bir alana özgüdür ve öğretmenler farklı alanlarda aynı düzeyde öz-yeterliğe sahip olamazlar (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998). Öğretmen öz-yeterlik inançları erken şekillendiğinden ve sonrasında değiştirilmesi güç olduğundan, öğretmen öz-yeterlik inançlarını etkileyen faktörlerin anlaşılması önem teşkil etmektedir (Hoy & Spero, 2005).

Öğretmen öz-yeterliğine yönelik araştırılmaya ihtiyaç duyulan alanlardan biri de aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarıdır. Alan yazınında öğretmen öz-yeterlik inançları ve aile katılımı etkinliklerinin uygulanması arasındaki ilişki birçok çalışma sonucunda belirtilmiştir (Garcia, 2004; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1987). Okul öncesi

eđitimde ailenin desteđi ve okulun uzmanlıđı aile katılımı aracılıđıyla entegre edilebildiđinden aile katılımı çok önemli bir yere sahiptir. Aileler çocuklarının ilk bakıcıları ve eđitimcileri olarak (Berger, 2008) çocukların hayatında en etkileyici rollerden birine sahiptirler (Wheeler & Connor, 2009). Aile dıřında çocukların ilk iletiřim kurduđu ve onların öğrenmesinde ve geliřiminde etkisi olan diđer kiřiler de öğretmenlerdir (Steven, 2003). Bu sebeple aileler ve öğretmenler çocukların eđitiminde iřbirliđi içinde çalışmalıdır (Olsen & Fuller, 2003) ve özellikle okulun ilk yıllarından itibaren ailelerin çocuklarının eđitimine katılımını sağlamak önem teşkil etmektedir (Machen, Wilson & Notar; 2005).

Eđitimde aile katılımının sadece çocuklar için deđil aynı zamanda öğretmenler, aileler ve okul için de faydaları vardır (Keyser, 2006). Öncelikle aile katılımı çocukların okul başarısı üzerinde çok önemli bir role sahiptir (Epstein, 2008),ve onların sosyal ve duygusal geliřimlerine katkıda bulunur (Keyser, 2006). Ayrıca aile katılımı ev ve okul arasındaki iletiřimin güçlendirir (Baker, Kessler-Skar, Piotrkowski & Parker 1999) ve ailelere her anlamda destek sağlar (Keyser, 2006). Öğretmenler de aile katılımı sürecinde çocuklar ve ailelerle ilgili daha detaylı bilgi edinebildiđinden (Arndt & McGuire-Schwartz, 2012) çocukların ihtiyaçlarına daha iyi karşılık verecek programlar hazırlayabilirler (Keyser, 2006). Son olarak da aile katılımının çocukların ilkokula başlarken uyum sürecini kolaylařtırdıđı da öne sürülmüřtür (Miedel & Reynold, 1999).

Aile katılımının etkili olarak uygulanabilmesinin öğretmenlerin öz-yeterlik inançları ile iliřkili olduđu sonucuna varılmıřtır (Wu, 1995). Kendinden emin olan öğretmenlerin aileler ile düzenli iletiřim kurduđu ve sınıfında ailelerin katılımına yönelik pozitif bir atmosfer sağladığı görülmüřtür (Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones & Reed, 2002). Benzer olarak öz-yeterliliđi yüksek olan öğretmenlerin aile katılımı etkinliklerini daha sık ve daha etkili uyguladıkları gözlemlenmiřtir (Wu, 1995).

Öğretmenlerin öz-yeterlik inançlarının geliřtirilmesinde öğretmen eđitimi programları önemli derecede etkilidir (Pentergast, Garvis & Keogh, 2011). Özellikle de öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik hazırlanmaları onların aile katılımına yönelik yaklařımları ve uygulamaları üzerinde etkilidir (Katz & Bauch, 1999). Bu argüman

alanyazınında birçok çalışma ile desteklenmektedir (Morris & Taylor, 1998; Zygmunt & Fillwalk, 2006). Örneğin; Morris ve Taylor (1998)'in çalışmasında aile katılımı dersi alan öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımı etkinliklerini planlamasında ve uygulamasında olumlu yönde farklılıklar tespit edilmiştir. Belirtilen olumlu etkilere rağmen aile katılımı etkinliklerinin okullarda uygulanma düzeyinin düşük olduğu rapor edilmiştir (Hill ve ark., 2004). Aile katılımı öğretmenler ve yöneticiler tarafından desteklenmesine rağmen çok fazla uygulanmamaktadır (Barnyak & McNelly, 2009). Aile katılımının uygulanmasını engelleyen birçok faktör vardır ve bu faktörler aile katılımına yönelik bariyer olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Hornby, 2011). Greenwood ve Hickman (1991) tarafından bu bariyerler şu şekilde belirlenmiştir; aile katılımına yönelik yeterli eğitime sahip olmamak , aile ve öğretmenlerin sınırlı zamana sahip olması ve çocuklar için farklı amaçlara sahip olmaları. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin tutumları, becerileri ve bilgisi de bariyer olarak bahsedilen faktörler arasındadır (Stuckey, 2010). Öğretmenlerin aile katılımına yönelik okul kaynaklı bariyerlerde çok önemli rol oynamasına rağmen (Stallworth, 1982) bariyerlerin aşılmasında en önemli role de yine kendilerinin sahip olduğu öne sürülmektedir (Savacool, 2011).

Çalışmanın Önemi

Yüksek öz-yeterlik inançları bireylerin başarılarına katkıda bulunur ve zorlukları aşılabilir olarak görmelerine yardımcı olur (Bandura, 1997). Öğretmen öz-yeterlik inançları da öğretmenlerin eğitime yaklaşımları üzerinde etkiye sahiptir (Bandura, 1995) ve öğretmenlerin sınıfta etkili olmalarına katkıda bulunur (Pentergast ve ark., 2011). Alan yazınında öğretmenlerin aile katılımına ilişkin inançlarının onların aile katılımı uygulamaları üzerinde yordayıcı etkiye sahip olduğu belirtilmiştir (Thompson, 2012; Garcia, 2004). Ayrıca öğretmen öz-yeterlik inançları, etkili aile katılımına etki eden en önemli faktör olarak tanımlanmıştır (Garcia, 2004). Öğretmen öz-yeterlik inançları bu denli önemli olmasına rağmen alan yazınında daha çok aile öz-yeterlik inançları ve aile katılımı üzerine çalışmalar bulunmaktadır (Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1992; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

Türkiyede öğretmenlerin aile katılımına ilişkin öz-yeterliğine yönelik çalışma bulunmamaktadır. Yüksek Öğretim Kurulu tarafından belirlenen Okul Öncesi

Öğretmenliği programında aile katılımına yönelik bir tane zorunlu ders bulunmaktadır. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından düzenlenen okul öncesi müfredatında da aile katılımının önemi vurgulanmış ve öğretmenlere rehber olarak OBADER yayınlanmıştır (MEB, 2013). Fakat Türkiye’de aile katılımı etkinliklerinin uygulanması ile ilgili problemler bulunmaktadır (Erdoğan & Demirkasımoğlu, 2010; Yolcu, 2011). Öğretmenler aile katılımının önemine inanmalarına rağmen aile katılımını uygulamak için kendilerini yeterli görmemektedirler (İnal, 2006). Bu durum öğretmenlerinin aile katılımına yönelik yeterliklerinin araştırılması ve geliştirilmesi gerekliliğine işaret etmektedir.

Farklı ülkelerde yapılan çalışmalar aile katılımı derslerinin öğretmen adaylarının yeterlikleri üzerinde etkili olduğunu göstermiştir (Morris & Taylor, 1998; Katz & Bauch, 1999; Zygmunt & Fillwalk, 2006). Bu bağlamda aile katılımı dersi alan öğretmen adayları kendilerini aile katılımı uygulamaları için daha hazır hissettiklerini ve aile katılımına yönelik pozitif görüşlere sahip olduklarını belirtmişlerdir (Uludağ, 2008). Önceki çalışma sonuçlarından farklı olarak Zygmunt & Fillwalk (2011), aile katılımı dersi alan ve almayan öğretmenlerin aile katılımı uygulamalarında nicel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulmamıştır. Fakat çalışmanın nitel verileri aile katılımı dersi alan öğretmenlerin daha yaratıcı aile katılımı etkinliklerine yer verdiğini göstermiştir. Çalışmalar göz önüne alınarak aile katılımı dersinin öğretmen adayları üzerinde değişen düzeylerde etkili olduğu sonucuna varılabilir. Fakat Türkiye’de aile katılımı dersinin etkililiğine yönelik sınırlı sayıda çalışma bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmalardan birinde aile katılımı dersi alan öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik pozitif görüşlerinin olduğu fakat aile katılımının çok çeşitli sebeplerden dolayı desteklenmediğini düşündükleri ortaya konulmuştur (Ahioglu-Lindberg, 2014). Bu durum aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algılarının lisans yıllarından süregeldiğini de göstermektedir ve bu konu ile ilgili yapılacak çalışmalar aile katılımına yönelik bariyerlerin belirlenmesi, engellerin anlaşılması ve üstesinden gelinmesine katkıda bulunabilir (Keyser, 2006). Öğretmenlerin aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algıları Demircan (2012) tarafından araştırılmasına rağmen, öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algılarına ilişkin herhangi bir çalışma yürütülmemiştir.

Hizmet öncesi dönem öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik bilgi, beceri ve yeterlikleri kazandıkları dönem olmasına rağmen (Tichenor, 2010) Türkiye’de aile katılımına yönelik öğretmen adayları ile yürütülen sınırlı sayıda çalışma bulunmaktadır (Ahioğlu-Lindberg, 2012). Öğretmenlerin aile katılımı ile ilgili inançları onların aile katılımına yönelik uygulamaları ile ilgili bilgi verdiğinden (Epstein & Dauber, 1991) öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları onların ilerideki aile katılımına yönelik uygulamaları ile ilgili ipucu verebilir. Bütün bu sebepler nedeniyle bu çalışmada öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarını ve bu inançlar üzerinde genel öz-yeterlik inançları ve aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algılarının yordayıcı etkisinin belirlenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Öğretmen öz-yeterlik inançları ve aile katılımı uygulamaları farklı çalışmalarda ilişkilendirilmesine rağmen (Wu, 1995; Lan, 2013, Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1987) genel öz-yeterlik inançları aile katılımı ile ilgili çalışmalara entegre edilmemiştir. Bireylerin genel anlamda becerilerine yönelik algıları ile ilişkili olduğundan (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998) genel öz-yeterlik inançları bireylerin motivasyonu ve performansı üzerinde etkilidir (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algılarının incelenmesi ise aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algılarının anlaşılmasına ve üstesinden gelinmesine katkı sağlayacaktır. Bir diğer faktör olarak öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımını uygulamaya yönelik becerilerini değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Hem öz-yeterlik inançları hem de beceriler ilgili alanda tam yetkin olmak için gerekli olduğundan (Bandura, 1989) belirtilen becerilerin araştırılması öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımı ile ilişkili yeterlikleri ile ilgili daha net bir bilgi verecektir. Ayrıca bu çalışma kapsamında aile katılımı dersinin öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlikleri üzerinde anlamı bir değişime sebep olup olmadığının incelenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Bu bağlamda çalışmanın sonuçları Türkiye’deki aile katılımı dersinin etkiliği ile ilgili ve nasıl geliştirileceği ile ilgili bilgi sağlayacaktır. Özet olarak bu çalışmada öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarına odaklanılmıştır.

Çalışmanın Amacı

Bu çalışma üç temel amaçtan oluşmaktadır. İlk olarak öğretmen adaylarının genel öz-yeterlik inançlarını, aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarını, aile katılımına

yönelik bariyer algılarını ve aile katılımı etkinliklerini uygulanmaya yönelik becerilerinin öz-değerlendirmelerini belirlemek amaçlanmıştır. Ayrıca müfredatta yer alan aile katılımı dersini alan ve almayan öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarında anlamlı bir değişim olup olmadığını incelemek amaçlanmıştır. Son olarak da bu çalışma aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları üzerinde genel öz-yeterlik inançları ve aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algılarının yordayıcı bir etkisinin olup olmadığını incelemeyi amaçlamıştır.

Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda bu çalışmanın üç ana araştırma sorusu bulunmaktadır:

1. Öğretmen adaylarının genel öz-yeterlik inançları, aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları, aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algıları ve aile katılımı etkinliklerini uygulamaya yönelik becerilerinin öz-değerlendirmeleri ne düzeydedir?
2. Aile katılımı dersi, öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları üzerinde anlamlı bir değişime sebep olmakta mıdır?
3. Öğretmen adaylarının genel öz-yeterlik inançları ve aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algıları onların aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarına istatistiksel olarak yordayıcı etkisi nedir?

YÖNTEM

Evren ve Örneklem

Araştırma evrenini, Ankara il merkezinde dört devlet üniversitesine ve bir özel üniversiteye devam eden 3. ve 4. sınıfa devam eden okul öncesi öğretmen adayları oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmanın katılımcıları kolaylık örnekleme yolu ile seçilmiş ve araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmışlardır. Ayrıca aile katılımı dersi katılımcı üniversitelerde 3. ve 4. sınıfta verildiğinden belirtilen gruplar çalışmaya dahil edilmiştir. Araştırmanın örneklemi 601 öğretmen adayından oluşmaktadır. Araştırmanın çoğunluğu (92.8%) kadınlardan oluşmaktadır ve katılımcıların 45%'i aile katılımı dersini aldıklarını belirtmişlerdir.

Araştırma Yöntemi

Bu araştırmada nicel çalışmalarda kullanılan tarama yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Belirtilen yöntem belirli bir gruptan, belirli yönleri belirlemek amacıyla bilgi toplama metodu olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Fraenkel , Wallen & Hyun, 2012).

Veri Toplama Araçları

Çalışmanın verileri araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen kişisel bilgi formu, Türkçe'ye uyarlaması Yeşilay ve ark. (1996) tarafından yapılan yapılan *Genel Öz-yeterlik Ölçeği*, Stuckey (2010) tarafından geliştirilen ve Türkçe'ye uyarlaması araştırmacı tarafından yapılan *Aile Katılımı Öz-yeterliğini Değerlendirme Ölçeği*, ve Demircan (2012) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlaması tamamlanan *Öğretmen Aile Katılımı Öz-yeterlik Ölçeği* araştırmacı tarafından öğretmen adaylarına uygun hale getirilerek toplanmıştır. Araştırmacı tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlaması yapılan *Aile Katılımı Öz-yeterliğini Değerlendirme Ölçeği*'nin uyarlama sürecinde uzman görüşleri alınmış, pilot çalışma yapılmış, ve ölçeğin geçerlik ve güvenilirliği çeşitli istatistiksel analizlerle teyit edilmiştir, ve ölçeğin tek faktörlü bir yapıya sahip olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır.

Veri Toplama Süreci

Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi'nden ve katılımcı üniversitelerin rektörlüklerinden etik izinler alındıktan sonra mevcut çalışma için veriler Ekim 2014 – Aralık 2014 tarihleri arasında toplanmıştır. Katılımcılar araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmış ve veriler sınıf ortamında araştırmacı tarafından toplanmıştır. Anketin doldurulması ortalama 20 dakika sürmüştür.

Veri Analiz Süreci

Toplanan veriler nicel araştırma yöntemleri ile analiz edilmiştir. İlk araştırma sorusu için betimletici istatistiksel analizler, ikinci ve üçüncü araştırma soruları için ise çıkarımsal istatistiksel analizler yapılmıştır.

BULGULAR

Araştırma sonuçları öğretmen adaylarının ölçeklerden elde edilen ortalamaları doğrultusunda orta düzeyde genel öz-yeterlik inançlarına ($M=27.41$), yüksek aile katılımı öz-yeterlik inançlarına ($M=53.38$), yüksek aile katılımı bariyer algılarına ($M=31.40$) ve orta düzeyde aile katılımını uygulamaya yönelik becerilere ($M=2.66$) sahip olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Bağımsız grup t-testi sonuçlarına göre aile katılımı dersi alan ($M=53.82$, $SD=6.76$) ve almayan ($M=52.84$, $SD=6.43$) öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir farka ulaşılamamıştır. Ayrıca çoklu regresyon analizi sonuçları genel öz-yeterlik inançlarının öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları üzerinde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir yordayıcı etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir ($\beta = .437$, $p = .000$). Öte yandan, aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları ve aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algıları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır ($\beta = .053$, $p = .146$).

TARTIŞMA

Genel öz-yeterlik inancı, belirli alana özgü değil bireylerin çok çeşitli durumlardaki zorluklarla başedebilmelerine yönelik kendilerine olan inancı anlamına geldiğinden (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2004) öğretmen adaylarının daha karmaşık düşünerek kendi becerilerini daha detaylı yargıladıklarından orta düzeyde genel öz-yeterlik inançlarına sahip oldukları söylenebilir. Öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik yüksek öz-yeterlik inançlarına sahip olmaları ise aile katılım dersleri kapsamında aile katılımına yönelik problemlerden bahsedilmemesi (Mahmood, 2013) ve öğretmen adaylarının bu problemlerden haberdar olmaması olarak yorumlanabilir. Bir diğer sebep olarak ise öğretmen adaylarının önceden var olan inançları öne sürülmüştür. Alan yazında önceden var olan inançların eğitim sürecinde çok önemli olduğu ve değiştirilmesinin zorluğundan bahsedilmektedir (Hallingsworth, 1989). Bu sebeple öğretmen adaylarını aile katılımına yönelik önceden sahip oldukları inançların onların aile katılıma yönelik öz-yeterliği üzerinde önemli bir faktör olabileceği sonucuna varılmıştır. Öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımı öz-yeterliğini değerlendirmek için araştırmacı tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanan *Aile Katılımı Öz-yeterliğini Değerlendirme Ölçeğinin*

orjinalinden farklı olarak tek faktör olarak yorumlanmasında ise eğitim programının, katılımcı örneklem grubunun ve kültürel farklılıkların etkili olabileceği öne sürülebilir. Uzman görüşleri ile Açımlayıcı ve Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi sonuçları da adapte edilen ölçeğin tek faktör olması sonucunu desteklemektedir. Çalışma sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik yüksek bariyer algılarına sahip oldukları ve bu bariyerlerin daha çok aile kaynaklı sebeplerden olduğu görülmektedir. Bu durum öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik yüksek öz-yeterlik inançlarına sahip olduklarından dolayı aile katılımını uygulanmasına yönelik problemlerin aileden kaynaklı olduğunu düşündükleri şeklinde yorumlanmıştır. Ayrıca aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algılarının hizmet öncesi dönemlerden süregeldiği sonucu da bu çalışma sonucunda ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımını uygulamaya yönelik orta düzeyde becerilere sahip olmaları ise aile katılımı derslerinin daha çok teorik olarak işlenmesi (Richardson, 2003) ve bu derslerde uygulamaların olmaması ya da yetersiz olmasından kaynaklanabileceği düşünülmektedir.

Çalışma sonucunda aile katılımı dersi alan ve almayan öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları arasında anlamlı bir fark olmaması aile katılımı derslerinin içeriğine bağlanmıştır ve dersler kapsamında öğretmen adaylarının öğrendiklerini uygulama şansı olmaması olarak yorumlanmıştır. Bir diğer neden olarak da zorunlu olarak müfredatta bir tane aile katılımı dersi olması ve bu dersin katılımcı üniversitelerin genelinde son sınıfta verilmesi olarak öne sürülmüştür. Zorunlu olarak bir tane aile katılımı dersi öğretmen adayları için yeterli olmayabileceği (Baum& McMurray-Schwarz,2004) ve ayrıca bu dersin son sınıfta verilmesi öğretmen adaylarının bu konuyu öğrenip davranışa dönüştürmesi için geç bir zaman dilimi olarak yorumlanmıştır. Öğretmen adaylarının inançları çok uzun süre içinde şekillenmesinden dolayı sınırlı sayıda dersle sınırlı bir zaman dilimi içinde bu inançların değiştirilmesinin güçlüğü farklı çalışmalarla ortaya konmuştur (Richardson, 2003). Bu sebeple öğretmen adaylarının kendi yaşantılarından gelen kişisel tecrübelerinin de grupların benzer öz-yeterliğe sahip olmasında etkili olabileceği savunulmuş ve bu çıkarım ilgili çalışmalarla da desteklenmiştir (Denessen ver ark., 2009; Tichenor,2010; Graue & Brown, 2003).

Genel yeterlik öz-yeterlik inançlarının aile katılımı öz-yeterlik inançları üzerinde yordayıcı bir etkiye sahip olmasında genel-öz-yeterlik inançlarının bireylerin motivasyonu (Bandura, 1982) ve mesleğe yönelik performansları (Judge, Erez & Bono, 1998) üzerinde etkili olabilmesi sebep olarak gösterilebilir. Kendilerini genel anlamda yeterli hisseden öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik de öz-yeterlik inançlarının yüksek olması ve bu inançların genel öz-yeterlik inançları ile de ilişkili olması beklenen bir sonuçtur. Fakat aralarındaki yordayıcı etkiye rağmen öğretmen adaylarının yüksek aile katılımı öz-yeterlik inançlarının yanında orta düzeyde genel öz-yeterlik inançlarına sahip olması ise öğretmen adaylarının genel öz-yeterlik inançlarını değerlendirirken belirli bir alana odaklanmadıklarından daha karmaşık düşündükleri ve kendileri daha fazla yargıladıkları şeklinde yorumlanmıştır. Çalışmanın bir diğer sonucu olarak da aile katılımı öz-yeterlik inançları ile aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algıları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olmamasına rağmen öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımı öz-yeterlik inançları yüksek olmasından dolayı engellerin üstesinden gelmek için daha fazla çaba sarfedebilecekleri şeklinde yorumlanabilir (Bandura, 1989).

Uygulamaya Yönelik Öneriler

Öğretmen adayları için sosyal-kültürel ve sportif etkinliklere yönelik fırsatlar sunmak onların genel öz-yeterlik inançlarının geliştirilmesine katkıda bulunabilir (Çapri ve ark., 2012). Ayrıca öğretmen adaylarının örnek alabileceği ve onları her anlamda cesaretlendirecek öğretmenler ve öğretim yöntemleri de genel öz-yeterlik inançlarının geliştirilmesine katkıda bulunabilir. Öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımı öz-yeterlik inançları yüksek olmasına rağmen bu inançlarını desteklemek için de hizmet öncesi dönemde aile katılımı üzerine seminerler ve workshoplar düzenlenebilir. Stuckey tarafından yürütülen araştırmada workshopların öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarında artış sağladığı gözlenmiştir (Stuckey, 2010). Ayrıca uygulama öğretmenlerinin de öğretmen adaylarının öz-yeterlik inançları üzerinde etkili olduğu alanyazınında belirtilmiştir (Carter, 2006). Bu sebeple aile katılımı dersleri staj dersleri ile entegre edilebilir ve öğretmen adaylarına hem uygulama öğretmenlerinin aile katılımı etkinliklerini gözleme hem de öğrendiklerini uygulama fırsatı sağlanabilir. Ayrıca uygulama öğretmenleri ile üniversiteler arasında

iş birliđi sađlanabilir ve eđer gerekli görölürse uygulama öđretmenleri için hizmet içi eğitim sađlanabilir. Alanyazınında öđretmen adaylarının önceden var olan inançlarının da onların öz-yeterlik inaçları üzerinde etkili olduđu vurgulanmıřtır (Pajares, 1992). Bu sebeple öđretmen adaylarının aile katılımına iliřkin önceden var olan inanıřları arařtırılarak hangi alanlarda desteđe ihtiyaç duyabilecekleri belirlenebilir.

Öđretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik yüksek bariyer algılarını azaltmak için öđretmen adayları aile katılımına yönelik olası problemler ve çözüm yolları hakkında bilgilendirilebilir. Bu bağlamda Mahmood (2013) tarafından aile katılımı derslerinde sadece aileler ile nasıl ideal bir iliřki kurulacađı deđil aile katılımına yönelik olası sorunların ve çözüm yollarının da öđretmen adayları ile tanıřtırılmasını önerilmiřtir. Ayrıca, OBADER aile katılımı derslerinde detaylı bir řekilde incelenebilir. Öđretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik becerilerini geliřtirebilmeleri için de onlara öđrendiklerini uygulamaya koyabilecekleri fırsatlar sađlanabilir ve birçok arařtırma sonucunda da önerildiđi gibi aileler ile biraraya gelebilecekleri etkinlikler organize edilebilir (Graue & Brown, 2003; Greenwood & Hickman, 1991). Öđretmen adayları aile katılımına yönelik yüksek öz-yeterliđe sahip olduklarından dolayı aile katılımına yönelik becerilerini geliřtirebilme potansiyeline sahiptirler. Bu amaçla staj dönemlerinde öđretmenlerin OBADER ile iliřkili uygulamalarını gözlemlene fırsatları sađlanabilir. Ayrıca, aile katılımı ile ilgili bilgi ve beceriler öđretmen eğitimi programlarının son yılında deđil tüm program boyunca farklı derslerin içerik ve uygulamalarına dahil edilerek öđretmen adaylarının aile katılımı uygulamaları desteklenebilir.

Mevcut arařtırma sonuçlarında, aile katılımı dersi alan ve almayan öđretmenlerin aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlikleri arasında anlamlı bir farka ulaşamadıđından ölkemizdeki aile katılımı derslerinin içeriđi detaylı bir řekilde incelenebilir. Derslerin etkililiđini artırmak amacıyla aile katılımına yönelik teorik bilgiler, dersler kapsamında aile eğitimi konferanslarına katılım gibi etkinlik ve uygulamalarla entegre edilerek desteklenebilir (Tichenor, 2010). Ayrıca öđretmen adaylarının aile katılımına sadece aile katılımı dersi ile deđil, hizmet öncesi dönem boyunca sistematik olarak hazırlanması sađlanabilir (Katz& Bauch, 1999) ve aile katılımı fen, matematik gibi farklı derslere de entegre edilebilir. Bu sayede öđretmen adaylarının aile katılımını

içselleştirmeleri ve eğer aile katılımına yönelik önceden gelen negatif inançları varsa aşmaları sağlanabilir.

İleriki Çalışmalara Yönelik Öneriler

Öğretmenlerin aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarını daha detaylı incelemek amacıyla Türkçe'ye uyarlaması yapılan ölçeğe ek olarak öğretmen adayları ile görüşmeler yapılabilir. Aynı ölçeği aile katılımı dersinden önce ve sonra uygulayarak deneysel araştırma düzeni uygulanabilir. Bir başka çalışmada hem öğretmenlerin hem de öğretmen adaylarının öz-yeterlik inançları incelenerek sonuçlar karşılaştırılabilir ve eğer anlamlı bir fark var ise sebepleri araştırılabilir. Ayrıca bu araştırmanın devamı olarak çalışmaya katılan öğretmen adaylarının öz-yeterlik inançları aynı ölçek kullanılarak daha sonraki yıllarda da incelenebilir ve anlamlı bir değişim var ise değişime etki eden faktörler araştırılabilir.

Bir başka çalışmada öğretmen adaylarının genel öz-yeterlikleri yerine öğretmeye ilişkin öz-yeterlik inançları ile aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançları araştırılabilir ve ilişkilendirilebilir. Birçok çalışmada etkisi rapor edildiği gibi öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına ilişkin kişisel yaşantıları araştırılabilir ve bu yaşantıların öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik öz-yeterlik inançlarına ve bariyer algılarına etkisi incelenebilir. Ayrıca öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımına yönelik bariyer algıları öğretmen olduklarında da incelenerek sonuçlar karşılaştırılabilir. Bir başka çalışmada ise öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımını uygulamaya yönelik becerileri daha detaylı olarak incelenebilir ve becerilerinin geliştirilmesi için öneriler sunulabilir. Son olarak, öğretmen adaylarının aile katılımı öz-yeterliklerine yönelik veri Türkiye'nin farklı bölgelerinden veriler toplanarak bulguların genellenebilirliği sağlanabilir.

APPENDIX F: METU Ethics Committee Permission

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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19.09.2014

Gönderilen : Y. Doç. Dr. Refika OLGAN
Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
IAK Başkanı

İlgi : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği Bölümü öğrencisi Nur Alaçam'ın "Okul Öncesi Öğretmen Adaylarının Aile Katılımına Yönelik Öz-yeterlik İnançlarının, Genel Öz-yeterlik İnançları ve Aile Katılımına Yönelik Bariyer Algıları ile İlişkisinin İncelenmesi" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

19/09/2014

Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi
(UEAM) Başkanı
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

APPENDIX G: Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enformatik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>

YAZARIN

Soyadı : ALAÇAM
Adı : NUR
Bölümü : İlköğretim Okul Öncesi Eğitimi

TEZİN ADI: Parent Involvement Self-efficacy Beliefs of Pre-service Early Childhood Teachers with respect to General Self-efficacy Beliefs and Perceived Barriers about Parent Involvement

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: