COPARENTING AND PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATION: THE MEDIATING ROLES OF MOTIVATIONAL BELIEFS

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Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

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ABSTRACT

COPARENTING AND PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATION: THE MEDIATING ROLES OF MOTIVATIONAL BELIEFS

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This study aimed to examine parent involvement in education in relation to the quality of coparenting relationship between preschoolers' parents and their motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education. In line with the aim of the study, the explanatory correlational research design was adopted. The data of the study were gathered from 1,434 parents of preschoolers in Antalya, Turkey through multiple data collection instruments: namely, demographic information form, the Coparenting Relationship Scale, Role Activity Beliefs Scale, Self-efficacy Beliefs Scale, and the Family Involvement Questionnaire.

To address the aim of the study, an initial and a final model were created and tested via AMOS statistical package program to explore the direct and indirect relations among the study variables. In these models, first whether the quality of coparenting relationship and motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education significantly predicted the levels of parent involvement in education was explored. Second, motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education were investigated as mediators in the relationships between the quality of coparenting relationship and the levels of parent involvement in education.

The results of the analyses showed that motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education significantly and positively predicted school-based involvement and home-school conferencing. Moreover, the quality of coparenting relationship had significant effects on at least one of the home- and school-based involvement and home-school conferencing either directly or through the motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education. In conclusion, the current study revealed that the qualified relations between parents in their parenting associated with the individual motivational beliefs of parents can enhance the parent involvement in education.

Keywords: Coparenting Relationship, Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement, Parent Involvement, Parents, Early Childhood

ÖZ

ORTAK EBEVEYNLİK VE EĞİTİMDE AİLE KATILIMI: GÜDÜSEL İNANÇLARIN ARABULUCULUK ROLLERİ

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Bu araştırmanın amacı, okul öncesi eğitim kurumlarına devam etmekte olan çocukların anne-babalarının eğitime katılımlarının ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileri ve aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarıyla olan ilişkilerini araştırmaktır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, araştırmada açıklayıcı ilişkisel araştırma deseni benimsenmiş ve araştırmanın verileri Antalya ilinde çocukları bir okul öncesi eğitim kurumunda öğrenim gören 1.434 ebeveynden toplanmıştır. Veri toplama amacıyla demografik bilgi formu, Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkileri Ölçeği, Rol Etkinlik İnançları Ölçeği, Özyeterlilik İnançları Ölçeği ve Aile Katılım Ölçeği kullanılmıştır.

Araştırmanın amacı bağlamında, araştırma değişkenleri arasındaki doğrudan ve dolaylı ilişkileri saptamak için başlangıç ve nihai model adı altında iki model oluşturulmuş ve AMOS istatistik paket programı aracılığıyla yol analizleri yapılarak test edilmiştir. Bu modellerde, ilk olarak, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin ve ebeveynlerin aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarının eğitime katılım düzeylerini anlamlı bir biçimde yordayıp yordamadığı incelenmiştir. Daha sonra, ebeveynlerin aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarının, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileri ve eğitime katılım düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki açısından arabuluculuk rollerinin olup olmaması sorgulanmıştır.

Analizlerinden elde edilen bulgular, ebeveynlerin aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarının okul, ev ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım düzeylerini pozitif bir biçimde yordadığını göstermiştir. Diğer yandan, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin okul, ev ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım düzeylerinden en az birini doğrudan ya da ebeveynlerin aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançları aracılığıyla dolaylı olarak yordadığı saptanmıştır. Sonuç olarak, bu araştırma, ebeveynler arasındaki nitelikli ilişkinin gerek kendi başına gerekse ebeveynlerin bireysel güdüsel inançlarıyla birlikte aile katılım düzeylerini yükseltebileceğini ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkileri, Aile Katılımına Yönelik Güdüsel İnaçlar, Aile Katılımı, Ebeveyn, Okul Öncesi

To my beloved wife Güler and daughter Ekin…

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM iii
ABSTRACT iv
ÖZ vi
DEDICATION vii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS xi
LIST OF TABLES xvi
LIST OF FIGURES xvii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS xviii
CAHAPTER
1. INTRODUCTION 1
1.1 Significance of the Study 8
1.2 Purpose and Research Questions of the Study 11
1.3 Proposed Model 12
1.4 Definition of the Terms 19
2. LITERATURE REVIEW 21
2.1 Theoretical Background 21
2.1.1 Ecological Systems Theory 22
2.1.2 Family System Theory 25
2.2 Coparenting Relationship 27
2.2.1 Definition and Conceptualization of Coparenting Relationship 28
2.2.2 Significance of Coparenting Relationship 32
2.3 Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's Model of Parent Involvement Processes in Education 38
2.3.1 Progress of the Model 42
2.3.2 Predictors of Parent Involvement 43

2.3.3 First Level of Parent Involvement: The Determining Factors of Parent Involvement in Education 48
2.3.3.1 Motivational Beliefs of Parents Regarding Parent Involvement 49
2.3.3.1.1 Parental Role Activity Beliefs 50
2.3.3.1.2 Parental Self-efficacy for Helping the Child Succeed in School 56
2.4 Parent Involvement in Education 61
2.4.1 Definition and Conceptualization of Parent Involvement 61
2.4.1.1 Epstein's Model of Parent Involvement 63
2.4.1.2 Home-based Involvement, School-Based Involvement, and Home-school Conferencing 67
2.4.2 Significance of Parent Involvement 69
2.4.3 Parent Involvement in Turkey 71
2.5 Quality of Coparenting Relationship and Parent Involvement 76
2.5.1 Quality of Coparenting Relationship and Parenting Practices 77
2.5.2 Quality of Coparenting Relationship and Parent Involvement in Education 79
2.5.3 Quality of Coparenting Relationship and Motivational Beliefs of Parents 82
3. METHOD 88
3.1 Design of the Study 88
3.2 Population and Sample 89
3.3 Data Collection Instruments 94
3.3.1 Demographic Information Form 96
3.3.2 Coparenting Relationship Scale 96
3.3.2.1 Original Form of the Coparenting Relationship Scale 99
3.3.2.2 Translation and Adaptation of the Coparenting Relationship Scale into the Turkish Language 101
3.3.2.3 Validity and Reliability of the Coparenting Relationship Scale 103
3.3.2.3.1 Validity and Reliability in the Pilot Study 104
3.3.2.3.2 Validity and Reliability in the Main Study 107
3.3.2.3.3 Revision of the Factor Structure of the Coparenting Relationship Scale 109
3.3.3 The Scales of Motivational Beliefs of Parents Regarding Involvement 112

3.3.3.1 Reliability and Validity of the Scales of Motivational Beliefs of Parents Regarding Involvement 115
3.3.4 Family Involvement Questionnaire 116
3.3.4.1 Validity and Reliability of the Family Involvement Questionnaire .. 118
3.4 Data Collection Procedure for the Main Study 118
3.5 Ethical Issues 120
3.6 Variables of the Study 121
3.7 Data Analysis 122
3.7.1 Preliminary Analysis (Data Screening and Testing Assumptions) 123
3.7.2 Preliminary Analysis Regarding Demographic Variables 123
3.7.3 Descriptive Analyses 126
3.7.4 Bivariate Correlations among the Study Variables 126
3.7.5 Path Analysis 127
3.8 Assumptions and Limitations 131
4. RESULTS 132
4.1 Results of Preliminary Analysis (Data Screening and Testing of Assumptions) 132
4.1.1 Data Screening (Management of Missing Values and Outliers) 132
4.1.1.1 Missing Data Analysis 132
4.1.1.2 Outliers 134
4.1.2 Results of Assumption Testing 135
4.1.2.1 Sample Size 135
4.1.2.2 Normality 136
4.1.2.3 Linearity 141
4.1.2.4 Multicollinearity and Singularity 141
4.2 Results of the Preliminary Analyses Regarding Demographic Variables 142
4.2.1 Results of the Analyses for the Levels of Parent Involvement 143
4.2.2 Results of the Analyses for the Parents' Motivational Beliefs Regarding Their Involvement 144
4.3 Results of RQ1: Descriptive Results 145
4.3.1 Quality of Coparenting Relationship 145

4.3.2 Parents' Motivational Beliefs Regarding Their Involvement in Education 147
4.3.3 Level of Parent Involvement in Education 148
4.4 Bivariate Correlations among the Study Variables 149
4.5 Results of RQ2: Proposed Model 152
4.5.1 Results for the Initial Model 154
4.5.1.1 Direct Relationships between the Quality of Parents' Coparenting Relationship and Their Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement in Education 156
4.5.1.2 Direct Relationships between the Quality of Parents' Coparenting Relationship and Their Levels of Parent Involvement in Education 157
4.5.1.3 Direct Relationship between Parents' Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement in Education and Their Levels of Parent Involvement in Education 158
4.5.2 Results for the Final Model 159
4.5.2.1 Direct Relationships among the Study Variables 161
4.5.2.2 Indirect Relationships among the Study Variables 163
4.6 Summary of the Results 166
5. DISCUSSION 169
5.1 Discussions of the Results 169
5.1.1 General Discussion 169
5.1.2 Discussions Regarding Descriptive Results 172
5.1.2.1 Quality of Coparenting Relationship 173
5.1.2.2 Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement in Education 179
5.1.2.3 Levels of Parent Involvement in Education 181
5.1.3 Discussions Regarding the Model 184
5.1.3.1 Discussions Regarding Direct Effect of the Quality of Coparenting Relationship on Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement in Education 184
5.1.3.2 Discussions Regarding Direct Effect of the Quality of Coparenting Relationship on Levels of Parent Involvement in Education 190
5.1.3.3 Discussions Regarding the Direct Effect of the Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement in Education on the Levels of Parent Involvement in Education 195

5.1.3.4 Mediating Roles of Role Activity and Self-Efficacy Beliefs 197
5.2 Implications 202
5.2.1 Implications for Theory and Research 202
5.2.2 Implications for Practice 207
5.3 Recommendations for Future Research 209
REFERENCES 213
APPENDICES
APPENDIX A: DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS 261
APPENDIX B: ORIGINAL FORM OF THE COPARENTING RELATIONSHIP SCALE 267
APPENDIX C: APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE AND PROVINCIAL DIRECTORATE OF NATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE PILOT STUDY 269
APPENDIX D: REVISIONS OF ITEMS CONSIDERED AS PROBLEMATIC 271
APPENDIX E: FINAL FORM OF TURKISH VERSION OF THE COPARENTING RELATIONSHIP SCALE 272
APPENDIX F: CONSENT FORM 273
APPENDIX G: APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE AND PROVINCIAL DIRECTORATE OF NATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE MAIN STUDY 274
APPENDIX H: DATA COLLECTION GUIDELINES FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS 276
APPENDIX I: HISTOGRAMS, NORMAL Q-Q PLOTS AND DETRANDED Q-Q PLOTS FOR NORMALITY CHECK 277
APPENDIX J: RESULTS OF THE MANOVAS AND FOLLOW UP ANOVAS FOR THE LEVELS OF PARENT INVOLVEMENT 283
APPENDIX K: RESULTS OF THE MANOVAS AND ANOVAS FOR MOTIVATIONAL BELIEFS REGERDING INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATION 284
APPENDIX L: CURRUCILUM VITAE 285
APPENDIX M: TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET 288
APPENDIX N: THESIS PERMISSION FORM / TEZ İZIN FORMU 318

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Demographic characteristics of the sample of the main study 92

Table 3.2 Characteristics of the instrument 97

Table 3.3 Demographic characteristics of the sample of the pilot study..... 104

Table 3.4 Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales of the CRS with the pilot data 106

Table 3.5 Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales of the CRS with the main data 108

Table 3.6 Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales of the final form of the CRS with the main data..... 112

Table 3.7 Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scales of the motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement with the main data 116

Table 3.8 Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales of the FIQ with the main data 118

Table 3.9 Fit indices and acceptable cutoff-values..... 130

Table 4.1 Normality statistics 137

Table 4.2 Tests of normality..... 139

Table 4.3 Tolerance and VIF values for exogenous variables 142

Table 4.4 Descriptive statistics for the quality of coparenting relationship 146

Table 4.5 Descriptive statistics for the motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education 148

Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics for the levels of parent involvement..... 149

Table 4.7 Bivariate correlations among study variables..... 151

Table 4.8 Parameter estimates of direct relationships between the quality of coparenting relationship and motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education 156

Table 4.9 Parameter estimates of direct relationships between the quality of coparenting relationship and levels of parent involvement in education 158

Table 4.10 Parameter estimates of the direct relationship between motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education and levels of parent involvement in education 159

Table 4.11 Parameter estimates of direct relationships among the study variables. 163

Table 4.12 Direct, indirect, and total effects in the final model 165

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1. Proposed model 13

Figure 2.2. Microsystems and the mesosystem of a family with a preschooler in the context of coparental relationship 25

Figure 2.4. Model of parent involvement processes in education 41

Figure 2.5. First level of model of parent involvement processes 49

Figure 2.6. Three actors of a child's development and education 64

Figure 3.1. The adaptation process of the Coparenting Relationship Scale 102

Figure 3.2. Data analysis process 122

Figure 3.3. Initial proposed model 128

Figure 4.1. Initial model 155

Figure 4.2. Final model 160

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AG	Coparenting Agreement
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CON	Exposure to Conflict
CP	Coparenting
CRS	Coparenting Relationship Scale
DIV	Division of Labor
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EM	Expectation-Maximization
END	Endorsement of Partner's Parenting
FIQ	Family Involvement Questionnaire
GFI	Goodness-of -Fit Index
HBI	Home-based Involvement
HSC	Home-school Conferencing
HIPPY	Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MCAR	Missing Completely at Random Test
MCEF	Mother Child Education Foundation
MEP	Mother Enrichment Program
MI	Modification Indices
MoNE	Ministry of National Education
OBADER	Family Support Education Guide Integrated with ECE Program
RA	Parental Role Activity Beliefs Regarding the Involvement in Education
RABA	Parental Role Activity Beliefs Scale
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SBI	School-based Involvement

SE	Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs for Helping the Child Succeed in School
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SUP	Coparenting Support
SEBS	Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Residual
TEEP	Turkish Early Enrichment Project
TLI	Tucker-Lewis index
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
PA	Path Analysis
PI	Parent Involvement
SES	Socio-Economic Status
SPSS	Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences
UND	Coparenting Undermining

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The development of individuals takes place through their interaction with the environment, within surrounding ecological systems. That is, beginning from their interaction with their immediate environment (e.g., family and peers, school), through to the broader layers of the environment (e.g., legal services and culture), the interactions with these layers lead to the development of individuals (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Indeed, family and school, and also relations between the family and school, constitute a major aspect of the immediate environment of individuals, which may create far-reaching effects regarding their development and education. Within this context, the dynamics in the family begin even before birth, and are associated with school, after the transition to formal education, which can influence the development and, of course, the education of children. In other words, while at first, the family is the essential influence in the development and education of children, due to their entrance into a formal education system, the source of influence becomes bidirectional (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998; Hayes, O'Toole, & Halpenny, 2017). However, these are not the only interactions between these two actors (family and school) in the life of individuals, as they also affect each other's dynamics differently, through changes in the context of everyday life (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986; Powell, 1991).

At first, considering the family from the perspective of the Family System Theory, the members of it are interconnected to each other and affect each other's thoughts, behaviors and beliefs (Cox & Paley, 1997; Miller, Ryan, Keitner, Bishop, & Epstein, 2000; Minuchin, 1985). The interactions or relationships between family members may create specific effects in a system that is unique to each family. More clearly, each family is unique and creates a system in which all the members are interrelated to each other and influence each other (Cox & Paley, 2003; Minuchin, 1985; Stratton, 2005). The members of the family precisely create an overall system

in which they interact with each other through sub-systems formed as a result of dyadic or triadic interactions with family members (i.e., mother-father, mother-child, father-child, and mother-father-child), or interactions with more members in the family (e.g., mother-father-first child-second child). The sub-systems are shaped through the changes in the family structure. This means that during the dynamic formation process, the overall family system and sub-systems, are faced with continuous changes that bring new challenges to the family (e.g., birth of a child, child's transition to school, etc.); however, the family system adapts to such new circumstances (Cox & Paley, 1997).

Before marriage or founding a new family, individuals are included in a family system built by their parents or parental figures. Essentially, founding a new family means creating a new family system, in which new sub-systems are formed, such as marital or parental sub-systems. Initially, after starting a new nuclear family, there are two members within the traditional family system: wife and husband, or one set of partners. These two members of the family have certain needs that their relationship requires to be fulfilled. They have responsibilities to each other, such as providing love, warmth, respect, and support (Braiker & Kelley, 1979; Cutrona, 1996).

On the other hand, the everyday life of partners faces a fundamental change as a result of the inclusions and participation of a new family member: the child (Bakermans-Kranenburg, Lots, Dijk, & IJzendoorn, 2019; Deal, Hagan, Bass, Hetherington, & Clingempeel, 1999; Hjälmhult & Lomborg, 2012; Johnson & Rodgers, 2006). In addition to the dyadic relationship between father and mother, other forms of dyadic relationships (i.e., mother-child and father-child), and also triadic relationships (i.e., mother-father-child), are added to the family system. The newcomer of the family leads to certain changes in psychological development, self-confidence, and an increasing burden on the parents when confronted with new challenges and experiences (Bornstein, 2005). In addition, the addition of a child has a powerful effect on each member of the family in terms of shaping and determining their behaviors within the family system (Miller, Keitner, Bishop, & Epstein, 2000). As a result of this effect, after the entrance of the new member, the system of the family is reshaped.

Having a child brings along new responsibilities and roles for the partners. In fact, the two initial members of the family who took the lead in creating the system of the family, assume the title of parents, in addition to the title of partners. Specifically, they are named mother and father, after this considerable change in their lives. They are responsible for providing care for their child/children, supporting their child/children's development and providing a safe environment for their child/children (Berger & Riojas-Cortez, 2015). Moreover, they are also responsible for providing affective support for their child or children. Ultimately, after having a child, the two founders of the family, the wife and husband, now called mother and father, have parental relationships with each other in addition to the romantic and marital relations that already exist between them. Now they must consider the critical question at this stage of their marital process: Do they participate as mother and father, in the roles that they believe have distinct characteristics regarding the functioning of the family, and in the participation of the care and education of their child? This is also the time to think about a new type of relationship, which provides an egalitarian relationship regarding the mother and father in terms of parenting practices, and which has a positive influence on both child and family outcomes (Feinberg, 2003). In fact, the time to consider these changing dynamics comes even before the birth of the child (McHale et al., 2004).

Throughout history, the patriarchal family required that mothers and fathers inhabit strict roles. Traditionally, fathers have been considered the breadwinner and protector of the family, while mothers have been regarded as responsible for the act of caregiving and domestic work. However, this role division has started to change due to changes in both Eastern and Western societies (Ataca & Sunar, 1999; Deutsch, 2001; Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2005; Kuzucu, 2011). For example, the roles attributed to the father in the family have shifted from the patriarchal roles that provided more power for the fathers to more egalitarian roles for both mothers and fathers (Mercan & Tezel-Şahin, 2017; Pleck, 1987; Rotundo, 1985), and even a reversal of roles—mother as breadwinner and father as caregiver (Barker, Dogruoz, & Rogow, 2009; Fernandez-Lozano, 2019; Jurczyk, Jentsch, Sailer, & Schier, 2019; Kotila, Schoppe-Sullivan, & Dush, 2013). Within this evolutionary process regarding the role of motherhood and

fatherhood, the inequality between parental responsibilities, in terms of the division of child-related work, has begun to be demolished. Broadening the understanding that participation in the care and education of children is not only the responsibility of the mothers of these children, has led to promising results regarding this evolutionary process. Fathers are also a part of changing this process. Even, "decent" fathers in the families are distinguished as the "mothers' assistants", or helpers, in terms of domestic or childcare related work. This group of fathers is mostly praised in terms that remark on their generosity in regards to helping mothers enact work generally regarded as particularly their responsibility. However, simply being an assistant or helper might not be enough to create an egalitarian relationship between parents. Indeed, mothers do not look to fathers for only their help. They want a partner, especially one who will aide in the caring and supporting of the development and education of their children. They look towards a type of a relationship that allows for the possibility to discuss child-care-related issues with their partner, the possibility of the fair distribution of child-care responsibilities, their partner's appreciation of their competency as a parent and discussing interactions between each other with their partners (Feinberg, 2003). However, these types of demands regarding the parental relationship in the case of childcare, are not limited to mothers. On the other hand, fathers who are considered to be indifferent members of the family in regards to the care and education of the child also have expectations about parenting relations. For example, being in agreement with the partner, which is a determining factor in terms of paternal involvement in child-related works and decisions, may need to meet with greater action by the father (McBride & Rane, 1998). Fathers also want the support of mothers for child-related work, less conflict, and less undermining in the context of childrearing and childcare (Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Jia & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2011; Trahan, 2018; Waller, 2012). Moreover, fathers desire less maternal gatekeeping when they are trying to become involved in the lives of their child or children (Coley & Hernandez, 2006). In brief, mothers and fathers have some expectations concerning their relations with their spouses, and in terms of the context of their involvement in the care and education of their offspring. That is, either mothers or fathers look to *coparent* together in a way where each equally have shared responsibilities and tasks,

independent from their role as father or mother in terms of being a part of their children's lives (Cugmas, 2007; Feinberg, 2003).

In that case, the main concern is a coherent and supportive relationship regarding parenting practices, rather than the individual contributions of each parent to the role of parenting. In fact, from the perspective of family system theory (Cox & Pale 1997; Minuchin, 1985), in addition to the father and mother's personal characteristics, attitudes and beliefs, this dyadic coparenting relationship between the parents represents an interconnected and depended sub-system that can not be fully understood individually, meaning in terms of the individual father or mother. This independent form of the sub-system, is itself a sub-system of the family that influences family practices, such as parental interactions with children (Minuchin, 1985). For instance, research studies reveal that establishing qualified coparenting relations in the family enhances engagement with parenting practices (Berryhill, 2017; Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Hunnington & Vetere, 2016; Jia, Kotila, & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2012; Jia & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2011). Moreover, the quality of coparenting relationship also influences some personal psychological factors that correlate with involvement in parenting practices. To illustrate, the research revealed that the quality of coparenting has positive effects on the role beliefs and on the self-efficacy beliefs of parents in regards to their parenting practices (e.g., Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Favez, Tissot, Frascarolo, Stiefel, & Despland, 2016; Feinberg, Brown, & Kan, 2012; Indrasari & Dewi, 2018; Schoppe-Sullivan, Brown, Cannon, Mangelsdorf, & Szewczyk-Sokolowski, 2008; Solmeyer & Feinberg, 2011). However, these positive effects might be stable for the context in which parents participate in care and the daily life of the child, until the family system changes once again, during the transition to formal education.

Based on the predictor roles of coparenting in motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement to general parenting practices such as caregiving and play (e.g., Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Favez, Tissot, Frascarolo, Stiefel, & Despland, 2016; Feinberg, Brown, & Kan, 2012; Indrasari & Dewi, 2018; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008; Solmeyer & Feinberg, 2011; Zvara, Schoppe-Sullivan, & Dush, 2013), it can be suggested that the quality of the coparenting relationship may also influence

the motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education, which are two predictors of the parent involvement in education, and when a specific type of parenting practice emerges as a result of the child's transition to school. More clearly, the quality of the coparenting relationship may significantly affect the role and self-efficacy beliefs in the context of the educational environment. It may also affect the general parenting behaviors or specific beliefs of the parents in regards to their role and competence in childcare. As the child grows older and turns out to be a part of the education system, a new factor that might influence the family system comes to exist. Essentially, the family system, which changes with the arrival of the child, changes again with the child's transition and entrance to the school. This fundamental change in both the child's and parents' life, brings new responsibilities to the coparents, particularly in terms of effectively supporting their children's education economically or academically. Basically, in order to support the development and education of their children, parents are expected to become involved in a partnership between themselves and the school (Epstein, 1995). That is, parents are expected to become involved in their children's education actively, and to support their children either at home or school (Pomerantz, Moorman, & Litwack, 2007; Sheldon, 2002).

Within the context of parent involvement, the goal of creating a partnership between parents and schools can be accomplished by having parents become involved in certain types of activities. These activities may include communicating with the school, helping children in their educational activities, becoming volunteers at school functions, becoming involved in decision-making processes related to the school, and by collaborating with the community (Epstein, 1995). These are answers which address how parents can participate in the formal education of their children. On the other hand, there is another concern regarding the participation of parents, and that involves the determining factors for the parents' level of involvement. Here, the concern is to what extent various factors affect the participation of parents in both school-based and home-based involvement activities, which in turn represents their involvement level (Fantuzzo, Tighe, & Childs, 2000; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005). Although, some factors have been proposed, which determine the level of parent involvement, such as the characteristics of parents and children (e.g.,

SES [socio-economic status], age and grade of child), family context and behaviors (e.g., social support from others) and attitudes of schools (e.g., school climate) (Griffith, 1998; Grolnick, Benjet, Kurowski, & Apostoleris, 1997; Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow, & Fendrich, 1999; Sheldon, 2002), the most promising attempt to answer these questions was provided by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995). They provided a model of parent involvement processes in education, in which the first level of the framework focuses on reasons why parents participate in the learning processes of their children. According to this framework, parents may decide to participate in the education process depending on how the role for involvement was constructed, on self-efficacy beliefs in terms of helping the child succeed in school, perceptions of invitations for involvement or perceived life context (Walker, Wilkins, Dallaire, Sandler, & Hoover-Dempsey, 2005). In addition to these personal beliefs and external factors that lead to the involvement of parents, as an indicator of the quality of intrafamilial relationships, the coparenting relationship may also have an influence on the parents' participation in education. There are some research studies that examine the quality of the coparenting relationship, and the parents' participation in their children's learning processes (Berryhill, 2017; Chen et al., 2017). These research studies suggest that coparenting relations have a positive relationship with parent involvement processes. For example, supporting the partner in terms of childcare may be a motivator for parent involvement in the education and care of children. The existence of a weak coparenting relationship, or the father's dissatisfaction with coparenting, may lead to a lesser involvement of father with his child/children (Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Carlson, McLanahan, & Brooks-Gunn, 2008; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2011; Jia & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2011; Sobolewski & King, 2005; Van Egeren, 2004; Waller, 2012). Based on this understanding, investigating the existing relationships between the motivation of parents regarding their involvement in education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005), parent involvement practices, and coparenting relationships, will be promising in order to conceptualize the involvement of parents within the system of family and school.

1.1 Significance of the Study

The current study aims to make novel contributions to parent involvement studies by investigating the potential associations between the quality of coparenting relationships, motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and the level of parent involvement. Specifically, this study may make three significant contributions to the research and practice of education, precisely concerning early childhood education in terms of the involvement of parents in the education process.

First of all, in addition to the existing factors that may influence the frequency or level of parent involvement in education (e.g., parents' gender, age, educational level, employment status, etc.), the present study suggests the novel factors emerged in the context of specific family sub-systems (e.g., agreement or disagreement between parents, supporting or undermining behaviors of parents, fair share of responsibilities, and child-related works), which may affect the level of parent involvement in education and motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education. In other words, the current study has the potential to provide evidence for the dyadic effects of the coparents instead of the monadic effect of the single-parent, in regards to parent involvement in the context of early childhood education. As Sheldon (2002, p.311) proposed that parents are not "isolated individuals who interact with their own child and their child's teacher" and defined parents as "social actors", the current study also proposes that the involvement of individual parent should be considered in the context of the relationship with the partner in the family.

More specifically, the current study succeeds in overcoming three noticeable deficits in the parent involvement literature by contextualizing the parent involvement in education within the intrafamilial relationships. First, it provides pieces of evidence for the association between parent involvement and the family structure, which has rarely been addressed in the relevant literature. Depending on the numerous meta-analysis studies, Jeynes (2002, 2003a, 2003b, 2005, 2011, 2012) proposed that there is a lack of understanding concerning involvement in education studies about the relationship between the family structure and parent involvement in education. Concerning that, the current study makes significant contributions to broaden the knowledge of the two-parent family by exploring the relationship between parents in

the context of parenting practices. Second, less attention has been given to more varied relationships within the family system that is, the relationship between the parents and how that may be influential on each parent's beliefs, motivations, and behaviors with regards to their involvement in education (Powell, 1991). That is to say, although it is known that two-parent families tend to participate more in the education of their children, he proposed that parent involvement literature provides little explanation for which qualities of the family contribute to the enhancement of parent involvement. Thus, the current study provides a specific indicator for the quality of a family sub-system, that of coparenting, which represents the quality of the relationship between the parents within the scope of their parenting practices (i.e., coparenting agreement [AG], coparenting support [SUP], coparenting undermining [UND], endorsement of partner's parenting [END], division of labor (i.e., specifically referring to the division of parental labor) [DIV] and exposure to conflict [CON], (Feinberg, 2003). Furthermore, this study specifically discusses the implications of these indicators for parents' involvement in education and also factors that determine their level of involvement. Third, in addition to the effects of external factors (e.g., social support, attitudes of school) and the demographic characteristics of the parents (e.g., SES, gender, employment status) (Griffith, 1998; Grolnick et al., 1997; Izzo et al., 1999; Sheldon, 2002), the current study provides evidence regarding the influence of the relationship between core elements of the family on their involvement in the education of their child or children: the mother and father. In addition, the current study also expands the model of parent involvement processes in education, which presents the psychological factors (i.e., parental role activity beliefs regarding involvement in education and parental self-efficacy belies for helping children succeed in school) that significantly affect the decision of parents to participate in their child's education and the different types of parent involvement in education (i.e., school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing), by examining the effect of the mother-father relationship established in the context of being a parent.

Second, most studies consider parent involvement from a single-comprehensive dimension. In fact, from the perspective of the family system theory (Cox & Pale 1997; Minuchin 1985), in addition to father and mother's personal

characteristics, attitudes and beliefs, this dyadic coparenting relation between parents represents interconnected and depended sub-system that can not be fully understood individually, in the sense of the individual father or mother. This independent form of sub-system, is a sub-system of a family that has an influence on family practices, such as their involvement with the children (Minuchin, 1985). Therefore, the current study provides evidence of how the participation of parents as co-partners, instead of identifying separately as mother and father, affects the motivations of parents regarding their involvement and their involvement level. As a result, this study is important because it provides the possible effects of coparenting, which is a predictor of parent involvement in parenting practices, and in motivational beliefs regarding involvement. That is, the current study extends the understanding of parent involvement in education by investigating it in the context of the family structure. Moreover, it also provides evidence about the effect of an important triadic relationship on parent involvement, not only on the individual level, but also on the separate unit of the family system.

Third, coparenting research is a new field for national literature. There are some research studies aiming to examine the coparenting relationship in the context of the Turkish family (e.g., Giray & Ferguson, 2018; Salman-Engin, Sümer, Çetiner, & Sakman, 2019; Salman-Engin, Sümer, Sağer & McHale, 2018). On the other hand, to the author's knowledge, there is no research study that aims explicitly to investigate the relationship between coparenting and parent involvement practices in Turkey. In fact, there are limited research studies directly addressing the relationship between coparenting and parent involvement in education (Berryhill, 2017; Chen et al., 2017), but still these research conducted with the parents of older children who are between the ages of eight to eleven. More clearly, to the author's knowledge, there is not a research study investigating this relationship in the preschool context. In this respect, this study not only contributes to the national literature but also contributes to international literature. In addition, specific to national literature, the current study is important because the concept of coparenting is a new one that will be introduced to the national parent involvement literature by adapting a popular instrument of the coparenting relationship to Turkish culture and language. This will provide evidence

regarding the patterns in relationships that occur between parent involvement and coparenting relations for Turkish parents. Moreover, this study also contributes to the existing international literature by presenting the different aspects of the relationship between coparenting and parent involvement in education.

In addition to contributing to the related literature, this study has considerable potential to guide and plan interventions and parent education programs that enhance the involvement of parents in their children's education by enhancing the relationship of the parents, in terms of parenting practices. The current study may provide potential explanations for which aspects of coparenting is influential on the motivational beliefs leading to parent involvement and parent involvement itself. This information may be useful for planning intervention and parent education programs for the family system, in order to increase parental involvement in parenting, by enhancing coparenting relationship between parents (Feinberg, 2002; Pilkington, Rominov, Brown, & Dennis, 2019). Planning interventions and education programs, regardless of the gender of the parents or for either mothers or fathers, may not be sufficient enough to increase the involvement of the parents in the education of their children. Instead, planning interventions and education programs also determining the context of the coparental relationship may be complementary to the improvement of parent involvement. That is, coparenting may be used as the "driving force" informing the appropriate coparenting practices of the parents within their family system.

1.2 Purpose and Research Questions of the Study

The purpose of the current study is threefold. First, it is to investigate the general patterns of the coparenting relationship of the parents, the motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and the level of parent involvement in education. Second, it is to investigate the direct relationships between the quality of the coparenting relationship of the parents, the motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and the level of parent involvement in education. Third, it is to examine the role of motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education as the potential mechanism through which the quality of the coparenting relationship may affect the level of parent involvement in the education of preschool

children. In line with these purposes, a path model was created and tested to explore the direct and indirect relationships among the study variables. The conceptual path model is depicted in Figure 1.1 to illustrate the direct and indirect paths. In line with the research purpose, the following questions are addressed in the study via analysis of the path model:

RQ1. What are the general patterns of the quality of the parents' coparenting relationship, their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and their levels of parent involvement in education?

RQ2. What are the direct and indirect relationships between the quality of the parents' coparenting relationship, their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and their levels of parent involvement in education?

> RQ2.1 What is the direct relationship between the quality of the parents' coparenting relationship and their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education?
>
> RQ2.2 What is the direct relationship between the quality of the parents' coparenting relationship and their levels of parent involvement in education?
>
> RQ2.3 What is the direct relationship between the motivational beliefs of the parents regarding parent involvement in education and their levels of parent involvement in education?
>
> RQ2.4 Do motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education play significant roles in the relationships between the quality of the parents' coparenting relationship and their levels of parent involvement in education?

1.3 Proposed Model

The proposed path model of the current study (depicted in Figure 1.1), represents the direct effects of the quality of the coparenting relationship on parent involvement in education, and also a potential mechanism through which the

association between the quality of the coparenting relationship and the level of parent involvement, that might be formed. More specifically, coparenting quality might directly relate to the involvement of the parents in the education of their children, or it may negatively or positively affect the parental role activity beliefs regarding the involvement in the child's education and the parental self-efficacy beliefs for helping children succeed in school. This, in turn, may affect the level of involvement in education, either negatively or positively, depending on the characteristics of the coparenting relationship.

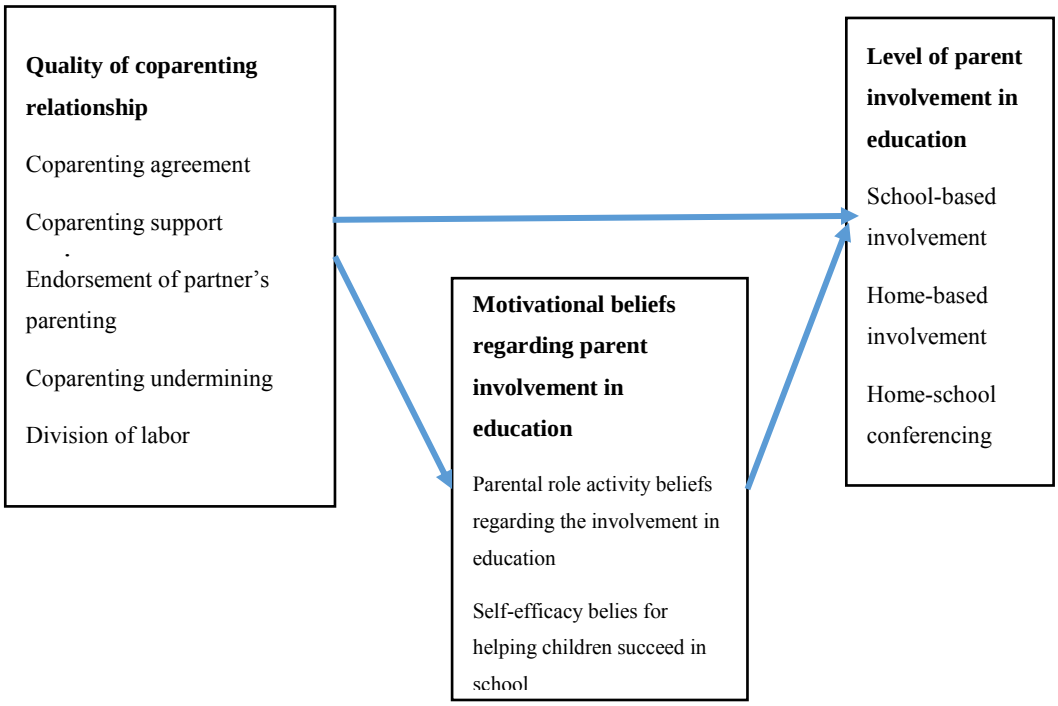

Figure 1.1. Proposed model[1]

Considering the emphasis on the model specification during the path analysis (Kline, 2016; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010), the model proposed for this study was built on the propositions, suggestions, and findings provided during previous research. Although there are plenty of research studies concerning the relationship between

[1] Note: All different combination of relationship among dimensions of coparenting quality, motivation for parent involvement and parent involvement were tested via path analyses. However, all paths were not presented in the figure for presentation clarity.

parenting practices and the quality of the coparenting relationship, research studies specifically addressing the association between the coparenting relationship and its quality are limited. The research studies focusing on how the quality of the coparenting relationship relates to general parenting practices indicate both direct and indirect association between these two variables (e.g., parenting style and involvement in childcare). Based on the literature on parenting practices and coparenting, within the scope of explanatory correlational research design, the current study explores the possible relationship between the quality of the coparenting relationship, the motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and the level of parent involvement in the context of early childhood education (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2011).

According to Bronfenbrenner's system perspective, three factors are influential in human relations in the context of development: affect, power, and reciprocity (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The most positive influence on humans can be produced through human interactions with others based on these three factors (Shelton, 2019). Considering parent relations that shape the development of partners as parents, the positive affect between parents, equally balanced power between parents, and parenting based on reciprocity may produce the most positive effect on parents. Within this scope, positive coparenting relations may lead to the higher motivational beliefs and positive behaviors of parents in parenting practices. In fact, depending on the Family System Theory, the relationship among family members affect each other's thoughts, behaviors, and beliefs (Cox & Paley, 1997; Miller et al., 2000; Minuchin, 1985). As a result, based on the propositions of these two system-related theories, it is fundamentally hypothesized that the coparenting relationship between parents would predict their motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education and their levels of involvement in education. The hypothesized associations are also discussed below, depending on the previous research studies addressing the possible associations among variables in the model.

First of all, according to the model (Figure 1.1), the quality of the coparenting relationship (i.e., coparenting agreement, endorsement of partner's parenting, coparenting support, coparenting undermining and division of labor) would be directly

linked to the level of parental school involvement (i.e., school-based and home-based involvement and home-school conferencing). Berryhill (2017) found that in a supportive coparenting relationship between parents, there was a positive influence on the level of involvement in parents whose children were nine years old. In addition, Chen et al. (2017) also reported the predicting role of coparental consistency (i.e., the coparenting agreement in Feinberg's model) and coparenting strategies (i.e., the division of labor in Feinberg's model) on the parent involvement in school and home. The proposed model in the current study also examines other sub-constructs of the quality of the coparenting relationship, which in addition to the coparenting agreement, include coparenting support and division of labor, specifically for their effect on the involvement level of parents whose children are between 36 to 72 months old. The current study also includes another form of parent involvement in education, as proposed by Fantuzzo et al. (2000), in addition to school-based and home-based involvement.

In the literature, there are numerous studies that aimed to shed light on what determined parental decision in their involvement with their children's education (e.g., Anderson, Aller, Piercy, & Roggman, 2015; Deslandes & Bertrand, 2005; Giallo, Treyvaud, Cooklin, & Wade, 2013; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1992; Shumow & Lomax, 2002). That is, these studies have questioned the motivations of parents who became involved in the education of their children. As depicted in the proposed model, the possible effects of the motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement on the level of parent involvement in education are explored in the early childhood context. However, a sub-construct of motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education is not included in the study. According to the original model of parent involvement processes, parental role construction for involvement consists of two sub-constructs. These sub-constructs are parental role activity beliefs regarding the involvement in the child's education and valence towards school (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005; Walker et al., 2005). The parental role activity beliefs regarding the involvement in the child's education refer to what parents believe they should do in regard to their children's education. On the other hand, valance towards school represents the past experiences of parents regarding their relationship with

school. In the current study, determining factors of parent involvement were investigated in terms of both their influence on the levels of parent involvement, and the influence of the coparenting relationship between the parents, on them. That is, the parental role activity beliefs regarding the involvement in the child's education as a part of the determinants regarding parent involvement was used as the mediator between the level of parent involvement and coparenting. As a result, depending on the nature of the parental valence towards school, which refers to the "stable memories" of the parents, as they relate to their past experiences at school, was not included in this study as a study variable, as in other similar and current studies (e.g., Ertan, 2017; Filik, 2018; Hirano et al., 2018; Lavenda, 2011; Park & Holloway, 2018; Walker et al., 2005; Zhang, Keown, & Farruggia, 2014).

On the other hand, there are no such studies questioning the possible contributor to the motivation for parental school involvement. The model also links the quality of the coparenting relationship with the psychological factors proposed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995), in order to understand why parents are involved in the education system context. That is, in the model, the effects of the quality of the coparenting relationship sub-constructs on to parental role activity and self-efficacy beliefs of the parents when helping their children succeed in school, as the motivational beliefs of parents regarding their involvement in education are explored. In the literature, some research studies addressed the relationship between the coparenting relationship and the involvement of parents in parenting practices, such as providing care or play activities (e.g., Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Favez et al., 2016; Indrasari & Dewi, 2018; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008). Based on these studies, in the proposed model, potential relationships between the quality of the coparenting relationship and the motivational beliefs of parents regarding their involvement in education were addressed. Despite the evidence related to the relationship between the motivations for parental school involvement and the level of parental school involvement, which appears to be considerable on the individual level (i.e., mother or father), it has not been questioned in the context of the sub-system of the specific relationship established between mother and father as a result of being a parent. That is, in the context of family relationships, the underlying mechanism of the relationship

between what motivates parents to become involved and their actual involvement remains unclear. Clearly, the current study attempts to fill this gap. This study attempts to explore the potential mechanisms by which coparenting may influence parent involvement in education by influencing how parents construct their role beliefs regarding involvement in education and self-efficacy beliefs for helping the child to succeed in school.

As shown in the Figure 1.1, the model also predicts that motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education are also considered as the mechanism or pathway by which the quality of the coparenting relationship may produce effects on the involvement of parents in the education of their children. Within this scope, in the proposed model, the motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement were examined as a potential mechanism through which the quality of the coparenting relationship could affect the level of parent involvement in the preschool education of children. Sheldon (2002) reported that the perceptions of the other parent regarding parent involvement in their children's education influenced the decisions made about parent involvement in education. That is, social pressure arising from the parent community in the school had an influence on the levels of parent involvement. On the other hand, the relationships emerged as a result of the associations between parents, as similar social relations, but more special and specific ones, can also influence the behavior of parents regarding their involvement in education. Berryhill (2017) and Chen et al. (2017) reported that the quality of the coparenting relationship predicts the level of parent involvement in education. However, they did not provide evidence regarding how the coparental relationship might affect the level of involvement in education as displayed by the parents. In other words, they did not identify the underlying mechanism of the relationship between the quality of coparenting and the levels of parent involvement in education. Although there is no direct evidence regarding this mechanism, a few research studies offer some indirect evidence that supports the fact that the motivational beliefs of parents in regards to their involvement can mediate relationships between the relationship between family members and parent involvement. For example, according to Giallo et al. (2013), the relationship between the wellbeing of the parents and parent involvement is mediated by self-efficacy

beliefs. Moreover, Feinberg (2003) proposed that parental self-efficacy can mediate the relationship between the quality of the coparenting relationship and parenting performance. This specifically means that parents with a higher sense of well-being also felt more efficient when helping and supporting their child in terms of child-related work and activities, and ultimately, were able to engage more with the child.

According to Role Theory (Biddle, 1979, 1986) and Self-Efficacy Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1989a, 1989b), the immediate social environment has an effect on leading the thoughts, ideas, beliefs, and behaviors about their role within the social environment they belong to. Whitaker and Hoover-Dempsey (2003) depend on these two theories to suggest associations of parents with other members in their immediate environment of the child (i.e., family and school members). Considering the role and self-efficacy theories and the inference of Whitaker and Hoover-Dempsey (2003), one can consider that individual behaviors can be influenced either directly by the social environment of individuals or indirectly by the effects of the social environment on the parental role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs. For example, according to Park and Holloway (2018), parental role activity beliefs mediate the relationship between the relationship established with the school and school-based involvement and academic socialization. This means that the relations of parents with a positive immediate social environment—school in this case—positively influences the beliefs about the construction of roles by the parents, and therefore the level of parent involvement increases. On the other hand, the Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) and Family System Theory (Minuchin, 1985) emphasize the effects of the most immediate environment of individuals—family members— on the thoughts, ideas, beliefs, and behaviors of individuals.

Ultimately, it is proposed that the quality of the coparenting relationship affects the levels of school-based and home-based involvement, and the level of home-school conferencing directly and indirectly. More clearly, drawing from literature, a model of parent involvement in education grounded in the Ecological Systems Theory and the Family System Theory was tested to explain the direct effects of the quality of coparenting relationship and indirect effects through motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education.

1.4 Definition of the Terms

Parent: It is defined as the person "who act in a primary caregiver or parent role, whether they are the biological parent, a relative, adoptive parent, foster parent, or nonrelated caregiver (Berger & Riojas-Cortez, 2018, p.3). In this study, the notion of parent refers to the biological mother and father of the child.

Parent involvement: It refers to the home and school-related practices of parents to support the education and experiences of their children under the titles of home-based involvement, school-based involvement, and home-school conferencing (Epstein, 1995; Fantuzzo et al., 2000).

Levels of parent involvement: It refers to the amount of parental involvement in education-related activities as measured by frequency of participation to the home-based involvement activities, school-based involvement activities, and home-school conferencing.

Beliefs: They refer to the cognitive propositions or ideas that are accepted as correct and that direct the behaviors of the individual (Rokeach, 1968).

Motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education: These beliefs refers to the personal psychological motivators of parents in their involvement in education, including parental role activity beliefs regarding involvement in the child's education and parental self-efficacy belies for helping the child succeed in school (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005).

Role activity beliefs: The role activity beliefs of the parents refer to the beliefs of the parents regarding their role in the education of their children, meaning the beliefs of parents regarding what they should do as parents in terms of supporting the education of their children (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005).

Self-efficacy beliefs for helping children succeed in school: It refers to the beliefs of the parents about their competence or the efficiency of parents in providing the necessary support for their children's school-related activities, in an effort to help increase their success (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005).

Coparenting: Based on the previous definitions, in a broad sense, coparenting refers to the relationship and shared activities between two or more caregivers or parental figures, who are responsible for the caring and rearing of a shared child, or more than one child, in a context where mutual parental support and coordination exists (Feinberg, 2003; Fivaz-Deperusienge, Frascarola, & Corboz-Warney, 1996; McHale & Irace, 2011; Van Egeren & Hawkins, 2004).

Coparenting agreement: It refers to the agreement or disagreement between partners in childrearing-related practices, such as "moral values, behavioral expectations and discipline, children's emotional needs, educational standards and priorities, safety and peer association" (Feinberg, 2003, p. 102).

Coparenting support: It refers to the support provided by the other spouse towards parenting-related issues, in order to enhance the parenting actions take by the other parent (Feinberg, 2003).

Coparenting undermining: undermining refers to a parent's overt or covert practices to make weak, or to thwart, the parenting of the spouse (Belsky, Crnic & Gable, 1995; Van Egeren & Hawkins, 2004).

Endorsement of partner's parenting: It refers to one's own positive attitude toward a partner's parenting (Feinberg et al., 2012, p.7).

Division of labor: division of responsibilities related to childcare and the child-related financial issues of parents (Feinberg et al., 2012).

Exposure to conflict: Within the management of intrafamilial relationships, it refers to "whether the parents exposed the child to their conflicts" (Feinberg et al., 2012, p.7).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will provide a review of the literature regarding the theoretical background and variables of the study. First, the Ecological Systems Theory and the Family System Theory are introduced to present the bases through which the basic frame of the current study was constructed. Second, the literature review on the quality of the coparenting relationship, motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and the level of parent involvement in education are presented in different sections, respectively. These independent sections include the definition and conceptualization of the variables, the significance of the variable for children and their families, and theoretical models regarding the variables. Lastly and most importantly, the associations which were mentioned briefly in the previous chapter discussing the rationalization of the proposed path model, are discussed in detail to present and review the related literature that guided the construction of proposed path model.

2.1 Theoretical Background

The current study was conducted within the scope of two theoretical perspectives involving the relationship of individuals with the smallest unit of social structure (i.e., family, family members) and with broader social arenas (e.g., schools, workplaces, and media). More specifically, the Ecological Systems Theory, which focuses on the interaction of individuals with their development, and the Family System Theory, which sees the family as a system consisting of members who interact with, and affect, each other, guided the current study (see Figure 2.2). In short, the current study expands on the evidence that the quality of the coparenting sub-system within the family is associated with parenting practices, which specifically emerged as a result of relations with school.

2.1.1 Ecological Systems Theory

According to Bronfenbrenner (1986), human development takes place within the interplay between person and environment. In other words, as he claims, one's development could not be understood without the context that one lives in because human development is socially embedded. In order to theorize this context, Bronfenbrenner (1979) presents a systems theory regarding interactions and human development, which asserts that human development takes place within the different layers of human interaction with the environment. These layers represent the relationships from the most immediate environment to the most indirect environment. These are microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem, in which the experiences of individuals are nested (see Figure 2.1).

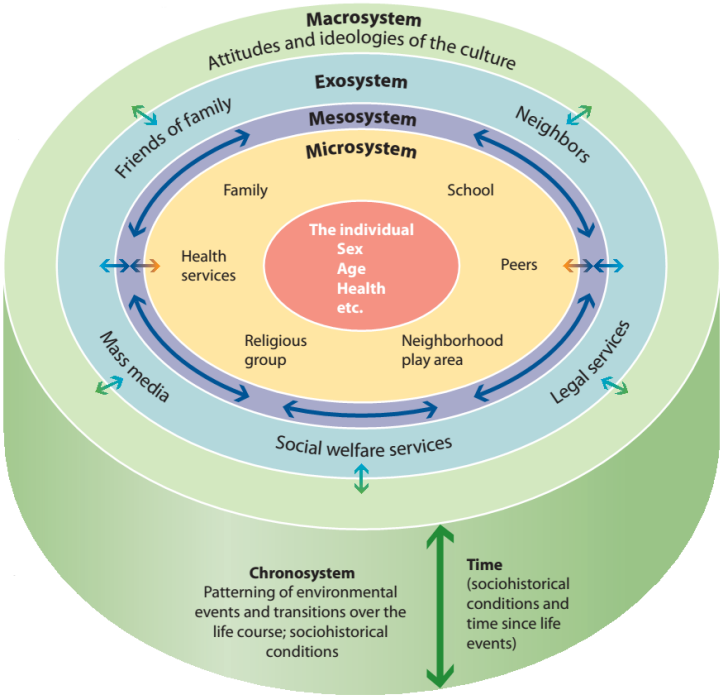

Figure 2.1. Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory of Development (adapted from Santrock, 2011, p. 29).

All layers of the interaction represent the relationship that affects the developmental process. First of all, the microsystem represents the immediate

environment of children in which they establish direct contact (Berk, 2009). According to Bronfenbrenner (1979, p. 22), "a microsystem is a pattern of activities and interpersonal relations experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics." This system includes parents, peers, and school. The relations with the members of these systems have an influence on the development of the individual. On the other hand, the effects are not unidirectional, which only take into account the development of individuals. The effects in the microsystem are bidirectional (Bronfenbrenner, 2005). In a word, the individuals both affect and are affected by the environment that they live in. For example, in a family, not only parents influence their children's beliefs, but also children have an influence on the beliefs of their parents. In addition, the members or the institutions of the microsystem do not only interfere with the development of the individuals as though they are independent of other components. For example, a child enrolled in a preschool is not only influenced by the parents or school, but there is also an effect on the child due to the relationship established between the parents and the school. These types of effects arise as a result of relations among the constituents of the microsystem, such as such as those between parents and teachers or home and school, which refers to the mesosystem (Gestwicki, 2004). Specifically, "the mesosystem comprises the linkages and processes taking place between two or more settings containing the developing person (e.g., the relations between home and school, school and workplace, etc.)." (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.25). Parent involvement in the education of their children is a typical example of this system, representing the partnership between parents and the school, in an effort to enhance the development and education of children (Hayes et al., 2017). To put simply, the interaction between parents and teacher(s) or other staff, or the school in general, has an influence on the development of children. Furthermore, the relationship between the two parents may also be an influential factor in a child's development. For example, previous studies revealed that the marital relationship between parents and the subsequent relationship with each other, in terms of parenting, had significant impact on the social and cognitive development of children (e.g., Cabrera, Scott, Fagan, Steward-Streng, & Chien, 2012; Leary & Katz, 2004; Keren,

Feldman, Namdari-Weinbaum, Spitzer, & Tyano, 2005; Li, Jiang, Fan, & Zhang, 2018; Scrimgeour, Blandon, Stifter, & Buss, 2013).

The exosystem refers to the environment that children are not actively involved in, but are affected in terms of one or more microsystems, such as parents' job or social services (Berns, 2013). In this system, some events occur but the child is affected indirectly, such as through a parent's friendship, or through local school activities (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). For example, there is a positive correlation between the social network of parents and the level of involvement they pursue in their children's education (Sheldon, 2002). That is, the greater the size of the parents' social network, the greater their involvement, and therefore, the achievements of children may increase. The macrosystem represents the larger structure in which children live such as lifestyles, sociocultural belief systems, life changes, and patterns of social interaction (Berns, 2013). This system also includes moral and cultural values and laws (Gestwicki, 2004). Lastly, chronosystem refers to the temporal changes in the aforementioned systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986). For example, developments in computer technology allow individuals to learn something new related to this technology (Berns, 2013).

According to Bronfenbrenner (1979, 196), the microsystem is mostly related to the relationship between parents and school because these are the components composing the immediate environment of children. Establishing a relationship among these agencies may be an essential factor for parent involvement in education. For example, in order to enhance the partnership between school and home, teachers should establish a positive relationship with parents and should have a clear understanding of the families which these parents belong to (Knopf & Swick, 2008). In fact, the essential characteristics of qualified early childhood education, school or service, are to establish a supportive relationship and respectful communication with the parents. Within this scope, the current study aims to investigate the relationship between two influential constructs of the microsystem (parent-parent relations and parents-school relations), which represent the mesosystem and how the mesosystem relational constructs have the possible influence on parent involvement and practices.

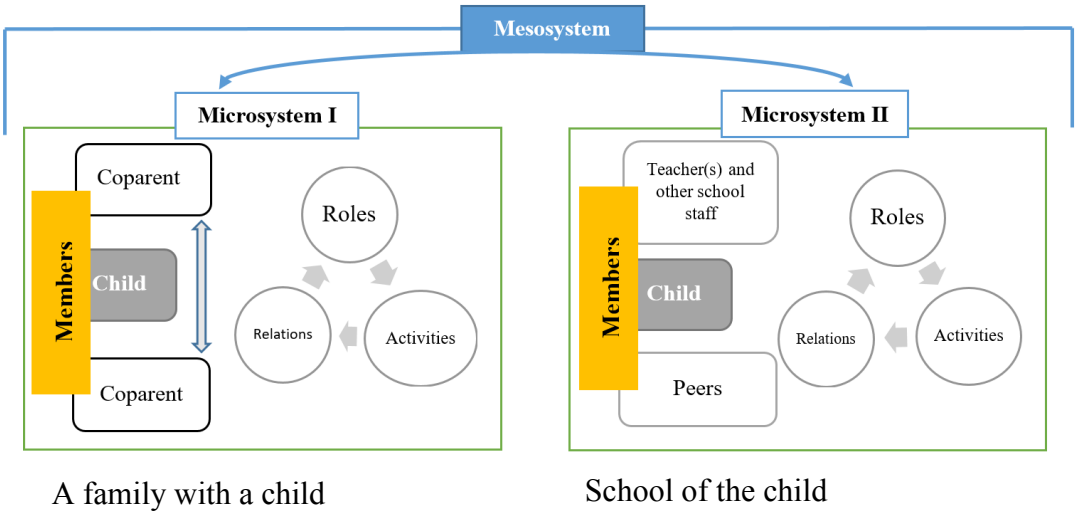

Figure 2.2. Microsystems and the mesosystem of a family with a preschooler in the context of coparental relationship

As Shumow, Lyutykh, and Schmidt (2011) noted, Bronfenbrenner's (1979) Ecological Systems Theory assumes that the psychological and demographic characteristics of parents and children can be the predictor of parent involvement. In addition, they might be the foundations for developing an understanding of the underlying factors of parent involvement in education. In their model, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) and Epstein (1995) also bear the stamp of the Ecological Systems Theory. That is, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1997) also include the factors that might indirectly influence the development of children as playing a role in whether parents decide to become involved in the education of their children, in their first level of the model (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005). On the other hand, Epstein (1995) lays emphasis on the importance of the partnership between family, school, and community. Moreover, she proposes a typology for the specific forms of how parents become involved in education.

2.1.2 Family System Theory

Family, as a part of the microsystem, also has internal relations that affect the members within it. In other words, the family operates as a system in which all of the members are interconnected with each other. This is the basic assumption of the

Family System Theory. Each member of the family is interdependent, which means that the structure, organization, and transactional patterns of the family have a powerful effect on each individual member, in terms of shaping and determining their behavior (Miller et al., 2000). Actually, there is a reciprocal relationship between the family system and family members (Minuchin, 1985). That is, the members of the family play a role in shaping the family system; on the other hand, the family system may also have an influence on the members of the family.

Family, which is a complex system, consists of the various sub-systems, which emerged as a result of the relations among family members (Cox & Paley, 1997; Minuchin, 1985). For example, in a nuclear family, including a mother, a father, and a child, there are three groups of sub-systems. The entire family system functions through the sub-systems that exist with the dyadic interactions (i.e., mother-child, father-child, and mother-father) and triadic interactions (i.e., mother-father-child). More specifically, the parental sub-systems, which are the product of interactions between mother and father, include the coparenting sub-system and the marital sub-system. Marital sub-system refers to the relations between partners in their marriage. On the other hand, the coparenting sub-system refers to the relations between mother and father in parenting practices with each other (Feinberg, 2003). Consequently, in the family system theory, coparenting is considered as an extension of the marital relations emerging as a result of the participation of the child in a family (Lindsey, Caldera, & Colwell, 2005; Minuchin, 1985).

Moreover, the Family System Theory also assumes that the family system is more than the sum of the members of the family (Cox & Payne, 1997). That is, the family system as a whole may produce more characteristics about itself than each member will present individually. For example, one can observe different representations when dealing with each member individually versus the family as a whole. To sum up, a complete understanding of the family can not be developed through the individual examination of its members, so the family should also be studied as a whole, and the interactions between each member of the family should likewise be considered (Whitchurch & Constantine, 2009).

From the perspective of Family System Theory (Cox & Pale 1997; Minuchin, 1985), in addition to the father and mother's personal characteristics, attitudes and beliefs, the dyadic relationship presented between the parents is interconnected and dependent on a sub-system that can not be fully understood individually in the sense of individual father or mother. This independent form of the sub-system is a sub-system of the family that has an influence on family practices, like involvement with children (Minuchin, 1985). Parents may create some mutual motivational beliefs which are independent of the individual mother or father. This mutual parenting refers to the coparenting that represents the collaboration, coherence, respect, and equality between parents regarding parenting practices (Feinberg, 2003). The Family System Theory can form a basis for understanding the coparenting relationship, which is a sub-system of the family.

In conclusion, the Family System Theory, which focuses on the structure and the processes of the family is a good basis from which to examine the family, through the interaction of its members with each other (James, Coard, Fine, & Rudy, 2018; Palkovitz, Fagan, & Hull, 2013). In this respect, the current study was motivated to account for the possible interactions in the form of a particular relationship between partners in the family system, i.e. one that exists when they have at least one child. The examination of the individual and underlying psychological factors for the decisions of parents to become involved, and their behaviors regarding this involvement, allow for a better understanding of the partner relationship and its effect on parent involvement in the education of children.

2.2 Coparenting Relationship

The coparenting relationship that develops as a result of the involvement of a new member in the family system is referred to a sub-system representing the relations between the mother or mother figure and father or father figure with regards to parenting practices. In the following sections, the conceptualization of this sub-system was introduced and the significance of it regarding child and family outcomes is discussed.

2.2.1 Definition and Conceptualization of Coparenting Relationship

A term that represents the relationship between two members of the microsystem, as defined by Bronfenbrenner (1979), has emerged to describe a form of the relationship between the parents, which is the partnership of the parents in terms of their parenting practices. Some researchers use this term to describe the relationship between the two people who have started the family through a parenting alliance (e.g., Abidin & Brunner, 1995), while others have termed it as coparenting (e.g., Feinberg, 2003; Margolin, Gordis, & John, 2001; McHale & Irace, 2011; Van Egeren & Hawkins, 2004).

In the general sense, coparenting is a type of relationship between couples, such as romantic relations, emotional, or financial relations. However, coparenting is a form of an enlarged relationship between partners (Lindsey et al., 2005). That is to say, it emerges as a result of having at least one child. However, it is strongly related to the relationship quality between partners (Talbot, Baker & McHale, 2009; Van Egeren, 2004; Feinberg, Kan, & Hetherington, 2007; Margolin et al., 2001; Morrill, 2010), and therefore is a different structure, which refers to a type of relationship between partners when they become parents. This refers to the fact that coparenting relationships constitute a distinct part of the family system that leads to a different manifestation of the relationship between parents and children. For example, coparenting relations do not include romantic and sexual aspects of the relationship between parents (Feinberg, 2003). Indeed, coparenting does not only involve the relationship between parents. It also includes triadic relations that are the "junction" of the system, including those between the mother, father, and child (McHale, Kuersten-Hogan, & Rao, 2004; McHale & Coates, 2014).

Through the development of literature, some definitions related to coparenting have been produced to clarify what coparenting is. Mainly, coparenting can be described as "the ways that parents and/or parental figures relate to each other in the role of parent" (Feinberg, 2003, p.96). In addition, Fivaz-Deperusienge, Frascarola, and Corboz-Warney (1996) refer to coparenting as the coordination among family members. Van Egeren and Hawkins (2004) claim that "coparenting exists when at least two individuals are expected by mutual agreement or societal norms to have conjoint

responsibility for a particular child's well-being" (p. 166). The most recent definition for coparenting was offered by McHale and Irace (2011) which is "coparenting, stripped to its essence, is a shared activity undertaken by those adults responsible for the care and upbringing of children" (p. 16). As a result, depending on these definitions in a broad sense, coparenting refers to the relationship and shared activities between two or more caregivers or parental figures, who are responsible for the caring and rearing of a shared child, or more than one child, in a context where mutual parental support and coordination exists. Within coparenting, parents work with or against each other in the process of being a parent (Belsky et al., 1995). For example, parents may have some agreements and/or disagreements, encouragement and/or undermining related to parenthood.

Various conceptualizations of coparenting were proposed in different studies to clarify the coparenting relationship. For example, Margolin et al. (2001) asserted that the coparenting includes cooperation, which refers to the respect and support that parents have for each other, conflict between parents in terms of parenting practices, and triangulation, which reflects the attempt of a spouse to build up an alliance with the child in order to weaken the parenting authority of the other parent. On the other hand, Konold and Abidin (2001) proposed two dimensions of the coparenting relationship: communication and teamwork between parents, and feeling of respect from one parent towards the other. Moreover, Van Egeren and Hawkins (2004) prosed that coparenting relations consist of four sub-dimensions, which include coparenting support, coparenting agreement, coparenting solidarity, and shared parenting.

Furthermore, in an effort to deepen and extend current research and theory on coparenting, Feinberg (2003) proposed an ecological model of coparenting. This work was consulted by Feinberg et al. (2012) in order to develop an instrument for the multidimensional assessment of coparenting, for delineating coparenting relationships between parents. This model consists of four domains of coparenting: childrearing agreement, division of (child-related) labor, support for or undermining of the coparenting role, and the joint management of family interactions. Although these dimensions correspond to distinct domains of coparenting, as represented in Figure 2.1, they are connected to each other. The intersections in the figure represent the fact

that these domains have common interconnected features that may be affected by an intervention, and even the target of the intervention is another dimension (Feinberg, 2003).

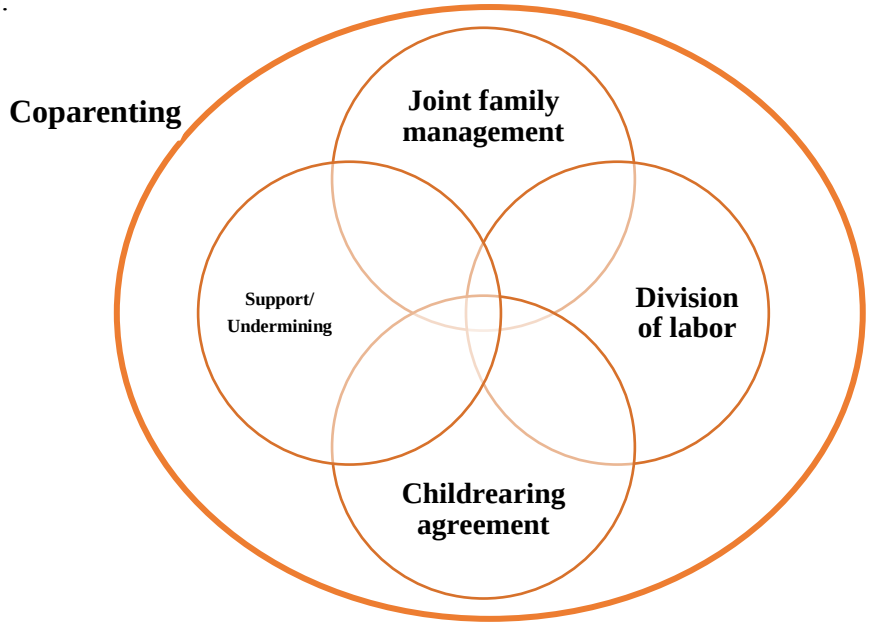

Figure 2.3. Dimensions of ecological model of coparenting (adapted from Feinberg, 2003)

Childrearing agreement refers to the agreement or disagreement between partners in childrearing-related practices, such as "moral values, behavioral expectations and discipline, children's emotional needs, educational standards and priorities, safety and peer association" (Feinberg, 2003, p. 102). That is, this domain includes the agreement or disagreement between parents regarding goals and ideas related to child-rearing. For instance, parents may have similar or different opinions on the development and education of their child. One of the parents may consider that the academic development of the child is essential to be successful in education, so s/he wants the child should participate as many as courses to develop academically in different subjects such as mental arithmetic, math, or science. On the other side, the other parent may believe that the play is more important for the development of the child, so s/he may insist on giving the child a chance to play as much as possible instead of academic courses. The different ideas of these two parents regarding their children's development and education may lead to a disagreement between parents. However, the parents might agree with each other the approach to development and

education presented in this example. The agreements or disagreements between parents may affect the decision regarding child-related issues.

The second domain of the model, which is the division of labor (i.e., specifically referring to the division of parental labor), points out the division of responsibilities related to childcare and the child-related financial issues of parents. This construct refers to the sense of responsibility the spouse feels towards doing his or her share of the parenting practices. For example, a parent's fair share of the work for the tidying up of the room after playing with their child is a typical example of the division of labor in the coparenting relationship. The fair division of the child-related works may prevent parents from becoming exhausted because of the continued workload by fairly sharing at least child-related works.

The third domain is support/undermining, which includes two opposite sub-domains of the coparenting relationship. These two sub-domains refer to whether parents support or undermine each other regarding parental competence. The coparenting support includes the support provided by the other spouse towards parenting-related issues, in order to enhance the parenting actions taken by the other parent. This domain refers to the supportive role of parents towards each other in terms of their parenting. Moreover, this construct also includes the behavior of one parent, showing respect for other parent's parenting. That is, one parent may express clearly the expression for the way his or her partner's way of becoming a parent and support him or her in the parenting practices. To illustrate, a mother may appreciate the father's efforts to participate in education and support him when he is at his wits' end as a parent. The supportiveness of the mother may lead to positive behaviors and thoughts of the father in terms of involvement. On the other hand, undermining is the exact opposite of coparenting support. That is, undermining refers to a parent's overt or covert practices to make weak, or to thwart, the parenting of the spouse (Belsky et al., 1995; Van Egeren & Hawkins, 2004). For example, a parent may compete with the other parent for the child's attention to show s/he is better in parenting than the other parent when their child needs assistance for an educational activity. Also, a parent may make jokes or sarcastic comments about the inefficacy of the other parents in helping the child for a specific field such as science or math. In short, these two sub-domains

of coparenting relationship may lead to different patterns of relations between family members in the family system. Although these two domains were included in a single structure, according to Feinberg et al. (2012), these domains could be considered as distinct dimensions that are correlated but not the same.

The last domain of the model is joint family management, which refers to the management of interactions between family members (Feinberg et al., 2012). Specifically, this domain includes the management of inter-parental conflicts, avoiding burdening the children with choosing, or being forced to take, a side in the conflict occurring between the parents and maintaining the balance between parents during their interactions with the child or children. To illustrate, the conflict between parents may occur because of marital problems such as jealousy or ignorance. This domain refers to what extent the parents can resolve the conflict between them without exposing their child to the conflict.

In conclusion, the ecological model of coparenting presents the dynamics of the coparenting sub-system serving the functioning of the overall family system. The coparenting sub-system affects the functioning of the family system by influencing the dyadic (mother-father, mother-child, and father-child) and triadic (mother-father-child) sub-systems of the family. The coparenting relationship between parents leads to the thoughts, behaviors, and beliefs of the family members, especially mothers and fathers (Feinberg, 2003). Moreover, the coparental relationship produces negative or positive outcomes for the members of the family and the family system itself.

2.2.2 Significance of Coparenting Relationship

Research on coparenting has been popular in the last few decades (Feinberg, 2003). Numerous studies were conducted in order to explore the potential effects of coparenting on individual members of the family or the entire family system. In this section, a brief summary of the research on coparenting is presented in order to draw attention to the importance of the coparenting relationship for members of the family, especially for the child or the children, and for the overall structure of the family.

Some of the studies were conducted to examine the association between the quality of the coparenting relationship and child outcomes. A growing body of

research indicates that there are significant effects of the coparenting relationship on the social and academic competence of children. For example, Cabrera et al. (2012), reported that high levels of conflict between parents regarding parenting practices is an indicator of how coparenting leads to the lower academic (e.g., math and literacy skills) and social skills (e.g., playing with other children and ability to understand others) in preschool children. On the other hand, their study also revealed that shared decision-making was associated with positive results in the academic and social skill development of children. Similarly, Jahromi, Zeiders, Updegraff, Umaña-Taylor, and Bayless (2018) also reported that coparenting conflict is associated negatively with the academic and social readiness of preschool children. For example, a conflict between parents regarding helping with their child's homework may cause one parent to withdraw from becoming involved in efforts made to support his or her child. Therefore, the child does not receive the support needed in order to enhance their learning abilities. Besides, the continuous conflict between the parents may model this type of behavior for their child, who then may engage in continuous conflict with their peers.

Particular to the educational and academic development of children, some research studies have demonstrated the effect of the coparenting relationship on children (e.g., classroom problems, perception of academic expectations, etc.). For instance, Dopkins, Stright, and Neitzel (2009) investigated the potential effects of supportive coparenting, including the coherence or unity of information given to the child, being model in the same way, and supportive language or behavior for the decision or ideas regarding problems the child faces in the classroom. They specifically reported that supportive coparenting relationship between parents is a strong predictor of classroom adjustment by the children, including paying attention to instruction in the classroom, the grades of children and whether they work actively and independently, in response to parental rejection. Another influence of coparenting refers to how parents convey messages regarding their perception of academic expectations. According to Gniewosz and Noack (2012), children better understand and acknowledge their parents' values regarding academic competence when the parents demonstrate mutual agreement concerning child-related issues. This is due to

the fact that parents place coherent values and convey bidirectional messages about the importance of academic performance, so the messages coming from two sources become sufficiently persuasive for children. For example, in the context of early childhood education, parents may be in disagreement about the activities that they believe their children should engage in. More clearly, one of the parents may think that their child is capable of fulfilling tasks that require a high level of cognitive demand. On the other hand, the other parent may believe the opposite. This disagreement creates uncertainty for the child, and a confused child does not understand what his or her parents actually expect from him or her.

There are also some other studies that specifically provide evidence regarding the possible effects of coparenting on the social and emotional competence of children. According to these studies, negative coparenting relations, such as continuing conflict between the parents, the undermining of the other parent's parenting methods, low levels of partner support and division of labor for parenting-related works and responsibilities, and high levels of disagreement, may be related to behavioral problems concerning peer relations, such as conflict with peers and a low level of peer conversation in infants, preschool children and middle childhood (Leary & Katz, 2004; LeRoy, Mahoney, Pargament, & DeMaris, 2013; McHale, Johnson, & Sinclair, 1999), and aggressive behavior towards other children during preschool (McHale & Rasmussen, 1998). For example, undermining or insulting behaviors and language of parents towards each other may provide an influential model to the child, so this might create some behavioral problems such as peer conflict, bullying, or aggression. The child may think that a method of solving inter-personal problems is to insult or behave badly because his or her mother and father behave in such ways towards each other. In contrast to the negative relationship between parents, positive coparenting relations such as cooperation in coparenting, enhances pro-social behaviors (i.e., behaviors displayed for the sake of society, such as helping other people) of children during the early childhood period (Scrimgeour et al., 2013), and higher levels of symbolic play and lower levels of aggressive play by toddlers (Keren et al., 2005).

Similarly, it was also claimed that there is a relationship between negative coparenting, and the emotional and behavior-related problems of children (e.g.,

Jouriles et al., 1991; McHale, 1995). For example, the examination of the outcomes of coparenting for children's psychological adjustment via a meta-analysis study of Teubert and Pinguart (2010) revealed that coparental competence (i.e., ensuring cooperation and agreement, avoiding conflict and triangulation) between parents indicated significant associations with problematic externalizing and internalizing behaviors, social functioning and the attachment of children to the father or mother. In addition, Karreman, Tuijl, Aken, and Deković, M. (2008) found that the quality of coparenting has an effect on effortful control, i.e. self-regulation of emotions and emotion-related behaviors, of preschool children. The results of these studies mean that positive coparental relations contribute to increase positive behaviors and reduce the negative behavior of children.

The quality of coparenting may influence children most obviously through the conflict between parents. To illustrate, according to Feinberg (2003), coparenting based problems for child development may be caused by the conflict between parents. For example, coparenting conflict may create a hostile and confusing atmosphere in which children may feel insecure or behave reactively. Moreover, the conflict between parents may create an environment in which children feel a lack of sensitive and stimulating parenting. On the other hand, an environment where supportive and appreciative behaviors and thoughts of parents exist, may enhance the development of children by creating a "house" in which children feel secure against any devastating family relationships, and instead model the good aspect of family relationships. As a consequence, a positive relationship between parents in terms of parenting practices is important for creating an environment that supports and enhances the development of the children (Favez et al., 2016).

In addition to the particular effect of the quality of the coparenting relationship on the development and education of children, it may also have an influence on the sub-system, including the relationship between the spouses. That is, some studies revealed that the relationship of coparenting indicated an influence on the well-being of the family structure. For example, Kwan, Kwok, and Ling (2015) and Pedro, Ribeiro, and Shelton (2012) reported that the quality of the coparenting relationship was a positive predictor for the satisfaction of mothers and fathers regarding their

marriage. The parents were more satisfied in their marriage when they establish a supportive, respectful, coherent, and affirmative relationship in terms of parenting. For example, the fair division of child-related work and responsibilities can reduce the burden of the parents, and this fulfills the needs of the parents in terms of their parenting practices. Therefore, in addition to the love, support or communication they each receive, the fair sharing of child-related work, which can be great burdens for partners with a child or children, may increase the satisfaction of one or both of the parents, by allowing to take a breath.

Furthermore, the study of Thullen and Bonsall (2017) demonstrated that the low level of agreement between parents, and the support given by parents to each other, is associated with high-levels of parenting-related stress. For example, this may refer to disagreements between parents regarding how much time they should devote to activities requiring parent involvement in education. One of the parents may believe that their involvement is important in order to provide support to the child, and therefore should allow extra time for such participation, even if they are required to make personal sacrifices in order to become involved. On the other hand, the other parent may believe that education is the work of the school, and that s/he does not have time for this unnecessary "burden" in their life. As a result, they may push against each other with what they believe regarding the level of parent involvement, and this pressure may create stress because they are forced to do something that they do not believe should be required of them. Similarly, Solmeyer and Feinberg (2011) reported that the more parents undermine or thwart their spouse's parenting, the more they experience stress and depression. To illustrate, if a parent does not trust the parenting abilities of his or her partner, makes cruel jokes or comments regarding the parenting style of other parent, and tries to show herself or himself as the better parent, the parent who is exposed to this type of bad behavior or comments is inclined to think that s/he is inadequate and should not be involved in the child's care or education. Then, s/he may feel stress because of the disappointing behaviors or comments of her or his spouse. On the other hand, greater support from either the mother or father to the other parent is linked to lower levels of stress and depression, and also a high level of efficacy.

In addition to the outcomes of coparenting quality on the child and spouses, it also affects the behaviors and beliefs of the parents. For example, according to Abidin and Brunner (1995), in addition to parenting stress levels and the satisfaction of parents in regards to their marriage, the quality of coparenting relations was significantly linked to styles of parenting. That is, parents who have a high level of coparenting quality display more patterns of authoritative parenting behaviors towards their children. Even, among the types of relationships between mother and father (e.g., marital conflict and adjustment), the coparenting relationship between parents was found to strongly affect parenting behaviors (Feinberg et al., 2007).

In conclusion, the quality of the coparenting relationship between parents is not only crucial for family members on an individual basis, but also affects the family structure as a whole. These effects may lead to determining how the family system functions. More clearly, it may be a determining factor in producing positive child, parent, and family outcomes. Moreover, it may also lead to how the members of the family think, believe, and behave. Specifically, coparenting may be an influential factor in the parenting abilities and behavior of the parent or the motivation behind their parenting beliefs and practices, such as parental school involvement. More clearly, the quality of the coparenting relationship may have direct effects on the parental motivational beliefs regarding involvement, such as role beliefs and self-efficacy belief (Favez et al., 2016; Indrasari & Dewi, 2018; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008; Solmeyer & Feinberg, 2011), and the levels of parent involvement (Berryhill, 2017; Chen et al., 2017). Understanding the coparenting relationship between parents in the context of parent-school relations may be useful in order to extend the definition and conceptualization of parent involvement in education, and to provide complementary explanations for why parents are or are not involved, or what the determining factors are for the level of parent involvement in education. In the parent involvement literature, there are some models to explain what parent involvement is, how it works and what factors have an influence on it. For example, Epstein (1995) attempted to conceptualize parent involvement by specifying the parent involvement activities. In addition to this, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) endeavored to determine the factors affecting the involvement level of parents. However, these two

models of parent involvement focused on the individual level of relations, and paid scant attention to the dynamics of the relationships in the family. In relation to that, questioning the possible associations between the coparental relationship and the parent involvement in education may provide new evidence for extending and deepening the knowledge of parent involvement by including inner-family relations in the context of parent and school associations.

2.3 Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's Model of Parent Involvement Processes in Education

Epstein (1995) proposed a model of parent involvement, which was a promising model in terms of revealing the types of parent involvement activities, either at home or at school (discussed in detail in section 2.4.2.1). Briefly, Epstein (1995) emphasized the importance of parents' involvement in education and provided a contemporary specification of the different types of parent involvement activities in her time. Although the model draws a clear picture of the types of possible parent involvement activities, it does not provide an overall picture of the whole parent involvement process (Chrispeels & Rivero, 2001). In 1995, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler realized the inefficacy of the explanations provided in the current literature at the time, which focused on why parents became involved in their children's education, and how this involvement had a positive impact on a child's education. Although there were plenty of research studies seeking the possible positive effect of parent involvement on child development and education (e.g., Casto & Lewis,1984; Fantuzzo, Davis, & Ginsburg, 1995; Herman & Yeh, 1983; Hess, Holloway, Dickson, & Price,1984), the research studies which were in search of the motivations behind parent involvement, and the mechanisms of parent involvement, were rare.

In addition, although there were some studies related to the decision mechanism of parents regarding their involvement in education of their children (e.g., Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992), these research studies did not reflect overall picture of what determined parental decisions of involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005). Based on this assumption, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) suggested a more comprehensive, competent, and far-reaching model to provide

possible answers with three initial questions about parent involvement: "(1) Why do parents become involved in various aspects of their children's education? (2) When do they become so involved? and (3) How does their involvement influence school outcomes?" With regard to parents, the model provides answers to the question of "Should I, and will I, become involved in my child's education?", which emerged from personal beliefs, behaviors, and experiences of parents (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997, p.9). That is, contrary to the traditional parent involvement literature, which had focused pragmatically on the explicit effects of parent involvement in children's education or development, this model provided explanations for the underlying mechanisms of parent involvement. In other words, the model introduced the motivational factors for the decisions of parents to become involved in their child's education, and the mechanism of the effects of parent involvement on the developmental and educational outcomes of children (Reed, Jones, Walker, & Hoover-Dempsey, 2000; Walker et al., 2005).

The original model of parent involvement processes in education has undergone some minor revisions based on research findings (Ertan, 2017; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Walker et al., 2005). Therefore, the model addressed below is the most recent form of the model. On the other hand, the revisions in the first two levels, which are the subject of this research, were also discussed at the end of this section to inform the readers regarding the progress of the model.

The current version of the model includes six levels of parent involvement (Figure 1): (1) the determining factors of parent involvement in education, (2) parent involvement forms, (3) parents' involvement mechanisms that have influence on child outcomes (4) student perceptions of parents' involvement mechanisms, (5) student proximal academic outcomes that lead to student achievement and (6) student achievement. In the first level of the model, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) introduced the different contextual factors that might affect the involvement decision and the frequency of their involvement in education. This level constitutes the underlying factors that lead to parent involvement in education. Specifically, it includes parental role activity beliefs regarding involvement in the child's education, parental self-efficacy belies for helping the child succeed in school, the general

invitation from school, specific invitations from the teacher(s), specific invitations from the child, parental knowledge and skills, and parental time, energy and desire). Level 1.5 presents the two different categories representing different parent involvement behaviors (i.e., school-based and home-based involvement). The second level explains how parents' involvement produces effects on the achievement of children based on parental point of view. More clearly, it is proposed that according to parents, parent involvement in education affect children's achievement through four different mechanisms: (a) encouraging the child for engagement in educational activities, (b) being a model for school- or learning-related activities, (c) appreciating the child in terms of the work that s/he does for education, and (d) supporting the child in learning by providing direct instruction or engaging in shared thinking processes. In relation to the second level, the third level indicates how children perceive the mechanisms of the effect of parent involvement presented in the second level. The fourth level of the model represents the proximal academic outcomes that lead to student achievement in school with the enhancement of academic self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation to learn, self-regulatory strategy use, and social self-efficacy for establishing a relationship with teachers. The overall process in the model enhances the education and learning of the child and contribute to the overall achievement of the child represented at fifth level.

The current study focuses on the first two levels of the model to understand the factors that influence the involvement decisions of parents in the context of the family system. More specifically, the current study centralized on the motivational beliefs of parents reflecting personal beliefs of parents regarding their role and self-efficacy for involvement in education. These two constructs were included because it was specifically aimed to investigate parents' personal beliefs regarding their involvement in the context of family relations. On the other hand, constructs related to valance towards school, perception of invitations from others (i.e., teacher, child, and school) and self-perceived life context were not included in the study. The current study is limited to the personal motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education. On the other hand, the other factors were also presented in Figure 2.3, depicting the overall process of the model.

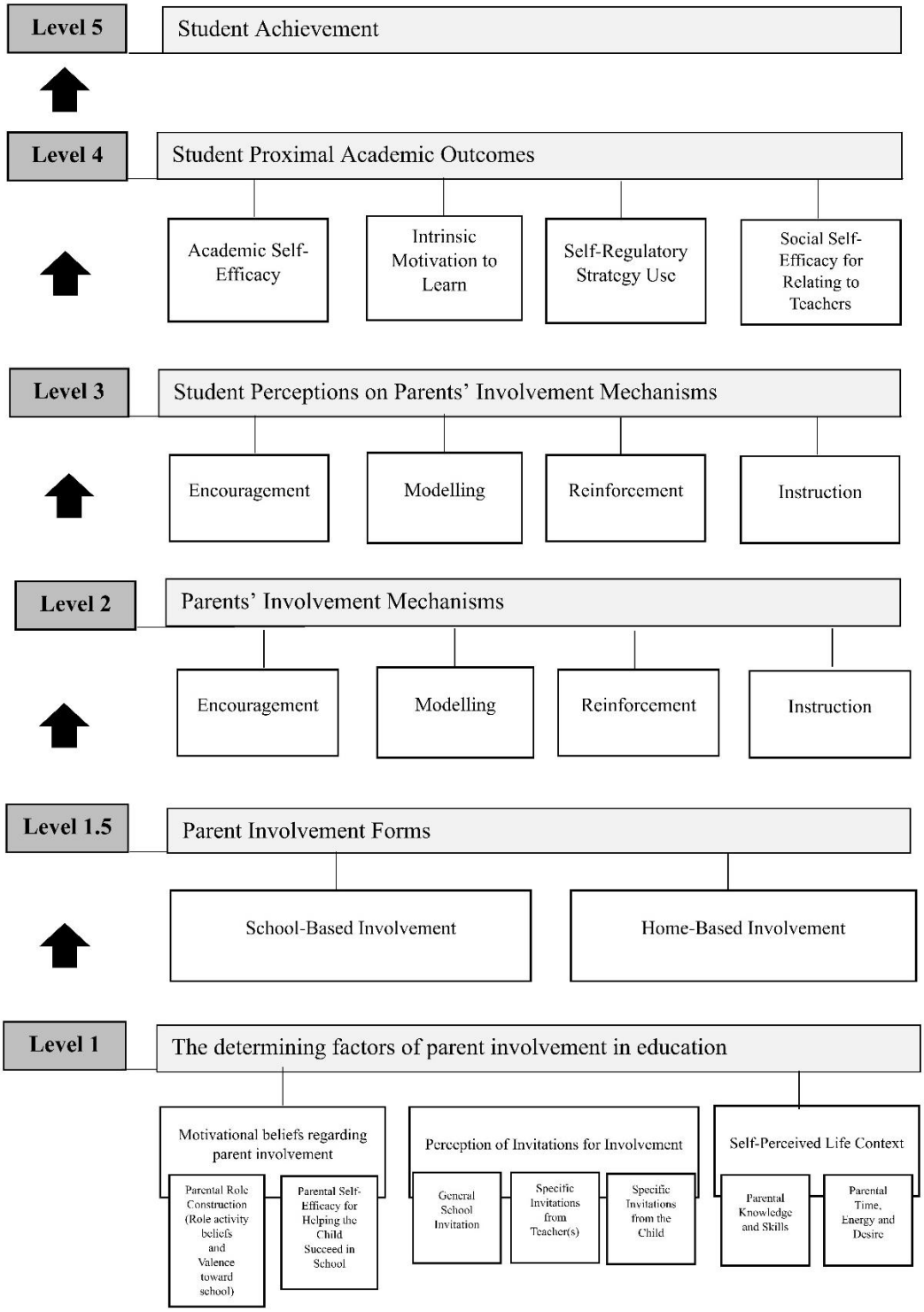

Figure 2.4. Model of parent involvement processes in education (adapted from Ertan, 2017; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005; Walker et al., 2005)

2.3.1 Progress of the Model

The findings based on the field research conducted between 2001 and 2004 regarding the test of the theoretical model indicated that the model needed some revisions (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005). Therefore, they decided to make some changes in the initial model. Moreover, Walker and her colleagues (2005) also reported these changes in an article that discussed the model revisions and scale development regarding the model of parent involvement processes in education. First of all, the constructs assumed as the determining factors of the parent involvement forms at the first versions of the model which are self-perceived life context (parents' self-perceived time and energy, and self-perceived skills and knowledge), and perceptions of specific child invitations were moved to the first level of model which includes the determinants of whether parents become involved. Secondly, the general invitation from the child removed from the model depending on the weak statistical evidence. That is, this construct weakly predicted parent involvement in education and showed low internal consistency. Lastly, the valance toward school was added to the role construction as a sub-construct. After these revisions on the model, the constructs were categorized into three overarching constructs that influence the decision of parents for involvement: (a) parents' motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education (i.e., parental role construction for involvement in the child's education and parental self-efficacy for helping the child succeed in school) (b) parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others (i.e., parents' perceptions of general invitations for involvement from the school and perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child and perceptions of specific invitations for involvement from the child's teacher), and (c) parents' perceived life context (i.e., perceptions of their available time and energy, and specific skills and knowledge for involvement).

A minor revision also was suggested by Ertan (2017). A sub-construction named as self-perceived desire was added to the self-perceived life context construct by the Ertan (2017) based on the assumption of Weeden (2001) that parents desire to meet their children's needs even though they have exhausted workday. Basically, after the revisions, the construct refers to the perception of parents on whether they have time, energy, and desire for participating in their children's educational activities

(Ertan, 2017; Walker et al. 2005). The final form of the model was depicted in Figure 2.4.

2.3.2 Predictors of Parent Involvement

Before moving the detailed discussion of motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education proposed in the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's model of parent involvement processes in education, some predictors of the parent involvement which have been reported as influential factors for the involvement of parents in education were discussed in this section. In their famous study, Grolnick et al. (1997) categorized the factors that can influence a parent's involvement in the education of their children: characteristics of parents and children, family context and behaviors, and attitudes of schools. Accordingly, in this section, the predictors of parent involvement will be presented depending on this categorization, with some slight changes and additions. That is, the predictors, categorized as school-related characteristics (the behaviors and attitudes of teachers and other staff), child-related, family status-related, and community- or social environment-related.

First of all, family status variables may be linked to the involvement levels of parents in the education of their children. Some research studies revealed that the SES of parents is a strong predictor of the level of involvement displayed by parents in regards to the education of their children (Arnold, Zeljo, Doctoroff, & Ortiz, 2008; Griffith, 1998; Grolnick et al., 1997; Sheldon, 2002). For example, parents from low SES tend to participate less in activities requiring parent involvement, such as volunteering for school-related work or helping their children with homework in the home. According to Crozier (1999), parents from low SES might consider the teacher of the child as better-equipped in terms of education and development of their child than themselves, and they might think that the teacher instead of their involvement, so they might choose to participate less frequently.

Some other studies demonstrated the effects of specific indicators of the SES on the level of parent involvement. That is, some studies reported that the educational level of parents positively related to the extent of parent involvement (Goldberg, Tan, Davis, & Easterbrooks, 2013; Kohl, Lengua, & McMahon, 2000; Nzinga-Johnson,

Baker, & Aupperlee, 2009). Specifically, Fantuzzo et al. (2000) reported that the parents of preschoolers and first graders, who have higher education degrees, greater than from the high school level, were more willing to participate in their children's education than parents who did not hold such degrees. The tendency to become less involved might be observed explicitly in parent(s) who dropped out school during the early periods of the education process – primary school. To illustrate, parents may believe their input would be inefficient in helping their child at home with an activity such as a science project where the teacher requires the children to make, due to the fact that s/he may not have the necessary skills and knowledge for that activity, for they dropped out of school early in their upbringing, or more specifically, because of their level of illiteracy. In relation to educational background, the income of the parents is also another factor that might influence the level of parent involvement. For example, Cooper (2010) reported that the involvement level of poorer parents in their children's preschool education is lower than their wealthy counterparts (Cooper, 2010; Reynolds, Weissberg, & Kasprow, 1992). A low income leads to a low level of involvement because of the different cultural and educational backgrounds of the parents, compared to the teachers and other school staff (Izzo et al., 1999). For example, a parent may believe the teacher superior to them, because of his or her different educational or cultural background as a result of the wage gap between the parent(s) and the teacher. Then, this parent abstains from participating in school-related activities or communication with the teacher. On the other hand, there may be different degrees of influence that income has on parent involvement in education. Park and Holloway (2013), for example, found that although lower-income parents are less involved in school-based activities, they have higher or equal participation in home-based involvement.

The structure of the family also can be a predictor of parent involvement in education (Fantuzzo et al., 2000; Grolnick et al., 1997; Kohl et al., 2000). That is, the different structural context of the family may decrease parent involvement in education (e.g., single-parent families, parents with more children, families with divorced parents). For instance, Arnold et al. (2008) reported that single-parents become less involved in children's educational activities than parents in two-parent families.

Because they take all responsibilities regarding family by themselves, single-parents may not create extra time for involvement in the education of children.

The employment status of parents is another factor that can influence the level of parent involvement. However, there are some inconsistent findings related to the employment status of the parents and its effect on parent involvement. Holloway, Yamamoto, Suzuki, and Mindnich (2008) reported that there is not a significant association between the employment status of parents and their involvement levels. On the other hand, some other research studies revealed that employed parents had less of a chance to become involved than unemployed parents (e.g., Castro, Bryant, Peisner-Feinberg, & Skinner, 2004; Ji & Koblinsky, 2009). This might be due to the lack of time and energy of a parent who is employed full time. For example, a parent who works eight hours in a day can not create the time to volunteer for a school activity due to their strict work schedule. Similarly, the same parent may feel exhausted because of an intense work environment, and therefore, this may cause a decrease in their levels of involvement in activities that are home-based, such as reading a book to the child.

Being a member of a minority group in a country may also influence the involvement levels of parents as a result of some inefficacies of the parents, where they do not possess the abilities required to function in a specific society. For example, minority groups that live in Canada tend to be less involved in preschool intervention programs because of their inadequacy in speaking English (Pelletier & Brent, 2002). This finding was also supported by some other studies related to the involvement of minority groups in early childhood settings (e.g., Dyson, 2001; Harper & Pelletier, 2010; Nzinga-Johnson et al., 2009; Peña, 2000; Zhang et al., 2014). These studies revealed that parents who were originally born and raised in a country different from the one in which they live, may be unqualified in terms of language, culture, or values of the country of current residence. In addition to the previous language example, the cultural differences or differences in values, may make the parent(s) feel that the school and teacher may find their cultural characteristics and values odd, so s/he might avoid communicating with the school or participating in school-based activities.

In addition to the demographic characteristics of the parents, some of the child-related factors can also predict the level of parent involvement in the education of their child. Specifically, the age or grade level of the children may affect the extent of parent involvement. For example, a longitudinal study conducted by Izzo et al. (1999) reported that the frequency of parent involvement had decreased from kindergarten through the third grade—contact between parent and teacher, and school-based involvement. Similarly, Eccles and Harold (1996) also reported that the involvement of the parent declines with the age of children. There might be several reasons why the levels of parent involvement decrease with the rise of age or grade level. Firstly, parents may believe that older children do not need their help, because they are capable of doing many things without the support of their parents, and compared to younger children, may feel they do not wish for their parents to participate (Baker, 1997). For example, according to Deslandes and Cloutier (2002), although adolescents do not object to the involvement of their parents in their education and they support most parental activities, they do not want their parents physically present at school. Second, younger children may invite their parents to become involved in parent involvement activities, such as volunteering in activities or helping at home with school-related work (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Walker et al., 2005). On the other hand, the invitation from older children, e.g. high school children, is very rare or does not exist because of their developmental level and the context of their level of education. This brings us to the third reason why parents participate less as their children become older. More clearly, the context of the educational level may restrict the possible activities that are even considered to be parent involvement activities. For example, there are plenty of parent involvement activities in the early childhood setting, such as shared book reading activity in the classroom, being a volunteer on a field trip activity, participation seminars, and discussion groups. There is also the chance to communicate with the teacher when parents pick their children up form school. Since simply having a quick word with the teacher is considered as a parent involvement activity, the participation levels of parents of younger children are greater than of those who are parents of older ones.

Similar to an invitation from the child, there are other external factors, such as invitations from the school or directly from the teacher, which also encourage and influence the participation level of parents in the education of their child (Colgate, Ginns, & Bagnal, 2017; Reed et al., 2000). Specifically, an important school-related predictor of parent involvement is the general school climate. According to Griffith (1998), a positive school climate, one in which teachers, administrators, and other school staff establish a positive relationship with parents, conveys positive messages regarding the arrangement of the environment. Probably the most visible predictor of parent involvement is the teacher's attitude towards the parents and their involvement in the education process. According to Dauber and Epstein (1993), the attitude of teachers towards parents and their involvement is a determinant for whether they will provide opportunities for the involvement of parents in various activities. Moreover, Eccles and Harold (1996) asserted that the attitudes of the school personnel are an important determinant as to whether parent involvement will increase.

The community or social environment surrounding the family is also an influential factor regarding parent involvement. McKay, Atkins, Hawkins, Brown, and Lynn (2003) reported that the social support received from other parents at the school is positively related to the parents' involvement at home. To illustrate, when a parent is faced with a problem in terms of school-related work or activities, the support of other parents in the school may contribute to solve the problem. Similarly, Sheldon (2002) reported that the size of the social networks of the parents relates to both school-based and home-based involvement levels.

In conclusion, some family- and school-related factors discussed in this section may determine the involvement behaviors of parents in education. Although some research studies attempted to clarify the factors that may possibly have an influence on parent involvement, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997, 2005) provided a more far-reaching and tidier model to present the underlying psychological factors that may lead to the decisions of parents to become involved in their child's education.

2.3.3 First Level of Parent Involvement: The Determining Factors of Parent Involvement in Education

At the first level of their model, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 2005) suggested the motivators that get parents involved in the education of their children provide explanations as to why parents decide to participate in the education of their children (Figure 2.5). The first level of the model includes the personal, contextual, and life-context variables (Whitaker & Hoover-Dempsey, 2013). That is, this level includes constructs that may predict parents' decision about involvement in their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005): motivational beliefs regarding involvement in the child's education (also called as personal motivators) including parental role activity beliefs regarding involvement in the child's education and parental self-efficacy belies for helping the child succeed in school; the perception of invitations, including general school invitations, specific invitations from teacher(s) and specific invitation from the child; and their self-perceived life context, including parental knowledge and skills, and parental time, energy, and desire (Ertan, 2017; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005; Hoover-Dempsey et al. 2005; Walker et al., 2005).

As mentioned before, the current study is limited to the motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education. In other words, the current study concentrated on the effects of the coparental relationships in terms of parenting practices on the parents' personal beliefs role activity and self-efficacy beliefs regarding their involvement in education for two reasons. First, according to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997), role construction, including role activity beliefs and valence towards school, and self-efficacy beliefs are the two most influential and indispensable factors that prompt parental involvement in education. These two factors are the most needed predictors of the parent involvement compared to the invitations from other people— child, teacher, and school— and self-perceived life context — parental knowledge, skills, time, energy, and desire. More clearly, in case of the absence of beliefs regarding the role activity and self-efficacy, the positive effects of the invitation from others might not work for encouraging parents to be involved. Second, the effects of the coparental relationship between parents on the personal motivational beliefs of parents are more probable than the effects specifically on the

invitations from others, which depend on a third person different from the father or mother (Colgate, Ginns, & Bagnal, 2017; Reed et al., 2000). Therefore, the two core predictors of the parent involvement, which may be predicted by the relationship between parents, were included in the study. As a result of this, the variables related to motivational beliefs were discussed in the following sections. Moreover, the valance toward school construct also was not included, as discussed in Section 1.4. Therefore, the role construction variable is represented by just parental role activity beliefs, but it does not include valence towards school.

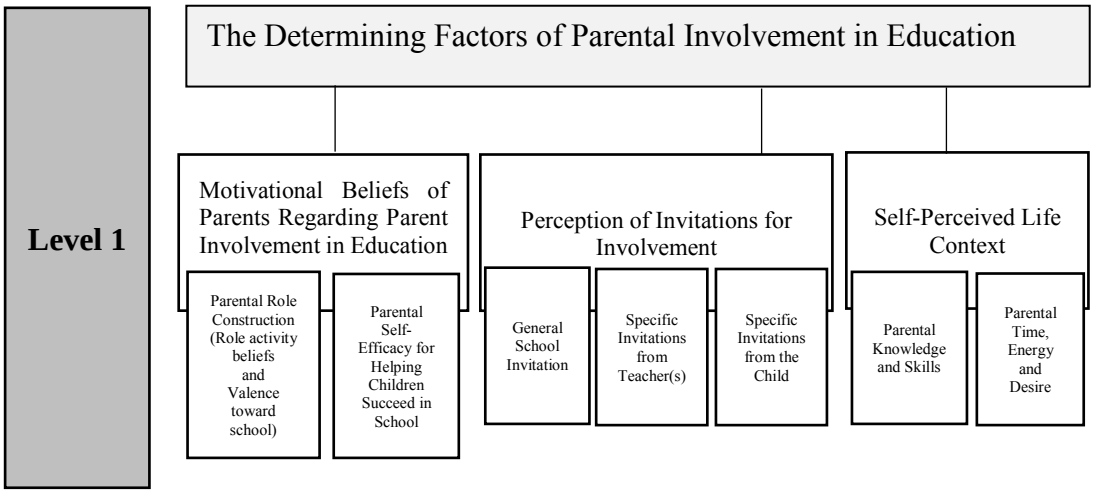

Figure 2.5. First level of model of parent involvement processes

2.3.3.1 Motivational Beliefs of Parents Regarding Parent Involvement

The motivational beliefs of parents regarding parent involvement in education reflect the parents' personal beliefs which motivate or demotivate them to decide to become involved in the education of their child. The motivational beliefs of parents regarding parent involvement in child's education as they pertain to their involvement include their beliefs about what they should do in their children's education, which refers to what beliefs they hold about their role in the education of their children, and their sense of efficacy in helping their children for their success in the educational processes (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005; Hoover-Dempsey et al. 2005; Walker et al., 2005). Accordingly, the model includes two constructs that reflect

the motivators of parents becoming involved in education: parental role activity beliefs regarding the involvement in the child's education (RA) and parental self-efficacy belies for helping the child succeed in school (SE).

2.3.3.1.1 Parental Role Activity Beliefs

Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997) grounded the parental role activity beliefs regarding involvement in the child's education in role theory. According to role theory, the roles, which are generated from role expectations that are learned through the experiences of individuals, are social beliefs and behaviors that have an influence on how individuals behave in their social context (Biddle, 1986). That is, what an individual believes his or her role is in society, which society he or she belongs to, is a determining factor for how this individual will behave or act in that society. Therefore, an individual's understanding of their role in a group is important for them to function efficiently in their group (Biddle, 1979, 1986).

Within the scope of role theory, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) believed that parental role beliefs include both the beliefs of the parents regarding their role in the education of their children and their past experiences related to school. That is, parental role construction consists of two sub-constructs (Hoover-Dempsey, Wilkins, Sandler, & O'Connor, 2004; Walker et al., 2005). These sub-constructs are *role activity beliefs* and *valence toward school*. The role activity beliefs of the parents represent the beliefs of the parents related to their role in the education of their children. On the other hand, the valance toward school refers to the past experiences of parents while in school. These experiences might include the school atmosphere and the teachers' approaches towards them. These types of past experiences, which constitute the valance of the parents towards school, affects their current experiences with parent involvement, although to a lesser extent (Whitaker & Hoover-Dempsey, 2013).

Depending on role theory, parental role activity beliefs, which begins before the school years and continues to be formed during the school years of children (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997), is an "enlightenment process of parents" in which the role parents that will take in the "education scene" of their children is

formed. That is, this construct refers to the beliefs of parents regarding what they should do as parents in terms of supporting the education of their children (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005). There might be different views of parents on their place in the education of their children. For example, some parents may believe that their involvement is essential for the education of their children (Drummond & Stipek, 2004; Wilder, 2017). On the other hand, some others might think that their role should be more passive than the roles of teachers (Chrispeels & Rivero, 2001; O'Conner, 2001; Tveit, 2009). According to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1997), role construction of general principles is used by parents to define their role in the educational processes of their children, what they believe about child development and rearing, and roles that provide support at home for their children's education. Moreover, the construction of roles in terms of parent involvement is also related to values, expectations, goals, and beliefs of parents regarding the behavior of children and the parents' understanding of their responsibilities in terms of the child's education (Hoover-Dempsey & Jones, 1997, 2002; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005; Reed et al., 2000). These role beliefs are shaped through the parents' personal experiences or their observations on the others' experiences regarding school and parent involvement in education, the effects of groups they belong, the effects of their children's school.

First of all, the role beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education can take shape through the personal experiences of parents and their observations on others' experiences (Whitaker & Hoover-Dempsey, 2013). For example, parents' own experiences regarding their school life may influence their construction of roles for parent involvement. Specifically, parents may have negative attitudes towards schools in their education based on the negative experiences they had during school. These negative experiences might influence them negatively in the construction of their role in their children's education. Besides, parents may also not experience sufficiently involvement of their parents in their educational lives. The observations on their own parents' involvement behaviors also can be influential in their role beliefs. For example, a father may observe the ignorance of his father about involving parent involvement activities such as communicating with the teacher, attending PTA

meetings, or volunteering in school-related activities. This situation might make this father think that he has no responsibility for involvement, and the whole responsibility belongs to the mother because he experienced his mothers' involvement in his school life.

Besides, the role beliefs of individuals are also shaped by the societies to which they belong (Biddle, 1979, 1986; Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Forsyth, 1990). Specifically, the groups (e.g., parents in school and parents of other children in the neighborhood) to which the parents belong may influence the construction of parent involvement roles (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005). The beliefs of the other parents in the same school or other schools regarding the involvement of parents in education may be a "reference point" for parents in the process of determining or shaping his or her role for parent involvement. For example, most of the parents in the school may have a general view that they should participate more than educational activities at home because they are mostly responsible for their child at home rather than school in which the teacher is responsible. This type of general view may specifically affect the construction of the role of involvement in education. Also, the expectations of the other family members might influence role beliefs regarding involvement in the education of children. For example, in a traditional extended family, the grandparents may expect from the mother to participate in the school-related actives in the home.

In addition to the previous experiences of parents, and views and expectations of groups, parents' experiences with the current school of their children may lead to their construction of roles. According to Tveit (2009), parents' construction of their roles for the education of their children is basically shaped through parents' experiences of school-related factors. The talks with other parents about the role of parents in helping children school-related works at home will have an influence on the parents' role belief process about his place in the education of the child. Moreover, messages from the school environment may lead to shape the role beliefs of parents (Park & Holloway, 2018). A welcoming environment conveys the message that both parents are an integral part of the school, so the school is happy to see parents in school-related works and activities. To illustrate, if a teacher kindly and personally invites parents to in-class activities, field trips, volunteering activities, parents may

consider that the teacher is not just in charge of these types of activities, so they also have a chance to take a role.

Together with the general factors that have effects on the construction of roles, some researcher studies addressed the specific predictors of the role activity beliefs of parents. For example, some research studies found that parental role beliefs are related to some school-related constructs. In their study, Drummond and Stipek (2004) reported that in general, regardless of the minority group they belonged to, low-income parents whose children enrolled in elementary school believed that their involvement is essential for the education of their children. The same study also explicitly reported that the grade level has a significant effect on the effect on the parents' beliefs about their involvement. More clearly, parents who have lower graders tend to have more positive beliefs regarding the importance of their role in education than the higher graders. The subject matter also makes a difference in terms of the beliefs of the parents about the value of their involvement. They believe that helping children in reading is more important than helping math. The difference was also consistent in the achievement of children and teacher communication. The responses of the parents on what they should do for involvement were helping their children, establishing a good relationship with their children, keeping them safe, teaching new skills and providing better living conditions for their children.

On the other hand, some other studies investigated the predictive role of other constructs in the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's model (e.g., perception of invitation from school, child, and teacher(s). To illustrate, Whitaker and Hoover-Dempsey (2013) reported that the determining factors of parent involvement in education proposed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) were also the predictor of the parental role beliefs. That is, the results of the study revealed that parents' perceptions of school expectations of involvement, the school's climate, and student invitations to involvement predicted parental role beliefs about their involvement in their students' education were the significant predictors of parental role beliefs for the involvement; on the other hand, the invitation from teacher did not significantly predict the role beliefs of parents. The researcher also reported that the current experiences of parents (i.e., their perceptions on child invitations, expectations from school, and school

climate) have stronger predictor roles than the valance toward school. Moreover, among all these variables, perceptions of school expectations of involvement were the strongest predictor of parents' role beliefs. According to Park and Holloway (2018), parental role beliefs also mediate the relationship between the school and family-related factors that are parents' satisfaction with school, the communication between school and parents, the welcoming environment of the school, and school-based involvement. This finding means that school and family-related factors stimulate the construction of parents' roles, which results in the actual involvement of parents to education.

In addition to school-related constructs, some constructs related to the family structure may also have relationships with parental role beliefs. For example, Wilder (2017) found that there is a difference between gender of parents and their construction of roles for parents whose children at K-3. Moreover, although there is not an impact of the ethnicity of parents on role beliefs, the income and educational level of parents influence parental role beliefs depending on the ethnicity of parents.

This construct is important for the actual involvement of parents in education, due to the fact that it forms a basis for the decision of the parents to become involved. That is, through the construction of their roles—beliefs about what they should do in their children's education—parents realize what kind of behaviors are expected from them during the process of parent involvement (Walker et al., 2005). For example, in the early childhood context, if a parent thinks that in addition to the teacher of the child, it is his or her responsibility to support the child for her education or development such as providing help with math or science-related activities at home, this parent would have a tendency to participate more in parent involvement activities.

Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997) believed that the parent role beliefs is a strong predictor of a parent's decision regarding their involvement. This assumption was tested by numerous research studies, in order to reveal the possible relationship between the role beliefs of parents with parent involvement practices and the level of involvement by the parents. For example, in a study, Sheldon (2002) reported that parental role beliefs are significant predictors of the involvement of parents who have a child in grades 1 to 5, at home and at school. On the other hand,

the most crucial finding of the study was that parental role beliefs are stronger than the ethnicity of parents, location of the school, and the social networks of parents' social networks for predicting parent involvement. In addition to that, Deslandes and Bertrand (2005) also reported that role beliefs are the significant predictors for the parents of seventh through ninth-grade students. These findings were also consistent with the findings of research studies focused on the relationship between the role beliefs of parents with children at preschool and their involvement in education. For example, Yamamoto et al. (2006) reported that parental role beliefs were the predictor of Japanese maternal involvement in the education of children. Similarly, Anderson et al. (2015) also emphasized that paternal role beliefs may influence the father's decisions in becoming involved in such actions as activity selections. These research studies indicated that how much parents believe that they are responsible for supporting their children's education and development through participating activities either at home or school increase or decrease the level of their involvement in education. More specifically, the stronger role beliefs regarding involvement in education, the more parents become involved in education.

Parental role beliefs is also a stronger predictor of parent involvement at school and at home than parental self-efficacy for helping students succeed in school, which is another motivator of parents regarding their decision to become involved (Anderson, 2005). That is, the explained variance of the parental role beliefs construct is more effective than parental self-efficacy for helping students succeed in school, and for parent involvement at school and at home. However, although parental role beliefs is required, and is also the strongest predictor of parent involvement (Deslandes & Bertnard, 2005), it alone is not enough for the decision of parents to involve themselves in their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). This may form a basis for the involvement of parents. However, there should also be a "trigger" that makes parents act on this involvement. This brings us to the second personal motivator of the involvement decision: believing that one is qualified in terms of skills and knowledge in involvement practices (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005).

2.3.3.1.2 Parental Self-efficacy for Helping the Child Succeed in School

The self-efficacy is a "driving force" for how individuals think, feel, and behave (Bandura, 1997). This force can be in the form of overall efficacy, which is active for all tasks or problems that individuals face regardless of the domain or situation or specifically works for a particular domain or situation. More clearly, self-efficacy can be categorized as general self-efficacy and domain-specific self-efficacy (Shelton, 1990). The general self-efficacy means the overall beliefs of a person about his or her capabilities that are enough to fulfill a variety of tasks from different domains or in different situations (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; Sherer et al., 1982).

According to Bandura (1997, p.3), self-efficacy is defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments". More clearly, self-efficacy refers to beliefs of people about their abilities to perform a task. This definition of self-efficacy is related to the self-efficacy for a specific task, situation, or domain that individuals may face. This type of self-efficacy, which is generally used to conceptualize self-efficacy, is the definition of the domain-specific self-efficacy (Scholz, Doña, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002). It mainly includes the beliefs of individuals about their capabilities, which are specific to a task, situation, or domain. For example, the beliefs of the parents regarding their confidence in their ability to effectively deal with the demands of being a parent can be considered as the beliefs of domain-specific self-efficacy (i.e., parenting-specific self-efficacy).

Concerning the categorization of the self-efficacy, in the context of parenting, self- efficacy beliefs of parents can be categorized as general parenting self-efficacy and domain-specific parenting self-efficacy (Coleman & Karraker, 2000). The former category refers to the general beliefs of parents regarding their capabilities to shoulder the responsibility of parenting, to undertake the child-related works, overcome the problems related to parenting. On the other hand, some specific parenting practices can be evaluated separately in terms of the self-efficacy beliefs of the parents on a specific domain. The domains specific self-efficacy beliefs of parents include self-efficacy for supporting the child's achievement, contributing to the recreation activities and social development of the child, disciplining the child, supporting the child emotionally, and maintaining the physical health of the child.

As a domain-specific self-efficacy, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) suggested the parental self-efficacy for helping children succeed in school. Based on the self-efficacy theory, with this construct, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1997, p.17) were in search of an answer to the question: "Do parents believe that, through their involvement, they can exert a positive influence on children's educational outcomes?" In terms of the involvement of parents in their children's education, parental self-efficacy, in terms of helping students succeed in school, refers to the beliefs of the parents about their competence or the efficiency of parents in supporting their children's success at school (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005; Walker et al., 2005). This construct mainly refers to how parents perceive themselves in terms of providing the necessary support for their children's school-related activities, in an effort to help increase their success. That is, it is a way for the parents to assess themselves as to whether their effort in helping their children will make a difference in terms of success for their children. Actually, it is the second "internal feud" with themselves for whether they will be effective in helping their children and in leading them towards success.

Self-efficacy beliefs are shaped through the feedback received from the performance of a task (Bandura, 1977, 1986). On the other hand, self-efficacy beliefs also have an influence on the future performance of a task (Gist & Mithchell, 1992). According to Bandura (1977, 1982), in addition to the influence of self-efficacy beliefs on the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of individuals, they may also influence the motivation and choices of individuals. That is, self-efficacy beliefs might be the "driving force" for whether individuals take action (Schunk, 2009). If an individual has a belief that he or she is able to succeed in a task, or that his or her involvement will make a positive change regarding that task, then this belief may generate the motivation for becoming involved in that task.

According to Eccles and Harold (1993), there are three indicators of a parent's self-assessment: competency of a parent regarding the school-related work of children, such as homework, the support they provide for their children to achieve better grades in their courses, and the belief of the parents regarding their own surety as to their influence on the governance of the school. In the early childhood context, an example

related to the parents' beliefs in terms of their competence in school-related work might be a parent's beliefs about whether this parent will do a good job in helping their child completing a worksheet that was sent by the teacher.

The source of the parents' beliefs about their efficacy is based on four sources. Based on the origins of self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1989a, 1989b), according to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995), these four sources are, from relatively most influential to least, are *direct experience*, vicarious experience, verbal persuasions, and emotional arousal:

1. *Direct experience:* the direct experience of parents in terms of their success at parent involvement practices and the effect of these practices.

   Examples: being successful in one's own school life, experiencing a good form of parent involvement in their own education, having successful prior parent involvement experiences regarding their involvement in their children's education.

2. *Vicarious experience:* Parents' observations about the successful experiences of others as related to parent involvement practices.

   Example: observing another child's parents' competence in volunteer activity.

3. *Verbal persuasions:* The comments of others, especially those significant and similar to the parents that are related to the importance of their involvement.

   Example: the child's teacher's comments on the importance of their involvement in their child's success at school.

4. *Emotional arousal:* Parents' emotions and concerns about the success of their children at school.

   Example: concerns of a parent on his or her child's success in a specific field, such as math.

Together with the general factors that have effects on the self-efficacy beliefs of parents, some research studies addressed the specific predictors of self-efficacy beliefs of parents. Some research studies found that parental self-efficacy beliefs for helping their children succeed in school are related to some school and family-related constructs. Lareau (2000) and Seefeldt, Denton, Galper, and Younoszoi (1998) asserted that there is a positive correlation between parents' educational level and their

self-efficacy beliefs on for helping their children succeed in school in both early childhood education level and elementary level. That is, less educated parents might think that helping their children for school-related works is difficult for them. Similar findings that parental self-efficacy is correlated with the education level of parents were also reported by Hoover-Dempsey et al. (1992). However, they could not find significant relations with parents' sex, marital status, employment status, and income of the parents. On the other hand, Tazouti & Jarlégan (2016) reported a positive correlation with SES, consisting of SES: mother's and fathers' level of education, and space available in the family home and parental self-efficacy. This correlation was significant for both mothers and fathers; however, it was stronger for mothers.

Parental self-efficacy is an essential factor in education processes. Some research studies have provided some clues by investigating the links between children's success at school and the self-efficacy beliefs of parents. Seefeldt et al. (1998) reported that parental self-efficacy is a predictor of children's academic achievement. There were also other studies reported on the positive relationship between the cognitive development of children and parental self-efficacy (Coleman & Karraker, 1998; Jones & Prinz, 2005). On the other hand, the success of the children also is a determinant for the self-efficacy beliefs of parents. According to a study conducted with the Latino parents with fourth- and fifth-grade children, the parents who have successful children were in the tendency to have higher self-efficacy for helping their children, on the other hand, parents with low achievers tend to have lower self-efficacy (Okagaki, Frensch, & Gordon, 1995).

There are numerous research studies related to the assumption of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997): parental self-efficacy for helping students succeed at school is correlated with parent involvement practices, and it is also a predictor of parent involvement. For example, in a study conducted with the parents of children at K-4 grades, Hoover-Dempsey et al. (1992) reported that there was a significant link between high levels of the self-efficacy beliefs of parents in terms of helping their children with school-related works and increased involvement in volunteering activities and spending more time with children for educational activities and less time telephone conferencing with the teacher. Some other studies also reported the

relationship between parental self-efficacy and parent involvement for parents with children in middle and elementary school (Eccles & Harold, 1996), and in high school in the United States (Shumow & Lomax, 2002). In addition, Giallo et al. (2013) also reported that the parents of children aged between 0 and 4 years in Australia, who have high parental self-efficacy beliefs, become more involved in their children's daily activities and learning activities—reading books, telling a story, playing, walking, swimming, cooking, etc. The links between these two constructs were also reported in a study conducted with parents of children who are at the mean age of 8 years and 4 months in France (Tazouti & Jarlégan, 2016). The findings of that research revealed a positive correlation between parent involvement in the children's schooling such as helping with homework, participating in volunteering activities, and parental self-efficacy. This correlation was significant for both mothers and fathers, although it was stronger for the mothers. In summary, the extensive body of research reveals that when parents believe that they are effective in helping their children for educational activities, they become more willing to participate in the education of their children.

Parental beliefs regarding their efficacy have an influence on the decisions of parents, particularly as to whether they will become involved in their children's education, as these efficacy beliefs reinforce the idea that their efforts will create a positive change in their child's learning and performance (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997; Walker et al., 2005). For example, if a parent has a lack of self-efficacy belief in regards to helping with homework, then, this parent will not be disposed towards becoming involved in this activity. On the other hand, if a parent believes that she or he has great competence, this parent will be inclined to become involved in helping his or her child with their homework, because this parent believes that he or she is capable of handling the work and that his or her help will results in a positive change in their child's success in learning and performance (Chen & Stevenson, 1989; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001; Stevenson, Chen, & Uttal, 1990).

The parental self-efficacy beliefs also have an influence on the form of involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005). For example, if a parent feels competent enough to read a book as part of an in-class activity, then this parent will choose to become involved in that way. On the other hand, if a parent believes

that he or she is not efficient at a volunteering activity in which this parent expected to make some arrangements related to a field trip, then he or she will not be willing to participate in this type of activity.

2.4 Parent Involvement in Education

2.4.1 Definition and Conceptualization of Parent Involvement

A reproof in parent involvement literature has been directed at the definition of parent involvement. Reynolds (1992) stated that it is not easy to observe the relationship between parent involvement and its influence upon the development or education of children, such as academic achievement, since it is difficult to provide a definition for parent involvement. Moreover, according to Fan and Chen (2001), Jeynes (2003a), and Kohl et al. (2000), parent involvement in research studies had not been used clearly and consistently. Therefore, there is not one single and strict definition of what constitutes parent involvement in the literature. Some researchers have proposed some general definitions of parent involvement to form a framework for the participation of parents in their children's education. A general definition of parent involvement was provided by Jeynes (2005). In his meta-analysis study, he defined parent involvement in general, as the participation of parents in their children's educational processes and experiences. In addition to this general definition, Hill et al. (2004, p.1491) referred to parent involvement as "parents' interactions with schools and with their children to promote academic success." Another definition that specifically addresses early childhood education referred to parent involvement as "a process of helping parents and family members use their abilities to benefit themselves, their children, and the early childhood program" (Morrison, 2013, p. 401).

Some other detailed definitions were also provided. For instance, according to Sosa (1997), parent involvement is the collection of learning activities initiated by parents at home in order to enhance their children's potential at school, such as providing educational games, supporting homework or making discussions about current events with their children. On the other hand, parent involvement is not just related to home-related activities. According to Hill and Taylor (2004), in addition to

providing their children with help in academic work at home, parent involvement also includes being a volunteer at school, establishing communication with the teacher and other school personnel, participating in school-related events and parent-teacher associations (PTAs), and parent-teacher conferences (Hill & Taylor, 2004).

On the other hand, in a broader sense, parent involvement does not only refer to activities requiring participation, which aim to get parents involved in children's education. Rather, according to Wong and Hughes (2006), parent involvement also represents the interests of the parents in child-related activities, knowledge about those activities, and being eager to participate in these activities. Parent involvement also includes beliefs, attitudes, and activities, of not only the parents but also of other family members (Weiss, Kreider, Lopez, & Chatman, 2005). Moreover, parent involvement also includes the economic and psychological resources provided by parents and needed in order to support their children's education (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994). On the other hand, probably, the broadest definition was provided by Castro et al. (2015, p. 34) in their review study. They considered parent involvement as the active involvement of the parents in the social and emotional realms, "active participation of parents in all aspects of their children's social, emotional and academic development". However, they also addressed some issues that limit parent involvement: "expectations about their children's academic future, control over homework, the extent to which they become involved in helping children to learn for school assignments or to do the homework, or the frequency with which parents are physically present at school" (p.34). In addition, according to a study in which the definitions of parent involvement were provided by meta-analysis studies, and were then synthesized by Wilder (2014), parent involvement includes the communication established between parents and children in terms of school-related issues, monitoring and supporting children for their homework, the expectations of parents regarding the education of their children, and the involvement of parents in activities provided by the school.

To sum up, all of these definitions focus on different aspects of parent involvement. Some of them provide a broad framework of parent involvement, while some others are related to specific activities than can be named as parent involvement practices, and yet others reveal some of the psychological factors of parent

involvement. All of these different definitions may be useful in enriching the understanding of parent involvement by adding different perspectives to parent involvement. On the other hand, Baker and Soden (1997) discuss the problem of inconsistent operational definitions of parent involvement. They recommended that research studies should provide an operational definition of parent involvement, specifically discussing which aspect of parent involvement is being focused on. Moreover, according to Tveit (2009), how parent involvement is defined leads to how parent involvement is going to develop. Therefore, within this study, an operational definition of parent involvement was adopted. In the current study, parent involvement is approached as the home and school-related practices of parents to support the education and experiences of their children under the titles of home-based and school-based involvement, and home-school conferencing as proposed by Fantuzzo et al. (2000), and depending on the parent involvement model of Epstein (1995). Moreover, the current study adopts the underlying factors regarding the decisions of parents to become involved in their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005).

In addition to the definitions of parent involvement, some attempts have been made to clarify the types of parent involvement activities in education and to deepen the conceptual understanding of parent involvement. The typology of Epstein (1995) is the most popular one among the different topologies. More clearly, Epstein introduced certain types of parent involvement activities in the context of education.

2.4.1.1 Epstein's Model of Parent Involvement

Epstein (1995) claimed that establishing a partnership among the family, school and community is crucial for a child's success at school, and for the rest of their life. That is, all of these factors, as interpreted through the use of Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) have considerable influence on the development and education of children. On the other hand, all of these factors do not only affect the child, but also display an interplay among these three factors. According to Epstein (1995), these three interrelated actors of a child's life should be involved in their education process in order to support their success, either at school or for the rest of

their life. Therefore, within the context of these three actors, she suggested six types of activities through which parents can be involved in the education of their children.

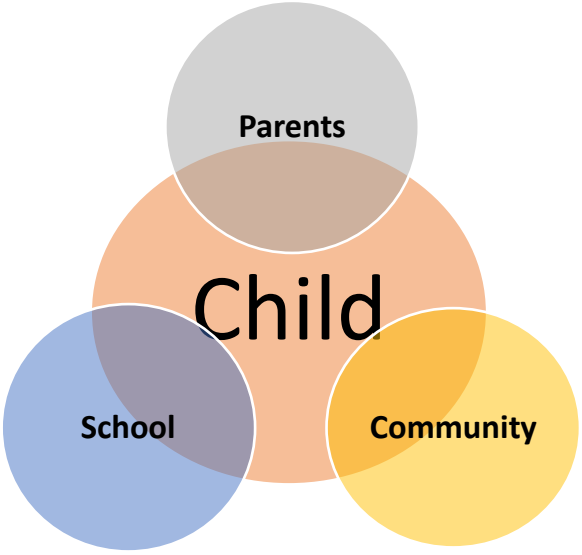

Figure 2.6. Three actors of a child's development and education

Before Epstein (1995), through the development of parent involvement literature, some typologies of parent involvement had been generated by some researchers in order to categorize parent involvement activities. One of these typologies was created by Gordon (1977). According to this classification, there are six types of parent involvement activities: (1), audience (2) classroom volunteer, (3) teacher of own child (4) learner, (5) decision-maker, and (6) paid professionals. Another classification which included four categories of parent involvement activities was offered by Cervone and O'leary (1982). These categories were:

1. *Reporting progress*: Activities in this category include strategies of communication between home and school. (e.g., Good news notes, newsletter, call-in times, parent-teacher conferences, etc.)
2. *Special events:* This category includes some planned activities to get parents involved in education. (e.g., End of the year picnic, mother's day, father's day, etc.)

3. *Parent education:* This category includes activities related to educating parents in terms of issues related to their children's education and development. (e.g., a course for parents, parent to parent meetings, etc.)
4. *Parents teaching:* Activities in this category give parents the role to plan and apply teaching processes. (e.g., parents teaching in the classroom, home worksheets, etc.)

Epstein (1995), on the other hand, offered the most current typology of parent involvement activities. According to this model, there are six types of parent involvement. These are parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision making, and collaborating with the community (Epstein, 1995; Epstein & Dauber, 1991; Epstein et al., 2002; 2018).

The first category of involvement, which is *parenting,* includes assisting the parents to facilitate a supportive home environment for children. This category of parent involvement involves activities such as parent education activities, suggestions for the home environment, and support programs for parents. For example, parent education related to the healthy development of the children or positive disciplining techniques can be considered within this category.

The second type is *communicating*. This type of involvement includes communication between parents and school. Communication between home and school might be bidirectional: parents to school and school to parents (Epstein, 1995). Some examples of this type can be face to face meetings related to the development and education of the child, or briefings about school activities and the inclusion of comments by the parents.

The third involvement category, which is *volunteering*, includes the assistance of parents in school and out of school activities. Examples of this type may include being a volunteer on field trips, activities in the classroom, or participating in a project as an expert.

The fourth category is *learning at home*. In this type, parents are provided with information about how to assist with their children's education in the home environment. This category may include assisting parents on how they can help their

children with their homework so that parents can monitor and assess school-related work at home.

The fifth category is *decision-making* which is related to the participation of parents in the decision-making process at school. An example of this category might be the parents' participation in the decision-making process regarding improvements at the school, which could include such issues as school safety.

The last category of involvement is *collaborating with the community*. This type includes helping to integrate community sources with school activities in order to facilitate school activities. For example, parents can be involved in a project about a fire truck, which includes visiting a fire station. Some parents may make the arrangements before the visit and collect the necessary information before the field trip. This category includes the bidirectional relationship between community, and school, and parents, and children (Epstein et al., 2002, 2018). That is, community resources may support the school, parents, and children. On the other hand, schools, parents, and children may contribute to their communities.

The Epstein's typology for parent involvement practices was primarily created for the elementary school context. On the other hand, the studies conducted within the early childhood context were also adopted to investigate parent involvement practices and their relations within some other constructs (e.g., Demircan & Tantekin-Erden, 2015; Fantuzzo et al., 2000; Hakyemez-Paul, Pihlaja, & Silvennoinen, 2018; Jones, White, Aeby, & Benson, 1997; Jones & White, 2000; McBride, Bae, & Wright, 2002; Pelletier & Brent, 2002; Rattenborg, Walker, & Miller-Heyl, 2018). The most significant contribution was made most probably by Fantuzzo et al. (2000) by adapting the typology to the early childhood context, and developing an instrument for the multidimensional assessment of parent involvement in early childhood education. This instrument has been frequently used by many research studies in the early childhood context (e.g., Buhs, Welch, Burt, & Knoche, 2011; Carpenter & Mendez, 2013; Gürşimşek, Kefi, & Girgin, 2007; LaForett & Mendez, 2010; Lang, Schoppe-Sullivan, & Jeon, 2017). Similarly, this scale was adopted to determine patterns of involvement in education in the current study.

In the current study, in order to explore the effects of the familial relations and motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education in different contexts of the involvement levels, a more plain categorization of the parent involvement activities was used. The involvement activities in the Epstein's typology of parent involvement points out three general categories of parent involvement activities: home-based involvement, school-based involvement, and home-school conferencing. Based on the topology of Epstein, the level of parents' involvement in education were examined via these three general categories of involvement.

2.4.1.2 Home-based Involvement, School-Based Involvement, and Home-school Conferencing

Although there are some other general categorizations of parent involvement (e.g., school, cognitive and personal; Grolnick et al., 1997), parent involvement is often categorized in two categories, which become distinct in terms of the source of the activity, i.e. home or school. In some review studies, this distinction was rationalized depending on the related literature (e.g., Hill & Tyson, 2009; Pomerantz et al., 2007; Seginer, 2006). Furthermore, this categorization has been used to assess two different sub-constructs representing the parent involvement activities and the level of involvement in numerous studies (e.g., Anderson & Minke, 2007; Deslandes & Bertrand, 2005; Fishman & Nickerson, 2015; Freund, Schaedelb Azaiza, Boehmd, & Lazarowitz, 2018; Green, Walker, Hoover-Dempsey, & Sandler, 2007; Reininger & Santana-López, 2017). In addition to these two general categories of the parent involvement activities, another distinct category of involvement was also suggested. This category is home-school conferencing, which represents the communication between home and school (Fantuzzo et al., 2000).

According to Sheldon (2002), the motivation behind different parent involvement activities may be distinctive. The attitudes, thoughts or behaviors of parents regarding the different parent involvement activities may be different. Due to this distinction, the current study considers the level of involvement of parents in practices that are considered home-based and school-based, and additionally, ones that

are included in the home-school conferencing type (Fantuzzo et al., 2000; Fantuzzo et al., 2013; Manz, Fantuzzo, & Power, 2004).

First of all, school-based involvement refers to the involvement behavior of parents that is dependent on their actual contact with the school (Pomerantz et al., 2007; Pomerantz & Moorman, 2010). This group of involved parents includes those that volunteer for activities in the classroom or at school, those that participate in attend decision making processes related to school policies, attend school meetings, and participate in field trips (Epstein, 1995; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997; Pomerantz et al., 2007).

School-based involvement represents practices on the part of parents that require their making actual contact with schools. Practices in this vein include, but are not limited to, being present at general school meetings, talking with teachers (e.g., attending parent-teacher conferences, initiating contact with teachers), attending school events (e.g., open houses, science fairs), and volunteering at a school (Pomerantz et al., 2007).

Secondly, home-based involvement refers to the involvement of parents in their children's education-related activities outside of school. On the other hand, home-based involvement does not have to occur within the physical boundaries of the home (Pomerantz et al., 2007). The activities conducted through parent initiation outside of the home can also be considered as home-based involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005).

This group of involvement may include monitoring children's progress, helping children with their homework at home, discussions about school events, performing activities that support their children's education, such as reading a book or visiting a museum, library or the zoo as part of a school-related activity with their children (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997; Reynolds & Gill, 1994). It may also include the efforts of parents to enrich the environment of their children, in order to support their education, such as preparing a place where children can study without interruption (Pomerantz et al., 2007).

Lastly, although the home-school conferencing was considered as a part of the school-based involvement in some typologies (e.g., Pomerantz et al., 2007), it

represents a distinct activity type from school-based activities such as volunteering or decision making. It refers to the communication-related acts between parents and teacher(s) or other school staff about the education of the child, such as parents' talk with the teacher about classroom rules, child's behaviors, progress, accomplishments, difficulties, etc. (Fantuzzo et al., 2000; Fantuzzo et al., 2013; Manz et al., 2004). This category of parent involvement corresponds to the "communicating" in Epstein's typology.

2.4.2 Significance of Parent Involvement

According to Rich (1987), parents and schools may desire not to be interfered with by others while doing their jobs in education and development of the child; however, parents and schools need each other to enhance the education and development of the child because they complete each other. Although some research studies could not find a significant effect of parent involvement on children's education and development (e.g., Fan & Chen, 2001; Hill & Tyson 2009; Mattingly, Prislin, McKenzie, Rodriguez, & Kayzar, 2002), a considerable amount of study reported that the involvement of the parents in the children's education brings considerable benefits for children.

Some studies have found that parent involvement has essential contributions to the education of children (e.g., Dauber & Epstein, 1993; Halgunseth, Peterson, Stark, & Moodie, 2009; Pomerantz et al., 2007; Powell Son, File, & Froiland, 2012; Sui-Chu & Williams, 1996). In the first place, parent involvement in education contributes to the readiness of preschoolers (Powell, Son, File, & Juan, 2010). More clearly, the children whose parents become more frequently involved scored better for cognitive development than the children of parents who lesser involved. A large number of research studies reported the significant positive effect of parent involvement on the academic achievement of children from kindergarten through high school (e.g., Arnold et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2017; Englund, Luckner, Whaley, & Egeland, 2004; Hill & Craft, 2003; Izzo et al., 1999; Tazouti & Jarlégan, 2016; Wilder, 2014). Specifically, the participation of parents in the education of students at school, and their encouragement and assistance at home, ensure the achievement of children at all grade

levels (Wong & Hughes, 2006). For example, a study conducted by Blevins-Knabe, Austin, Musun, Eddy, and Jones (2000), researched whether the frequency of parent involvement predicts the level of a child's performance in math. The study found that there is a meaningful relationship between the frequency of participation and the performance of children in mathematics. Similarly, Marcon (1999) reported that better skills in math, science, verbal ability, and social and work habits of preschool children are the predictors of the high levels of parent involvement. Essentially, parent involvement has positive effects on the learning of preschool children (Fantuzzo, McWayne, Perry, & Childs, 2004). That is, the more parents become involved in the education of their children, the more positive attitude children develop towards learning.

Parent involvement in education also contributes to the different developmental areas of children, such as conceptual, language, social-emotional, and self-care development of children (Wood, 2002). For example, Bennett, Weigel, and Martin (2002) and Arnold et al. (2008) found that the participation of parents as an educator in the education of their children is significantly related to the child's language and literacy outcomes, which include book-related knowledge, recipient language skills, expressive, receptive and expressive vocabulary, and auditory skills. Some other studies revealed that parent involvement also has some benefits on the social-emotional development of children (Arnold et al., 2008; Kohl et al., 2000). Pomerantz et al. (2006) notably reported that parent involvement contributes to the social functioning of children. That is, higher levels of parent involvement in education lead to the experience of positive emotions that are caring, satisfaction, liking, happiness, joy, love, and pride. In a study conducted by Gürşimşek, Girgen, Harmanlı, & Ekinci, (2002), parents of 20 children participated in a parent education program by means of a parent involvement activity, which included how they could participate in their children's education at home. According to the results of the study, positive changes were observed especially in aspects of self-care of children, including areas concerning cleaning, nutrition, and social skills.

2.4.3 Parent Involvement in Turkey

Parent involvement in education has evolved with educational change and development in Turkey. Parent involvement dates back to the Sıbyan schools founded for the education of young children in the Ottoman period (Tekin, 2011). In these schools, parent involvement activities included participating in the establishment of fundraising activities and being volunteers for school maintenance (Erdem, 2005). After the establishment of the Turkish Republic in 1923, parent involvement in education was regulated by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE). Every school was mandated to establish a school-family association (SFA) to make parent involvement activities, which included volunteering, communicating with alumni, collaborating with the community, and parent education (Tekin, 2011). In the context of early childhood education, specifically early childhood education programs and the regulations that could be qualified as programs established between 1952 and 2013, the focus has been on the importance of parents in education and their involvement in education. Family Support and Education Guidebook Integrated with Early Childhood Education Program (OBADER) was published in 2013 as a supplement to the early childhood education program. This program aimed to inform teachers about and provide specific activities regarding parent education and involvement in the context of early childhood education (MoNE, 2013).

In addition to the efforts of MONE, other nongovernmental organizations became influential. The Mother Child Education Foundation (MCEF), was established in 1993 to disseminate the idea that parent involvement in both school and home is crucial for the enhancement and support of children's education (Kağitçibaşi, 1997). The MCEF initially targeted their work towards mothers, as its name would suggest. However, it began to develop programs for fathers as well. Another effort in Tukey was the Turkish Early Enrichment Project (TEEP). This project focused on the Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY) and the Mother Enrichment Program (MEP). Within HIPPY, the TEEP provided mothers with the knowledge needed to administer cognitive materials such as toys and puzzles in the child's home settings. In relation to MEP, TEEP included information on a variety of topics for the

mother, such as the importance of the early years, mother-child interaction, and the role of mother-child relationship development and so on.

Parent involvement in education has also been addressed in research studies in Turkey. Although the history of such research studies does not date back to the early 20th century, some studies have been conducted which specifically address the involvement of parents in education. For example, parent involvement was investigated in terms of promoting the involvement level of parents in instructions of mathematics (e.g., Çeziktürk, 1997), the effects of parent involvement in the social and academic development of students (e.g., Atçı, 2003; Utku, 1999), and the attitudes of parents and teachers toward parent involvement in education (e.g., Akkaya, 2007; Bayraktar, Güven, & Temel, 2016; Kaya, 2007) in the context of early childhood education and higher levels of education.

Şad and Gürbüztürk (2013) investigated the involvement level of parents who had primary school children in Turkey. The results of the study revealed that the level of parent involvement in creating a supportive learning environment at home, supporting their children in terms of personality development, and in helping their children with homework, were much higher than their involvement in volunteering for in-class and out-of-class activities. In short, this result shows that parents preferred home-based involvement activities rather than school-based involvement activities. On the other hand, the level of parent involvement in communicating with the school was at a moderate level. Researchers also reported that the gender of the parents had an effect on the level of parent involvement. More clearly, the results revealed that mothers participated more frequently in both home-based and school-based types of activities.

Erkan, Uludağ, and Egeli (2016) investigated the perception of administrators, teachers, and parents on parent involvement in education in preschools. A salient result of the study was that parents perceive parent involvement as supporting the education of the child in the school. In contrast, teachers and administrators perceive the involvement as supporting the development and education of the child anywhere. Furthermore, the researchers also found that parental participation included partaking in activities for children, talking with their children, following the development and

education of their children, communicating with the school, and participating in activities organized by the school, such as projects or special days. Researchers also explored the barriers of parent involvement in early childhood education. The results revealed that barriers for home-based involvement were mostly related to the parents and a lack of time, intensity of workload and stress caused by the work-life of the parents, and were specifically seen as the main obstacles towards home-based participation. In addition, many parents reported the lack of sufficient activities requiring or allowing parent involvement, as provided by the school and viewed this as a main barrier against school-based involvement. On the other hand, according to researchers, teachers and administrators reported that parental-based barriers often affected parents' school-based involvement. More specifically, the employment of parents led to a lack of time, and an intensive workload, fatigue, and stress, negatively impacted their involvement. The results of the study generally indicated that parents and school staff might have differently perceived what parent involvement included, how they could become involved, and what barriers reduced the involvement of parents.

Gürşimşek (2003) examined the effect of the age of the parents, their level of education and income, the number of children in the family, the amount of time spent with each child, and the teacher's assessment regarding the level of child-rearing and involvement. The results of the study revealed that the mean scores of home-based involvement were significantly higher than of both school-based involvement and home-school conferencing. The lowest level of involvement was school-based involvement. The researcher also reported that the amount of time parents spent with child had a significant effect on home-based involvement. On the other hand, the teacher's assessment of the level of child-rearing and involvement were found to have significant effects on school-based involvement and home-school conferencing.

Hakyemez (2015) investigated the views of Turkish early childhood educators regarding parent involvement. The results of the study revealed that Turkish educators have positive attitudes toward the involvement of parents in education. The results also indicated that, according to a report produced by the educators, the most popular type of parent involvement included the encouragement parents to participate in activities

at home that supported learning process of children. On the other hand, the least preferred type of parent involvement was the involvement of parents in decision-making processes. The researcher also reported that there is a positive correlation between communication with parents and their involvement in school-based involvement activities (e.g., volunteering, decision-making, etc.) The results of the study also revealed that according to teachers, the main reason for the inefficacy of parent involvement in education is the reluctance of parents to become involved in the first place. The results of the study revealed that parents tend to participate in activities that are considered as home-based parent involvement, in comparison to those that are school-based involvement activities.

Yakıcı (2018) specifically explored the predictors of parent involvement in the context of early Turkish childhood education. The researcher reported that the level of home-based involvement was higher than the level of school-based involvement and home-school conferencing. The result of the study also revealed that family structure had a significant influence on school-based involvement. Also, there was a significant effect of the level of education held by the parents on their home-based involvement. The researcher also reported positive and significant associations between SES and home-based involvement, and between SES and school-based involvement.

In addition to the predictors of parent involvement, some studies were specifically conducted to explore the motivational beliefs of Turkish parents regarding their involvement in education, and what influenced their level of involvement. For example, Tekin (2008) investigated the motivational beliefs (i.e., parental role activity beliefs regarding the involvement of parents in education and self-efficacy beliefs for helping their children succeed in school) of Turkish parents whose children were enrolled in elementary school. The results of the study revealed that parents reported high levels of role activity beliefs, but relatively low levels of self-efficacy beliefs. The researcher also reported the significant effects of parental income and the level of the parents' education on the role activity beliefs of the parents. On the other hand, the results also revealed that there was a significant effect based on gender, parental income, the parents' education level, and the employment status of parents on the self-efficacy beliefs of parents. The researcher concluded that parents of elementary school

children have positive motivational beliefs regarding their involvement in education. Moreover, the researcher also stated that some of the demographic characteristics of Turkish parents influenced their motivational beliefs.

In addition to Tekin's (2008) descriptive study, Kaya and Bacanlı (2016) tested a model of the determining factors of the parent involvement proposed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) to explore the relationships between motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education, parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement, perceived time and energy as related to their involvement, and the level of involvement in education of Turkish parents with children enrolled in K-5. In general, the researchers found that motivational beliefs (i.e., parental role activity beliefs regarding their involvement in education, and self-efficacy beliefs which influence how they help their children succeed in school), regarding the perceived time and energy involved, and the perceptions of invitations for involvement from others (i.e., child, teacher, school staff and school counselor), are directly and indirectly related to parent involvement in education (i.e., school-based and home-based involvement and home-school conferencing). Specifically, in terms of perceived time and energy involvement and the perceptions of invitations for involvement from others, there was a direct and significant effect on the level of parent involvement. Similarly, the motivational beliefs of parents have a significant direct effect on the perceived involvement in terms of time and energy, and the perception of invitations for involvement from others. Furthermore, researchers also reported that the motivational beliefs of the parents indirectly affect the level of parent involvement in education through the perceived time and energy for involvement, and the perception of invitations extended for involvement from others. In short, the results of the study revealed that as the self-efficacy and role beliefs of the parents increase, and their past school experiences are perceived as positive, their involvement in their children's educational experiences increase. It is also possible to state that this positive effect is produced due to the impact of motivational beliefs regarding the perceived time and energy needed, and the perception of invitations received from others.

Ertan (2017) also conducted a research study to explore the effect of parents' age, educational levels, occupation and the child's age in determining the involvement

parents, whether mean scores of mothers and fathers differed in terms of the determinants, and the possible associations among the determining factors of parent involvement in the context of early childhood education. First of all, the result of the study revealed that demographic variables had no significant effect on determining parent involvement. Second, the researcher reported significant difference between mean scores of mothers and fathers in terms of their role construction beliefs regarding their involvement in education, self-efficacy beliefs in terms of helping their children succeed in school, the perception of invitations given from others, the perceived time, energy and desire for involvement, and the influence determined by their skills and knowledge. More specifically, mothers have significantly higher scores regarding all of the determining factors of parent involvement, in comparison to fathers. Lastly, the researcher also found that the parents' perceptions of invitations from others to become involved, and their self-perceived life context regarding parent involvement are predictors of the motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education.

2.5 Quality of Coparenting Relationship and Parent Involvement

In the coparenting literature, the research studies investigating the possible effects of coparenting on parenting mainly focused on the associations between the quality of the coparenting relationship and parenting practices in the general sense, or the specific form of involvement, different from other involvement in a child's life, such as playing with the child. However, there is limited research on the possible effects on the quality of the coparenting relationship, specifically on parent involvement in education, which has different dynamics and mechanisms, and has different relationship patterns in and out of the family. There is not, to the author's knowledge, even a research study specifically addressing the relationship between the quality of coparenting and parental motivational beliefs regarding their involvement in education.

Although most of the related studies address motivational beliefs and parenting practices in the general sense, these studies may also provide clues for the relationship between the quality of coparenting and parent involvement in education, which is specific to parenting practices. Within this scope, in the below part of this study, first,

the effect of the quality of coparenting on the motivational beliefs and parent involvement on parenting practices in general, will be discussed. Then, the research studies specifically addressing the parent involvement in education were presented in detail.

2.5.1 Quality of Coparenting Relationship and Parenting Practices

According to Balli, Demo, and Wedman (1998), the family structure is an indicator of whether parents will be involved in their children's care and education. In relation to that, Walker et al., (2005) reported that two-parent families participate in their children's education-related activities more than single-parent families, because of the possibility of an excess of time created by each other. This might be true to some degree. Indeed, what really matters for the active and high level of parent involvement is the relationship between the parents in the parenting practices, rather than the number of parents. It is of little avail to say that two-parent families are more advantageous with regard to involvement. The advantage of two-parent families might be discussed in the case of establishing supportive and cooperative relationships, and mutual agreement regarding parenting practices. Furthermore, the existence of the second parent might be a disadvantage, particularly if one of the parents undermines or thwarts the other's parenting competence and involvement, or if the parents have a conflict-ridden relationship regarding parenting practices. In short, having a coparent might be a barrier rather than a facilitator for parental involvement, also developing or influencing motivational beliefs for parental involvement.

Belsky's (1984) model of determinants of parenting proposed that a strong determining factor of parenting practices is the relationship between spouses. Correspondingly, coparenting is the most salient type of relationship between mother and father, blending the relationship between partners and parenting practices, while differing from other relationship types between parents (e.g., marital and romantic relationship). Within this scope, in addition to positive outcomes for children's development and the family members' relationships, the quality of the coparenting relationship has positive effects on the way a mother and father become parents. Specifically, even, among the types of relationships between mother and father (e.g.,

marital conflict and adjustment), the coparenting relationship between parents was found to more strongly affect parenting behaviors (Feinberg et al., 2007). In their study, Abidin and Brunner (1995). In addition to parenting stress level and the satisfaction of parents regarding their marriage, the quality of the coparenting relationship was significantly linked to parenting styles. Thus, parents who have a high level of in the quality of their coparenting display more patterns of authoritative parenting behaviors against their children.

Some other research studies also produced similar results for the effects of the quality of coparenting relationship on parenting practices. For instance, Margolin et al. (2001) reported that parents who engage in coparental relationships had more positive parenting behaviors towards their preschoolers by providing good and bad models for the child, balancing the commands given to the child, and avoiding harsh punishment. Similarly, a high level of supportive coparenting, which is the indicator of a trustful, respectful, and supportive relationship between parents regarding parental responsibilities, leads to less harsh parenting practices (Choi & Becher, 2018). For example, if one of the parents in the family believes that harsh disciplining techniques are effective and should be employed to control the negative behaviors of the child, yet the other parent may believe that positive discipline is a more effective and more appropriate method of disciplining for the healthy development of the child. In a supportive coparenting relationship, parents ask each other's opinions and discuss the best possible way of disciplining their child instead of insisting on implementing what one of them believes.

Although there are some research studies providing pieces of evidence for the positive association between the quality of the coparenting relationship and positive parenting behaviors, the associations between them is not limited to positive parenting behaviors. The quality of the coparenting relationship is a predictive factor as to whether parents will participate in parenting practices. In relation to that, Jia, Kotila, and Schoppe-Sullivan (2012) reported that the more supportive the coparenting relationship between mother and father, the more fathers become involved in play activities with their preschoolers. For example, when the parents see their spouses as the best possible parent for their child and support them when they need it, this

encourages the parent and their involvement level may increase. On the other hand, negative attitudes, behaviors or thoughts of parents cause a decrease in the involvement of these parents. More specifically, in dual-income partnerships of preschool-aged children, the more the mother undermines the father's parenting, the less the father is likely to become involved in caregiving and play activities with their preschool-aged children (Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Jia & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2011). This is not only true for in fathers in residence and unmarried parents, as coparenting is also an essential factor in increasing the active involvement of nonresident fathers, (those who do not live with their children due to divorce or some other reason) in spending time with their children and engaging in activities such as play and oral language activities (Carlson et al., 2008; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2011; Sobolewski & King, 2005; Waller, 2012).

In addition, conflict and disagreement between parents regarding child-related issues, may lead to a decrease in the involvement of the parents in raising and caring for their child. For example, according to McBride and Rane (1998), the main reason for a lower level of involvement from the father is mostly related to disagreements between the parents. Mothers can overcome this disagreement, but fathers fail to handle it, which results in a lower level of participation rates in fathers, as compared to mothers. In addition, endorsing the other parent's parenting practices and believing that this parent is a good parent, who does his or her best to be a good parent, conveys the message that "You are valuable for our child's life and I support the way you are parenting because you are doing the right thing for our child." These types of messages reinforce the tendency of parents to become involved. In contrast, problematic coparenting relations lead to an increase in the mother's gatekeeping role, resulting in a decrease in the involvement of the father (Coley & Hernandez, 2006).

2.5.2 Quality of Coparenting Relationship and Parent Involvement in Education

The coparenting relationship between parents may begin with the birth of the child or before the birth of the child through discussions focused on parenting issues such as sharing the responsibilities of parenting practices (Feinberg, 2003; Van Egeren & Hawkins, 2004). As changes in the lives of members of the family, especially the

child or children, the form of the coparental relationship may change (Feinberg, 2003). Child- or children related alterations may bring new responsibilities that the child's age requires or may add a new context to family life, through the participation of a new actor in the child's microsystem: school (Dockett & Perry, 2004; Dockett, Griebel, & Perry, 2017; Margetts & Kienig, 2013).

One of the milestones of a coparental relationship might be the schooling of a child. That is, when the child starts school, partners encounter new daily routines, parental roles, new responsibilities, discussions, and a new work-load stemming from the involvement of parents in the education of their children. This, in particular, is an important factor that has an effect on the development and education of children (Latham, Mark, & Oliver, 2019). For example, parents should make extra time to attend activities at school or to help their children at home with school-related activities. More clearly, at this point in the development of the family, there is a need for parents to become involved in their children's school experiences in order to support the education and development of their children (Epstein, 1995; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005).

Here, the critical issue is who will participate in bearing a load of these new responsibilities and duties: the mother or the father. In most cultures, especially in Turkish culture, the first person that comes to mind in regards to parental school involvement, as well as almost all other parenting practices, is usually the mother of the child (Allen & Hawkins, 1999; Ahioğlu-Lindberg, 2012; Arendell, 2000; Pleck, 2010; Smith-Greenaway, 2013; Tezel-Şahin & Özbey, 2009; Wall & Arnold, 2007). This does not mean that fathers do not participate in any parenting-related activities; however, there are many studies that have provided evidence that mothers participate more frequently in parent involvement activities than fathers (i.e., Fletcher & Silberberg, 2006; Giallo et al., 2013; Gürşimşek et al., 2007; McBride, Schoppe, & Rane, 2002). However, what if a relationship that begins to be established even before the child or children was born, in the new context of the family, was put into place with the school in mind? In the literature, there are some research studies that suggest that the quality of the coparenting relationship not only has a positive effect on the level of parent involvement but also it has positive associations with the motivational

beliefs of parents regarding their involvement. Some research studies investigate the relationship between the role beliefs of parents and the quality of the coparenting relationship.

Some other studies explored the relationship between the quality of the coparenting relationship and parent involvement in education. A recent research study specifically addressing the relationship between coparenting quality and parent involvement in the education of children was conducted by Berryhill (2017), with the biological mothers and fathers of elementary school children. In this study, the relationship between coparenting support and school-based and home-based involvement were explored. The results of the study revealed that there is a positive association between home-based and school-based parent involvement in education, and coparenting support between parents. The association between school-based involvements and coparenting support was stronger for fathers. In contrast, the association between home-based involvement and coparenting support was stronger for mothers. Berryhill (2017) concluded that coparenting may be an important influence on the involvement of parents in education. In addition to that, Chen et al. (2017) found that parent involvement in education has a mediating role in the relationship between coparenting and the children's successes in school.

Chen et al. (2017) investigated the direct and indirect correlation between couple relationships (i.e., couple relationship, dyadic consensus, dyadic satisfaction, and coparenting strategies) and parent involvement in school and child school outcomes. One hundred Taiwanese mothers and fathers of children between the ages of 8 and 11 were asked to assess their marital satisfaction and consensus, coparenting strategies and consistency, and their educational involvement at home and school, by responding with self-report instruments and some standardized measures, that were used to evaluate the perception of children regarding school achievement, participation and behavior, and self-confidence in school. They reported statistically significant associations between the relationship quality and the quality of the coparenting relationship with parent involvement in education. Specifically, regarding the current study, the results found reveal positive correlations between coparenting strategies and both school-based and home-based involvement, and a positive correlation between

coparenting consistency and home-based involvement. That is, the more parents engage in establishing an agreement about which strategies they will use in tackling child-related issues, the more they participate in education-related activities, both at home and school. Moreover, the more parents fairly share child-related work, the more they tend to participate in home-based activities.

The same study also investigated the direct relationship between couple relationship variables and child outcomes, and the mediating role of parent involvement in the relationship between couple relationship variables and child outcomes. These resulted in negative attitudes toward school and teacher, and in how children perceive school achievement, participation, and behavior, as well as self-confidence in the school. Regarding the current study, coparenting strategies and consistency were negatively correlated with the negative attitudes of children towards school. Coparenting consistency was also negatively correlated with school achievement. Parent involvement at home and school further demonstrated a negative correlation with negative attitudes towards school and teacher, intelligence, and school status. The results of the study also revealed that coparenting strategies indirectly correlated with school success through parent involvement in education. This means that a fair division of child-related work leads to a higher level of parent involvement in education, which tends to lead to an increase in success at school.

In conclusion, although there is limited research on the effect of the coparenting relationship on parent involvement, these research studies provide clear evidence for the association between the parent involvement in education and the quality of coparenting relationship, specifically coparenting agreement, coparenting support, and division of labor. This evidence demonstrates the effect of the coparental relationship between parents of older children. Based on this evidence, the current study also proposed that there may be a significant effect of the coparenting on the involvement of the parents of preschoolers.

2.5.3 Quality of Coparenting Relationship and Motivational Beliefs of Parents

The necessity for the participation of parents in the educational environment of children requires them to cope with several new responsibilities and duties as a result

of child or children's transition to school. This will create some concerns for parents related to their role in the involvement and their efficacy in helping their children in this new context (Dockett & Perry, 2004). Even these concerns will not continue through the education of the children. In point of fact, these concerns are the factors that determine whether parents will become involved in this important process. The determining factors of parental school involvement proposed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 2005), in addition to factors that emerged as a result of external effects (i.e., general invitation from school and specific invitation from teacher and child; parents' perception of time, energy knowledge and skills for involvement), are important along with the two important motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement, that of role beliefs and self-efficacy. That is, these two psychological constructs determine whether parents will feel a responsibility towards becoming involved and self-efficient, and therefore involve themselves in the education of their children.

A research study conducted by Schoppe-Sullivan et al. (2008) investigated the relationship between maternal gatekeeping, coparenting quality, and fathering behaviors. In terms of the current study, the most remarkable result was the significant positive relationship between the quality of coparenting and the beliefs of both mothers and fathers about their paternal role in childcare. That is, when the mother and father believe that the father is a part of childcare, and that he has roles and responsibilities regarding his participation in childcare, he becomes more involved in childcare and feels more competent. Clearly, the result of this study also revealed that a parents' role beliefs regarding their involvement in parenting practices in not only shaped by their own thoughts and beliefs regarding their role in the parenting practices, but also by their partners' thoughts and beliefs, which may influence the construction of roles. In this study, although researchers reported the aforementioned association for fathers, this might also be true for the other parent. Similarly, Feinberg (2003) proposed that when parents receive support from their spouses regarding their role in child-rearing, they feel more responsible.

Favez et al. (2016) examined the associations between the beliefs of mothers and fathers regarding the role of parents, the quality of coparenting, and the role of

child engagement in their longitudinal study conducted with Swiss parents of children at the ages of 3, 9, and 18 months. The study provides some notable results regarding the association between roles and competence, quality of coparenting relationship, and child engagement. The correlation between a sense of competence in the mothers and fathers was found as significant in the 18 months. Similarly, the results also revealed that the beliefs of the mothers and fathers, as each of them demonstrated significant positive correlations at the 3, 9 and 18 month marks reflecting the importance of the father, and at 9 months in terms of the importance of the mother. In short, this conclusion supported the result of the previous study, where the partners' beliefs and thoughts about each other were associated. They also reported that the mothers and fathers who defined their role as less important than that of their spouses stated that there was a higher frequency of conflict and less support in terms of coparenting. Therefore, when a parent believes that participating in parenting practices is not his or her responsibility, this causes less supportive behavior or statements of the parents towards each other, and leads to more conflict regarding coparenting. The study also revealed that mothers and fathers who see themselves as essential participants in the process of parenting are, in turn, more engaged with their children.

Buckley and Schoppe-Sullivan (2010) examined the associations between the involvement in caregiving and play activities of fathers of preschool children, the nontraditional beliefs regarding father involvement, and the quality of the coparenting relationship with their spouses (i.e., supportive coparenting and coparenting undermining, in dual-income families). They could not find any significant relationship between coparenting behaviors and the involvement of the father in caregiving and play. On the other hand, nontraditional beliefs about the role of the father in caregiving and play, positively correlated with the fathers' involvement in play activities with their children. However, researchers reported that parental employment moderates the relationship between coparenting behavior and the involvement of fathers. That is, in single-income families, a higher level of coparenting and a lower level of coparenting undermining correlated with a higher level of father involvement.

Similar findings regarding the relationship between the nontraditional beliefs of mothers for the involvement of mothers were reported in another study conducted by Zvara, Schoppe-Sullivan, and Dush (2013). A mother's nontraditional beliefs regarding father involvement were positively correlated with the involvement of the fathers in the health care of the child. Moreover, the supportive behavior of the mother leads to more involvement of the father. That is, the encouragement of mothers towards the participation of fathers in childcare led to the father feeling more efficient. On the other hand, these researchers did not report a significant effect of the nontraditional beliefs of the father regarding their involvement. However, they suggested that a high level of traditional beliefs regarding the role of the father, maternal gatekeeping, which is a form of undermining the parenting of the father, is more likely to impact the perception of their role. In short, what the parents believe about their own parental roles, which is an indicator of the responsibilities and duties they believe they should hold regarding the parenting process, influences how they behave as parents.

In addition to the role beliefs of the parents, their self-efficacy beliefs regarding their parenting practices may be influenced by their relationship with individuals with whom they have established a close relationship (Bandura, 1997). The primary relationship will undoubtedly be established with their spouses. That is, the relationship between parents will have effects on the sense of efficacy regarding their functioning in the family. Specifically, in addition to the marital relationships between parents, which has its own effects on the self-efficacy of parents regarding their parenting practices, the coparenting relationship that they establish as a consequence of being parents also influences the shaping of their parenting self-efficacy (Feinberg et al., 2012; Merrifield & Gamble, 2012). According to Feinberg (2003), parental self-efficacy can even mediate the relationship between coparenting and parenting performance. That is, the effects of the quality of the coparenting relationship are observed through the effect of parenting self-efficacy.

Indrasari and Dewi (2018) investigated the predictive role of parental involvement in parenting practices and coparenting on parenting self-efficacy. The researchers asked 152 fathers and 154 mothers to assess their involvement level, self-

efficacy, and quality of coparenting relationships by responding to self-report instruments. The results of the study revealed that parental involvement in parenting practices and the quality of the coparenting relationship are two strong predictors of parenting self-efficacy. The researchers concluded that the higher the experience of positive aspects (e.g., coparenting support) regarding coparenting relationship, increases parental self-efficacy beliefs regarding their parenting. A similar finding was also provided by May, George, Fletcher, Dempsey, and Newman (2015) in their qualitative study, where parents expressed the association between the coparenting relationship and their sense of efficacy in the diagnosis of their children on the autism spectrum disorder and the subsequent parenting of these children.

Merrifield and Gamble (2012) explored the associations between marital relationships, coparenting relationships and parenting self-efficacy with a sample of 175 married and cohabiting couples, in addition to the variables of their marital relationship, the quality of the coparenting relationship was correlated with the parental sense of efficacy regarding parenting practices. Specifically, although coparenting support was not significantly correlated with self-efficacy, coparenting undermining was a negative predictor of the parenting self-efficacy of mothers and fathers. On the other hand, the integration of coparenting support with marital satisfaction and maintenance behavior significantly predicted the parenting self-efficacy.

According to Feinberg (2003), undermining behaviors or statements of one parent may make the other parent feel emotionally incapacitated or place mental stress on the parent, and this may lead to low self-efficacy for this parent. Regarding this, Solmeyer and Feinberg (2011) investigated the undermining of the coparenting relationship and coparenting support with the parental self-efficacy of parents with infants as a part of their comprehensive study. The results of the study revealed that there is a negative relationship between the undermining of the coparenting process and parental self-efficacy. That is, the more the parents have a relationship in which they thwart each other's parenting, tend to reveal a low level of parenting self-efficacy, such as feeling incompetent in meeting their children's needs. On the other hand, the researchers reported a positive relationship between parental self-efficacy and

coparenting support. That is, the supportive behavior or statements of a parent, such as the endorsement of a parenting decision, may boost parental self-efficacy and lead to feel higher levels of efficacy.

In conclusion, although there is not, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, even a research study specifically addressing the relationship between the quality of coparenting and motivational beliefs of parents regarding their involvement in education, some of the research studies discussed in this section suggests the possible effect of coparenting relationship on the role and self-efficacy beliefs of parents about the involvement in education which is also a specific form of parenting practice. In addition to these studies, the current study will extend the related literature by providing significant evidence on the motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education. Compared to the previous studies, this study may contribute to deepening the understanding of the effects of the coparental relations on the motivational beliefs of the parents emerged as a result of the parenting practice in a different context: parenting in the education of the child.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

In this chapter, first, the design of the study that leads to the overall process is explained. Second, the population and sample of the pilot and the major study are characterized. Third, the data collection instruments are introduced. Next, the evidence for the validity and reliability of the instruments are demonstrated. In addition, the adaptation and translation process of the Coparenting Relationship Scale is explained. Fourth, the data collection and analysis procedures are presented. Lastly, the assumptions and limitations of the study are discussed.

3.1 Design of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to explore the relationships between the quality of coparenting between parents, the motivational beliefs regarding parental school involvement, and the level of parental school involvement in the context of early childhood education with a sample of parents who have at least one child enrolled in public or private preschools. In accordance with this main purpose, this study is descriptive in nature and adopts correlational research. Correlational research aims to investigate whether, and to what extent, an association exists between two or more variables without adding any intervention to the variables (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel et al., 2011; Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012; Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2006). Therefore, in this study the data was collected through research instruments (a demographic information form to define the samples for pilot and major study, and to use in preliminary and major analyses), the Coparenting Relationship Scale (CRS; Feinberg et al., 2012), the scales of motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement (i.e., Role Activity Beliefs Scale and Parental Self-Efficacy Scale) (Walker et al., 2005), and the Family Involvement Questionnaire (Fantuzzo et al., 2000), from the parents of preschool children, in order to explore the relationships

among variables. This study specifically employs the explanatory correlational design (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel et al., 2011; Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012). The explanatory design is mostly used when there is no or little convincing proof of relations among variables included to study. Therefore, this design allows describing relations among variables through an inductive method without depending on the preexisting model. Throughout the process, no intervention was made.

In correlational research designs, some data analysis techniques were used to examine the relationship between two or more than two variables (e.g., bivariate correlation analysis, multiple correlations, or discriminant function analysis). Meanwhile, more complex model-based procedures might also demonstrate the associations among variables (e.g., confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis) (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel et al., 2011). In addition, structural equation modeling (SEM), which is a combination of path and confirmatory factor model analyses, can be used to test a proposed model in which the relationships among constructs (i.e., latent variables) are defined by groups of variables (i.e., observed variables) and are tested (Kline, 2016; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). In this study, path analysis, which is a special form of the SEM conducted through observed variables, was used in order to investigate the direct and indirect relationships among the study variables—the quality of the coparenting relationship, the motivational beliefs regarding parental school involvement, and the level of parental school involvement.

3.2 Population and Sample

Within the scope of the design and analysis of the study the data were collected from a relatively large sample, which is essential for the quantitative aspects of study and in order to conduct robust statistics. Specifically, path analysis, which is a SEM-based analysis technique, requires a large sample size to reach more powerful estimations representing the association among study variables (Ullman, 2013; Kline, 2016). As a result, the researcher tried to reach as large a sample as possible from the target population to strengthen the analysis of the study.

The target population of the study is all parents (fathers and mothers) of children between the ages of 36 to 72 months enrolled in a public or private school in Antalya. However, it is not realistic and practical to reach all of these parents, so a certain number of parents from four urban districts in Antalya were reached for data collection (i.e., Muratpaşa, Konyaaltı, Kepez, and Döşemealtı). A number of public and private schools were selected from these four districts for convenience. That is, accessibility of the school and the number of children in the school were considered as selection criteria. On the other hand, the researcher paid attention to include schools from diverse socioeconomic backgrounds. Thus, this is the reason schools were selected from four different districts that have different characteristics in terms of the indicators of socioeconomic status (West Mediterranean Development Agency [WMDA], 2014). The schools chosen to become a part of the study were contacted to collect data for the researcher. Some of the schools refused to participate in the study because of the intensive workload. Most of these were private schools. As a result, 10 public schools and 20 private schools participated in the study. Although the refusal rate of private schools was greater in number, surprisingly, the researcher was able to include more private schools. The imbalance between the number of private and public schools arose from the number of children in those schools. That is, public schools had a greater number of children than the number of private schools. Within this scope, the number of participants in private schools included 265 parents (18.5%) and 1169 (81.5%) from the public schools.

All parents of the children, who meet the following inclusion criteria were considered as the possible participants of the study depending on the nature and the purpose of the study. The biological parents who are married and cohabited were included in the study. In that, the family is a complex system; the changes in the form of family (e.g., divorce) create quite a change for the dynamics of the family (Peck, 1989). Each of the contexts shaped as a result of important changes in the family is different and broad research areas, so the current research was delimitated to the family in which spouses are together and biological father and mother. In addition, the current study aimed to explore the parents' parenting relationships and their involvement in their children's education in the context of the family which has no special conditions.

Inclusion of all family types (e.g., single parents, stepparents, foster parents) would be not convenient and feasible for the study because there might be special permissions for contacting those parents because of their special condition. Moreover, the researcher does not have related expertise to meet or interview with those families.

Due to the fact that the participants of the study were not directly contacted by the researcher. That is, the data was collected by sending data collection instruments to the parents via classroom teachers. Furthermore, it was not expected that all forms sent to the parents would return (see Data collection procedure section). For this reason, the data collection instruments were sent to as many parents as possible. That is, 3,400 instruments were sent to parents. The number of the data collection instruments differed between the genders of the parents because it was noticed that in previous similar studies the participation rates of the fathers was lower than that the mothers (e.g., Anderson & Minke, 2007; Demircan & Tantekin-Erden, 2015; Freund et al., 2018; Hirano et al., 2018). Therefore, in order to balance the number of participants from each gender, more fathers were invited to participate in the study. That is, 1,750 collection forms were sent to fathers, and 1,650 forms were sent to mothers. A total of 1,683 forms were filled and returned from the total number of 3,400 forms for the main study. The response rate was 49.5%. The response rate of the fathers was 48.1%, and the rate of response from mothers 51.0%.

Data from 1,683 participants was collected with the intent to use it in the main study to answer the research questions of the study. However, the overall data could not be used for the main study. That is, the data obtained from 249 participants was detected to represent outliers that might confound the results of the study (see Outliers section). This set of data was deleted, and 1,434 data remained from among 1,683 data points. The demographic characteristics of the sample were summarized in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Demographic characteristics of the sample of the main study

Characteristic	Mothers f	Mothers %	Fathers f	Fathers %	Total f	Total %
Gender						
Female					715	49.9
Male					719	50.1
Missing					0	0
Total					1434	100
Parents' age groups						
21-30	146	20.4	34	4.7	180	12.6
31-35	233	32.6	185	25.7	418	29.1
36-40	233	32.6	294	40.9	527	36.8
41-45	84	11.7	133	18.5	217	15.1
46-61	11	1.5	66	9.2	77	5.4
Missing	8	1.1	7	1.0	15	1.0
Parents' educational levels						
Primary school	43	6.0	39	5.4	82	5.7
Middle school	61	8.5	58	8.1	119	8.3
High school	211	29.5	237	33.0	448	31.2
Associate's	6	.8	7	1.0	13	.9
Bachelor's	325	45.5	308	42.8	633	44.1
Master's	59	8.3	52	7.2	111	7.7
Ph.D.	5	0.7	13	1.8	18	1.3
Missing	5	0.7	5	0.7	10	0.7
Employment status						
Unemployed	257	35.9	7	1.0	264	18.4
Employed	395	55.2	643	89.4	1038	72.4
Missing	63	8.8	69	9.6	132	9.2
Income						
2000₺ and under	52	7.3	32	4.5	84	5.9
2001₺ - 3000₺	139	19.4	142	19.7	281	19.6
3001₺ - 4000₺	107	15.0	128	17.8	235	16.4
4001₺ - 6000₺	170	23.8	177	24.6	347	24.2
6001₺ - 8000₺	83	11.6	75	10.4	158	11.0
8001₺ - 10.000₺	69	9.7	80	11.1	149	10.4
10.001₺ - 12.000₺	30	4.2	21	2.9	51	3.6
12.001₺ - 15.000₺	14	2.0	17	2.4	31	2.2
15.001₺ - 20.000₺	5	0.7	11	1.5	16	1.1
20.001₺ and over	5	0.7	15	2.1	20	1.4
Missing	41	5.7	21	2.9	62	4.3

Table 3.1 (continued)

Characteristic	Mother		Father		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Income grouped						
Low	191	26.7	174	24.2	365	25.5
Middle	429	60.0	460	64.0	889	62.0
High	54	7.6	64	8.9	118	8.2
Missing	41	5.7	21	2.9	62	4.3
Child's age[2]						
36-41 months	41	5.7	18	2.5	59	4.1
42-53 months	190	26.6	167	23.2	357	24.9
54-65 months	251	35.1	283	39.4	534	37.2
66-72 months	188	26.3	193	26.8	381	26.6
Missing	45	6.3	58	8.1	103	7.2
Child's gender						
Girl	365	51.0	346	48.1	711	49.6
Boy	315	44.1	336	46.7	651	45.4
Missing	35	4.9	37	5.1	72	5.0
Number of children						
1	237	33.1	213	29.6	450	31.4
2	361	50.5	393	54.7	754	52.6
3+	93	13.0	75	15.7	178	12.4
Missing	24	3.4	28	3.9	52	3.6
School type						
Public	128	17.9	137	19.1	265	18.5
Private	587	82.1	582	80.9	1169	81.5
Missing						

Table 3.1 reveals that 1,434 parents participated in the study. The percentage of father and mother participants was relatively proportional to each other. Also, the distribution of the ages of the fathers and mothers was close to each other, except for the first and last groups. Meaning that, there was a similar percentage of mothers between the ages of 21 to 30 than of fathers. However, the percentage of fathers between the ages of 46 to 61 was higher. Similarly, the number of mothers and fathers have close values in terms of their educational level. Most of the participants, as seen

[2] The group of the children's ages was formed based on the month groups specified by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) used for school enrollment.

from the table, have a bachelor's and high school degree. No participant reported that s/he did not have any educational degree. On the other hand, approximately one-fourth of all participants reported that they have no job. Almost all of the parents who reported themselves unemployed were mothers. Conversely, only seven of the fathers (1.0%) were unemployed. The household income for mothers and fathers varied by less than 2,000 Turkish Liras to more than 20,000 Turkish Liras. The income ranges presented in the table were also grouped as low, middle- and high-income (Turkish Statistical Institute [TURKSTAT], 2018), revealing that more than three fourths of participants were at a middle and low-income level.

Child-related characteristics were also presented in the table. As in parental gender, different child genders were proportional to others. On the other hand, the distribution of the children enrolled, either in public or private school, were quite varied. More than three fourths of children were attending public schools. The number of children in either public or private school were close in number at the ages of 42-53 months, 54-65 months and 66-72 months, but children at the age of 36-41 months were numerically less than those at older ages. In addition, most of the parents reported that they have one or two children.

3.3 Data Collection Instruments

The data of the study was collected via five main self-reported research instruments: (a) the Demographic Information Form, (b) the Coparenting Relationship Scale (CRS; Feinberg et al., 2012) (c), the scales of motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement (i.e., Parental Role Activity Beliefs Scale [RABS] and Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs Scale [SEBS]) (Walker et al., 2005) and (d) the Family Involvement Questionnaire (FIQ; Fantuzzo et al., 2000). In the study, the Turkish forms of the Family Involvement Questionnaire (Gürşimşek, 2003) and the Turkish forms of the RABS and the SEBS (Ertan, 2017) were used to collect data. On the other hand, there has not been an adapted form of the CRS for Turkish language and culture. Therefore, the Turkish form was prepared by the researcher within the current study, and the data of the relevant variable was collected via this adapted form instrument. The translation process is explained in detail in the following sections. Lastly, a

demographic information form was developed by the researcher. The characteristics of the instruments were provided in Table 3.2, and the complete form of the instruments was provided in the following related parts. All of the instruments are also presented in Appendix A. The necessary permissions to use the instruments in the current study were taken from the authors of the instruments via e-mail.

All of the instruments were examined in terms of validity and reliability. The examination processes differed slightly for data collection instruments. As follows, first, the content-related and construct-related validity evidence was provided for the validity of the Turkish form on the CRS. That is, the translated form of the instrument was discussed with experts on terms, and a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted in a pilot study to produce evidence for the validity and reliability of the Turkish form on the Coparenting Relationship Scale. The process of translation of the instrument and the pilot study will be explained below in the section "3.3.4 the Coparenting relationship scale". In addition, Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficients were calculated to determine the internal consistency and reliability of the instrument in the pilot study. The validity and reliability related evidence derived from the pilot study were questioned. However, sufficient evidence could not be produced where the instrument was confirmed in regards to the sample of the pilot study. Consequently, some revisions were carried out to ensure the validity and reliability of the instrument for the Turkish form. These revisions are explained and discussed in the following sections.

Before addressing the research questions, all three instruments—the CRS, the scales of Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler's first level of the "parent involvement model", and the Family Involvement Questionnaire—were also tested in terms of their validity and reliability regarding the main study. First, in order to test whether the factor structures of the instruments were validated in the current sample, three separate CFAs were conducted, adopting the maximum likelihood method of estimation from AMOS 21 (Arbuckle, 2012). The results of the analyses for the CFAs were evaluated based on some fit indices provided at the "3.7 Data analyses" section to check to what extent the factor structures of the instruments were consistent with the data obtained from the sample of the study. The modification indices, and taking into account the results of

the analysis, suggested an enhancement of the model fit (Kline, 2016). Moreover, Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficients were calculated and questioned with the data of a major study.

3.3.1 Demographic Information Form

The demographic information form was developed by the researcher to obtain information related to the participants of the study. The form includes multiple-choice items related to the age of parents, educational level of parents, the income of parents, age of the child, gender of the child, and the number of children in the family. The demographic data collected via this form served two purposes for the current study. First, the characteristics of the participants were defined to present the overall picture of the sample of the study. Second, the information form included some demographic variables, which had been found to have an influence on the variables (i.e., parent involvement, the determining factors of parent involvement and coparenting) (e.g., Eccles & Harold, 1996; Feinberg, 2003; Fantuzzo et al., 2000; Grolnick et al., 1997; Kohl, Lengua, & McMahon, 2002; Lee, Kushner, & Cho, 2007; Overstreet, Devine, Bevans, & Efreom, 2005). Therefore, the demographic variables were also used in preliminary analyses to test whether they have an influence on the variables that were discussed in line with the research questions of the study.

3.3.2 Coparenting Relationship Scale

In order to assess the relationship between the parents in terms of coparenting practices, the CRS was used. The original form of the instrument was developed by administering it at three different times, when their first child was at an average of 6.5 months, 13.7 months and 36.8-month-old (Feinberg et al., 2012). On the other hand, the Turkish form of the scale was created within the current study, as a result of the pilot and main study for the parents who have a child between 36 and 72 months, and are enrolled in an early childhood education institution. In the following sections, the process of adapting the scale to the Turkish language and culture is explained in detail.

Table 3.2

Characteristics of the instruments

Instrument	Purpose	Variables	Number of items	Response format	Original form	Turkish form
The coparenting relationship scale*	To measure the relationships between parents in terms of their partnership in parenting practices	Coparenting agreement	3	0=Not true for us 1 2=A little bit true for us 3 4=Somewhat true for us 5 6 =Very true for us	Feinberg et al., 2012	Current study
		Coparenting support	5			
		Coparenting undermining	5			
		Endorsement of partner's parenting	5			
		Division of labor	2			
		Exposure to conflict	5	0=Never 1 2=Sometimes (once or twice a week) 3 4=Often (once a day) 5 6 =Very often (several times a day)		

* Note: The original form of the Coparenting Relationship Scale was formed from seven factors, which are coparenting agreement, coparenting support, endorsement of partner's parenting, coparenting undermining, exposure to conflict, division of labor and coparenting closeness. However, both the pilot and main study revealed that the six-factor structure of the scale was confirmed in the current study. That is, coparenting closeness was excluded because of the validity and reliability concerns discussed in the following parts.

Table 3.2 (continued)

Instrument	Purpose	Variables	Number of items	Response format	Original form	Turkish form
Demographic information form	To specify the demographic characteristics of the parents	Age Occupation Level of education Income Age of child Gender of child Number of children	7	Multiple choices and fill in the blanks	-	Current study
The scales of motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement	To measure the motivational beliefs of parents for school involvement	Parental Role Beliefs Scale Parental Self-Efficacy Scale	10 7	1=Disagree very strongly 2=Disagree 3=Neutral 4=Agree 5 =Agree very strongly	Walker et al., 2005	Ertan, 2017
The Family Involvement Questionnaire	To determine the level of parent involvement at home, school and the communication between home and school	School-based involvement Home-based involvement Home school conferencing	7 5 9	1=Never 2=Rarely 3=Sometimes 4=Usually 5=Always	Fantuzzo et al., 2000	Gürşimşek, 2003

3.3.2.1 Original Form of the Coparenting Relationship Scale

In order to examine the relationship between parents in terms of their partnership in parenting practices, the CRS, which seeks to determine how parents see their partners in terms of being a "coparent", was used in the current study (see Appendix B for the original form). This instrument provides a contemporary and comprehensive view of the measurement of the coparenting relationship. First of all, this scale was developed by Feinberg et al. (2012) based on the theoretical background proposed by Feinberg (2003) to explain coparenting, which is a complex and multidimensional construct. The instrument, which was developed based on this comprehensive theoretical background, provides a multifaceted model of coparenting. Moreover, in addition to the original items written for the scale by researchers, some items were adapted from some other previously reliable and valid measures of parental partnership in parallel with theory (i.e., parenting alliance inventory - Abidin & Brunner, 1995; a scale to measure the teamwork of parents - Cordova, 2001; The Family Experiences Questionnaire - Frank, Jacobson, & Avery, 1988; Coparenting Questionnaire - Margolin, 1992; the Coparenting Scale - McHale, 1997). That is, besides being comprehensive, the scale also provides the more current form of measuring coparenting relationship. Lastly, the Coparenting Relationship Scale provides the opportunity to use it with samples that have different parental groups, such as parents of children under the age of 18, parents of infants, and divorced parents (Galovan & Schramm, 2017; Reader, Teti, & Cleveland, 2017; Thullen & Bonsall, 2017). As a result, based on the strengths of the scale, this scale was the preferred one to be used in this study, in order to measure the relationship between fathers and mothers in terms of parenting practices.

The instrument consists of seven constructs that constitute the overall coparenting relationships of parents: coparenting agreement (four items; e.g., "My partner and I have different ideas about how to raise our child."), coparenting closeness (five items; e.g., "I feel close to my partner when I see him or her play with our child."), exposure to conflict (five items; e.g., "How often in a typical week, when all 3 of you

are together, do you find yourself in a mildly tense or sarcastic interchange with your partner?), coparenting support (6 items; e.g., "My partner tells me I am doing a good job or otherwise lets me know I am being a good parent."), coparenting undermining (six items; e.g., "My partner sometimes makes jokes or sarcastic comments about the way I am as a parent."), endorsement of partner's parenting (seven items; e.g., "My partner pays a great deal of attention to our child."), and division of labor (two items; e.g., "My partner does not carry his or her fair share of the parenting work."). In the context of the theoretical model of Feinberg (2003), the coparenting agreement domain of coparenting is represented by a subscale named identically with the domain: the coparenting agreement. The domain of the support/undermining divided into three subscales: coparenting support, coparenting undermining, and endorsement of partner's parenting. In other words, the combination of these three subscales is an indicator of the supportiveness of one parent for the other. The joint family management domain was formalized with exposure to the conflict subscale. The decision of the labor domain was assessed with the subscale given the same name as the domain. Lastly, although coparenting closeness did not exist in the model, the authors added this subscale based on the qualitative interviews conducted by Feinberg (2002).

All items of the scale are a 7-point Likert type. The response anchors of the coparenting agreement, coparenting closeness, coparenting support, endorsement of partner's parenting, division of labor, and coparenting undermining range are 0 = Never true of us, to 6 = Very true of us. On the other hand, exposure to conflict ranges from 0 =Never to 6 = Very often (several times a day). Coparenting agreement, coparenting closeness, coparenting support, endorsement of partner's parenting, and division of labor define the positive dimensions of coparenting. On the other hand, coparenting undermining and exposure to conflict stand for negative dimensions.

The reliability and validity of the instrument were tested by the researchers with 169 co-resident heterosexual couples when their children were 6.5 months, 13.7 months, and 36.8 months old. The model fit was acceptable for the scale (RMSEA = .06, CFI = .93). Feinberg et al. (2012) also provided sufficient evidence for the

reliability of the scale. The overall internal consistency of the scale ranges from .91 to .94 across gender. The alpha levels of coparenting closeness, exposure to conflict, coparenting support, and coparenting undermining, range from .75 to .90.

3.3.2.2 Translation and Adaptation of the Coparenting Relationship Scale into the Turkish Language

Before the main study, a pilot study adopting the translation of the Coparenting Relationship Scale (Feinberg et al., 2012) was conducted. Before the translation process, necessary permissions were received from the writers who prepared the original, in order to be able to translate the instrument to the Turkish language by e-mail.

The translation process was carried out in multiple stages (see Figure 1) (Hambleton & Patsula, 1998; Hambleton, 2005; ITC [International Test Commission], 2016). First, the instrument was translated by two separate researchers into the Turkish language. One of these translators was the writer of this study. The other translator was a researcher from educational sciences, having a good mastery of both language and translation, as well as educational science. After the translations were made, the two researchers came together and compared the two translated forms of instruments. After that, they detected the existing discrepancies, item by item and discussed the possible ways of overcoming these discrepancies. They achieved unity between the two forms of both instruments, and created a single form for the instrument. Then, this form was back-translated by a researcher studying English Language Teaching, and who has practiced translation and interpretation. Back-translated forms were compared with initial translated versions of the instruments. The existing discrepancies were detected item by item, and the possible ways of overcoming these discrepancies were discussed. Then, another uniform form for instruments was achieved. On the other hand, the back-translation was not the only technique followed in the translation and adaptation process. In addition, several experts from different fields (i.e., coparenting relationship, parent involvement in education, early childhood education, Turkish language, and measurement and evaluation) and the parents of preschoolers were

consulted to strengthen the meaning, appropriateness, and clearness of the expressions of items to adopt a more meaning-oriented approach for translation and adaptation process.

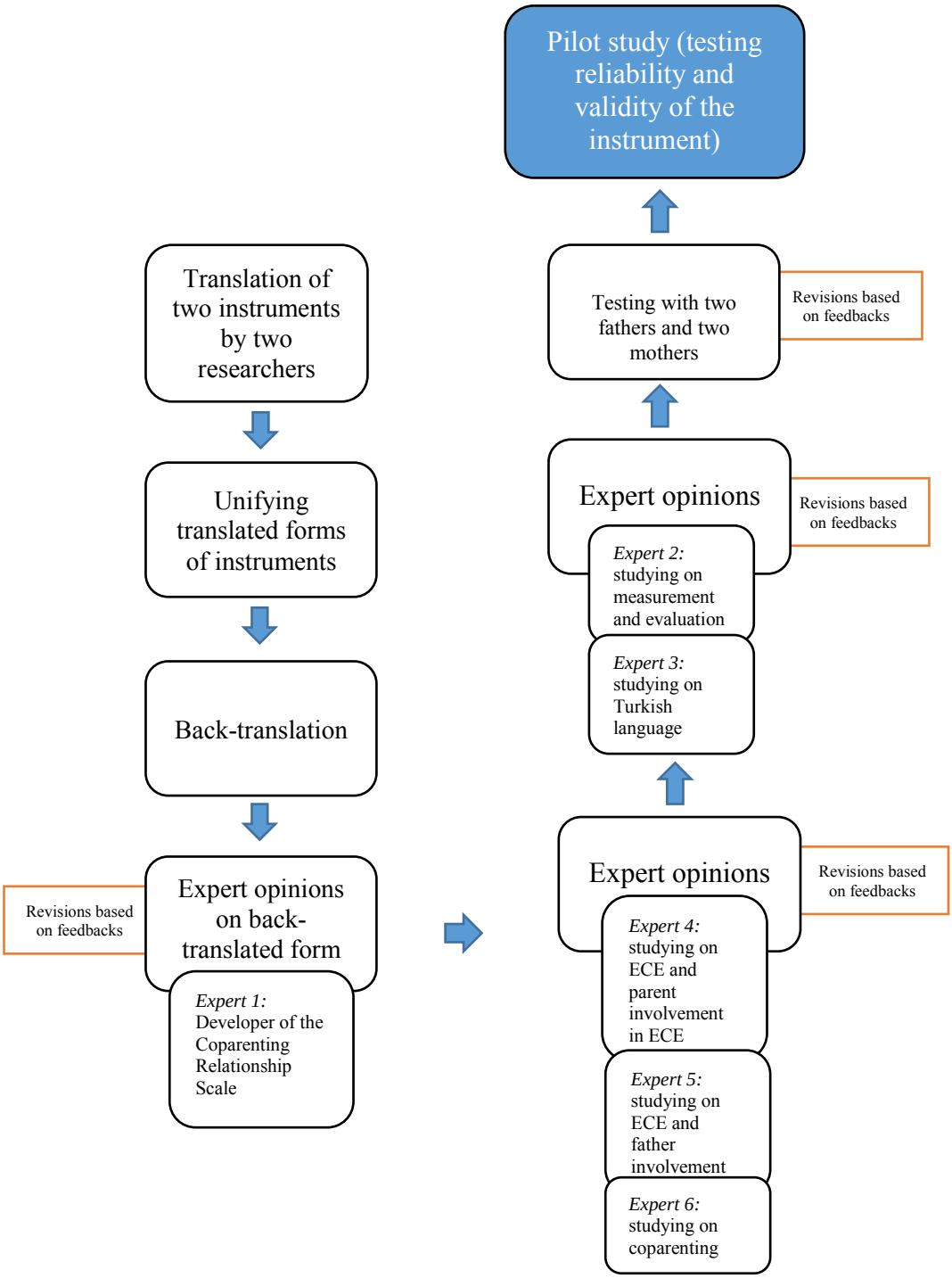

Figure 3.1. The adaptation process of the Coparenting Relationship Scale

After the baseline of the translation process, the forms of the instrument were submitted to experts for in-depth analysis regarding their suitability in terms of the translation of items, the title of factors, and item options. The process of taking expert opinions has three sub-phases. First, the back-translated form of the instruments was sent to the owner of the instruments to ask their opinions about the coherence of the items in the back-translated form and the original form. Then, the instrument was submitted to three experts from the related fields to analyze the clarity of language and appropriateness regarding their use with the target sample. First expert studies on ECE and parent involvement in ECE. Second, an expert who has experience in studies related to ECE and father involvement in ECE. The last expert conducted studies on coparenting relations. In the last phase of expert opinions, the instruments were reviewed by a researcher studying measurement and evaluation, and the Turkish language, for the clarity of language. After each phase of expert opinions, the necessary revisions were made depending on the feedback of experts. At the end of the translation process, the revised form was submitted to two mothers and two fathers to read and assess the clarity of items. Then, the final form of the instrument was created to test the reliability and validity of the pilot study.

3.3.2.3 Validity and Reliability of the Coparenting Relationship Scale

The validity and reliability of the CRS were tested via data collected in the pilot and major study. At first, the instrument was tested via CFA and reliability analyses in a pilot study (n=508). Then, after some revisions were made for some items, it was tested again via another CFA with the data collected for the main study (n=1,434). However, convincing evidence for the validity of the overall scale and reliability of the sub-constructs in Turkish, for the instrument, could not be found. As a result, the researcher decided to revise the scale through a purification of the scale. The revised scale was tested again via CFA main data (n=1,434). The final form of the scale took shape, depending on the evidence produced in the multiphase examination of the validity and reliability of the instrument. These phases are explained in detail in the following sections.

3.3.2.3.1 Validity and Reliability in the Pilot Study

The purpose of the pilot study was to question the validity and reliability of the Coparenting Relationship Scale in the context of early childhood education. The pilot study was conducted in two private and two public schools in Antalya, with the participation of 508 parents of children (36-72 months old) enrolled in these schools. The sample of the data was selected by the convenience sampling technique. After obtaining the necessary permission from the Applied Ethics and Research Center at METU and the Provincial Directorate of National Education (Appendix C), these schools were contacted by the researcher to arrange the meetings for data collection. Data were collected in the fall semester of the 2018-2019 academic year. The demographic characteristics of the pilot sample were presented in Table 3.

Table 3.3

Demographic characteristics of the sample of the pilot study

	Mothers		Fathers		Total	
Characteristic	f	%	f	%	f	%
Gender						
Female					261	51.4
Male					247	48.6
Missing					0	0
Parents' age groups						
24-30	40	15.3	11	4.4	51	10.0
31-35	103	39.5	77	31.2	180	35.4
36-40	87	33.3	88	35.6	175	34.4
41-45	26	10.0	26	21.5	79	15.6
46-59	2	0.8	13	5.3	15	3.0
Missing	3	1.1	5	2.0	8	1.6
Parents' educational levels						
Elementary school	17	6.5	18	7.3	35	6.9
High school	56	21.5	57	23.1	113	22.2
Associate's	43	16.5	29	11.7	72	14.2
Bachelor's	116	44.4	121	49.0	237	46.6
Master's	21	8.0	16	6.5	37	7.3
Ph.D.	6	2.3	5	2.0	11	2.2
Missing	2	0.8	1	0.4	3	0.6

Table 3.1 (continued)

Characteristic	Mothers		Fathers		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Employment status						
Unemployed	71	27.2	2	0.8	73	14.4
Employed	145	55.6	206	83.4	351	69.1
Missing	45	17.2	39	15.8	84	16.5
Child's age						
36-41 months	23	8.8	24	9.7	47	9.2
42-53 months	77	29.5	77	31.2	154	30.3
54-65 months	106	40.6	94	38.1	200	39.4
66-72 months	55	21.1	52	21.0		21.1
Missing	-	-	-	-	-	-
Child's gender						
Girl	122	46.7	119	48.2	241	47.4
Boy	136	52.2	126	51.0	262	51,6
Missing	3	1.1	2	0.8	5	1.0
Number of children						
1	91	34.8	86	34.8	177	34.8
2	139	53.3	130	52.6	269	53.0
3+	31	11.9	31	12.6	62	12.2
Missing	-	-	-	-	-	-
School type						
Public	206	78.9	195	78.9	401	78.9
Private	55	21.1	52	21.1	107	21.1
Missing	-	-	-	-	-	-

Data was collected via the teachers of the classes in the selected schools. That is, the researcher asked teachers to send the data collection forms, which were prepared by the researcher and put in an envelope. Then, teachers sent the forms to parents. For the pilot study, 800 questionnaires were sent to parents. Then, classroom teachers collected the filled-out forms, which were returned in a closed envelope by the parents, one or two weeks after sending forms. A total number of 508 of the questionnaires were completed and sent back by the parents. The response rate was 64% for the pilot study.

Table 3.4

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales of the CRS with the pilot data

Subscales	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Coparenting agreement	4	.62
Coparenting support	6	.84
Coparenting undermining	6	.59
Endorsement of partner's parenting	7	.75
Exposure to conflict	5	.81
Coparenting closeness	5	.42
Division of labor	2	*r* (508)=.34

The construct-related evidence regarding the validity of the instrument was obtained through the CFA. The results of the CFA showed that the model did not fit the data adequately ($\chi 2$ /df = 2.548, RMSEA = .055, SRMR = .072, TLI = .797, CFI = .816). The results of the CFA also revealed that some items were problematic in terms of representing their factors (β < .30), and standardized residual covariance revealed the covariance between observed variables (i.e., items) (>2.58) (Byrne, 2016; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). These items were CP2, CP6, CP8, CP18, CP21, CP23, and CP28. After seeking for construct-related evidence for the validity of the scale, the reliability of the scale was examined through the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each factor of the scale. According to Table 3.7, the Cronbach's alpha values were α=.62 for coparenting agreement, α =.84 for coparenting support, α =.59 for coparenting undermining, α =.75 for endorsement of partner's parenting, α =.81 for exposure to conflict and α =.42 for coparenting closeness. For the division of labor sub-scale, which includes only two items, the inter-item correlation was considered as the reliability coefficient (Pallant, 2010). The acceptable values for the inter-item correlation should be between .20 and .40 (Briggs & Cheek, 1986). This value found as r=.34 for the division of labor in the current study.

These findings revealed that the internal consistency for some sub-construct was not sufficient (i.e., coparenting closeness and coparenting undermining) (Cronbach, 1990). To solve the problem concerning reliability, item deletion was considered based on the results of the reliability analysis. That is, the results of the analysis revealed that if some of the items were deleted from the scale, the Cronbach's alpha levels of the sub-construct might increase. More clearly, if the CP6 was deleted, the alpha level for coparenting agreement would be .72. Moreover, if the CP8 and CP21 were deleted, the alpha level of coparenting undermining would be .64. On the other hand, deleting items from coparenting closeness did not produce a solution for the low reliability of this construct. Deleting items from the scale did raise the alpha level. Similarly, this construct was also a concern for the factor structure of the scale. The removal of the construct would also make the model fit better. That is, if coparenting closeness was excluded from the model, the data revealed a better fit with the model ($\chi 2$ /df = 2.723, RMSEA = .058, SRMR = .069, TLI = .820, CFI = .838). Therefore, the removal of this construct was considered an option.

To examine why there were some problems in terms of the reliability and validity of the scale, the items of the scale were analyzed in terms of item content and meaning. Experts suggested some revisions for some of the items. Depending on the suggestions of the experts, CP8, CP21, CP24, and CP28 were revised (see Appendix D). Moreover, the experts also suggested the deletion of the CP2 from the scale, depending on the results of the validity and reliability of the instrument.

3.3.2.3.2 Validity and Reliability in the Main Study

After the revisions in the items, the validity and reliability of the instrument were also tested with data gathered from the main sample of the major study (n=1434). The results of the CFA revealed that the measurement model, again, did not show a good fit with the data ($\chi 2$ /df = 5.602, RMSEA = .057, SRMR = .067, TLI = .807, CFI = .825). The results of the CFA also revealed that some items were problematic, in terms of representing their factors (β < .30), and in the standardized residual

covariance, which reveals the covariance between observed variables (i.e., items) (>2.58), as in the pilot study (Byrne, 2016; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). These items were CP5, CP6, CP7, CP8, CP16, CP17, CP28, CP29, and CP31. Moreover, the reliability of some factors was also problematic, as in the pilot study.

Table 3.5

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales of the CRS with the main data

Subscales	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Coparenting agreement	4	.65
Coparenting support	6	.82
Coparenting undermining	6	.62
Endorsement of partner's parenting	7	.74
Exposure to conflict	5	.80
Coparenting closeness	5	.55
Division of labor	2	*r* (1463)= .25

Table 3.5 indicated that the reliability of the subscales was in the range of acceptable values, except for in coparenting closeness, as in the pilot study. The Cronbach's alpha values regarding the main data were α=.65 for coparenting agreement, α =.82 for coparenting support, α =.62 for coparenting undermining, α =.74 for endorsement of partner's parenting, α =.80 for exposure to conflict, and α =.55 for coparenting closeness. On the other hand, for the division of labor subscale, the inter-item correlation was r=.25, which is in the range of acceptable values (between .20 and .40, Briggs & Cheek, 1986). The results of the reliability analysis revealed that the internal consistency of coparenting closeness was lower than the reasonable level of reliability (α >.60, Cohen et al., 2007; Cronbach, 1990).

The researcher sought a way to increase the reliability of the subscales. Here, the results of the reliability analysis offered some suggestions for the improvement of

reliability. That is, the removal of the item CP6 increased the internal consistency of coparenting agreement α =.65 to α =.70. On the other hand, such as in the pilot study, the reliability of coparenting closeness was problematic for the major study. The removal of items that have low inter-item correlations was not an option for increasing the internal consistency of this subscale. Then, the removal of this subscale from the measurement model was considered. In fact, when coparenting closeness was diminished from the scale, the measurement model revealed a better fit ($\chi 2$ /df = 6.072, RMSEA = .057, SRMR = .066, TLI = .821, CFI = .839). However, the removal of the subscale caused problems in regards to the reliability and validity of the instrument, and did not lead to a convincing value for the factor structures of the subscale.

3.3.2.3.3 Revision of the Factor Structure of the Coparenting Relationship Scale

The analysis conducted through data collected for the pilot and the major study showed sufficient evidence for the validity and reliability of the instrument. That is, the two CFAs (i.e., pilot and major study), which seek evidence to confirm a proposed measurement model, did not reveal a good fit with the data from two different samples and a sub-construct created concerns for their reliability. Furthermore, the results of the CFAs revealed that some items might not be specified in the measurement model. Moreover, some items created reliability concerns for the subscales. Hence, the researcher decided to purify the instrument based on the findings from the pilot and major study regarding the validity and reliability of the instrument on the basis of the theory of coparenting relationship (Feinberg, 2003).

At first, the coparenting closeness sub-structure was removed from the scale, because of the fact that the convincing evidence on the reliability in either the pilot or the major study. Moreover, the preliminary analysis also revealed that some of the problematic items in the scale belonged to the sub-construct (i.e., CP2, CP17, and CP28). Moreover, the factor structure of the instrument showed a better fit with the data, as discussed in the previous section.

Although this construct was not theorized, a different dimension of the coparenting relationship in the original form of the model of the coparenting relationships, as proposed by Feinberg (2003), was implemented. It was decided to include this construct to the instrument depending on the qualitative interviews with the parents made in an earlier study of Feinberg (2002). Therefore, although the original form of the model included four domains of coparenting (i.e., coparenting agreement, coparenting support/undermining [represented by coparenting support, coparenting undermining and endorsement of partner's parenting], joint family management [represented by exposure to conflict] and division of labor, the instrument developed to measure the coparenting relationship consisted of seven sub-constructs, including coparenting closeness, which is an indicator of intimacy, and the "sharing the joys of parenting", which is different from coparenting support (Feinberg et al., 2012, p.3).

The concept of coparenting may not hold the same meaning in different cultures, or a construct included in the conceptualization of coparenting may not be a part of the conceptualization of the coparental relationship for a specific culture or society. For example, Kurrien and Dawn Vo (2004) suggested the revision of the conceptualization of coparenting for Asian cultures, which have distinct characteristics from Western cultures, and should be considered before the using the original conceptualization. Similarly, in the current study, the adaptation process of the instrument to Turkish culture and language required a reconstruction of the instrument. Depending on statistical analysis, the sub-construct of coparenting closeness did represent the concept of coparenting in a Turkish sample. This sub-construct was considered as related to, but different from, coparenting support and suggested this was an additional structure for coparenting (Feinberg et al., 2012).

The reasons why this subscale did not work in the Turkish sample of parents might be that coparenting closeness includes items that refer to the intimacy and private relationship between parents, although they were related to parenting practices. Marital intimacy is important for spouses (Gabb, 2008; Heller & Wood, 2006),

especially in Turkish families (Aytaç, 1998). That is, spouses pay attention to the intimacy between them, and keep this intimacy a secret from others, who are not a part of the family. The preservation of the private relationship between the wife and husband, especially in Turkish culture, which can be characterized as traditional (Sunar & Fişek, 2005) might be more "offensive" than in western cultures, which are characterized as more flexible. In fact, by focusing on intimacy in the definition of family, it is suggested to use items which do not create privacy concerns and cause distress for the family members (Ministry of Family and Social Policy, 2011). Within this context, although the researcher endeavors to ensure confidentiality, the parents might feel uncomfortable in responding to those items, because they might think that the answers for those items should not be "leaked" from within the family to the outside of the family. For this reason, reliable and valid responses from the parents could not be received for the items of coparenting closeness.

After the removal of the coparenting closeness substructure, some items from different substructures were also deleted from the instrument to improve the validity and reliability of the instrument. The fit indices of the measurement model after removal of coparenting closeness ($\chi2$ /df = 6.072, RMSEA = .057, SRMR = .066, TLI = .821, CFI = .839) indicated better than the instrument with coparenting closeness ($\chi2$ /df = 5.602, RMSEA = .057, SRMR = .067, TLI = .807, CFI = .825). However, the measurement model had not a good fit to the data. Therefore, it was decided to remove some of the items that cause problems for the factor structure of the instrument. Some items which had high standardized residual covariance values, either in the pilot or major study, were deleted from the study. The items were deleted one by one, and each model, after removal of each item, was retested through step by step procedure: respectively CP6 from the coparenting agreement subscale, CP8 from the coparenting undermining subscale, CP7, and CP29 from the endorsement of partner's parenting and CP19 from coparenting support. After the removal of these items, the measurement model showed an acceptable fit with the data of the study ($\chi2$ /df = 4.376, RMSEA = .049, SRMR = .048, TLI = .902, CFI = .916). Moreover, deleting some of

these items increased the reliability of some subscales. That is, CP increased the alpha level of the coparenting agreement from α =.65 to α =.70 in the major study.

Table 3.6

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales of the final form of the CRS with the main data

Subscales	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Coparenting agreement	3	.70
Coparenting support	5	.81
Coparenting undermining	5	.62
Endorsement of partner's parenting	5	.74
Exposure to conflict	5	.80
Division of labor	2	*r* (1463)= .25

In conclusion, the final form of the Turkish version of the Coparenting Relationship Scale was comprised of 25 items, clustered in six factors (see Appendix E). The factors of the scale were named as in the original form: coparenting agreement (3 items), coparenting support (5 items), coparenting undermining (5 items), endorsement of partner's parenting (5 items), exposure to conflict (5 items) and division of labor (2 items). The reliability of the final subscales was presented in Table 3.9. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were acceptable for the scale (α >.60, Cohen et al., 2007; Cronbach, 1990).

3.3.3 The Scales of Motivational Beliefs of Parents Regarding Involvement

In the current study, the scales of the motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement, which are a part of Hoover–Dempsey and Sandler's (1995, 2005) first level of the parent involvement model were used to collect data from parents regarding factors that affected the decision of parents as to whether they were going to become involved in the education of their children.

Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's (1995) model of parent involvement processes starts with the determining factors of parent involvement. That is, they define some psychological and contextual factors that are influential in the decision of the parents regarding their involvement. In order to assess these factors, some sub-scales were created based on the first level of the model of parent involvement processes in education (Walker et al., 2005). Although some attempts have been made to define the factors that affect the decision of parents in terms of their involvement (e.g., Eccles & Harold, 1993; Grolnick et al., 1997; Kohl et al., 2000), the model of parent involvement processes in education has provided a more comprehensive, profound and multidimensional perspective regarding psychological and contextual factors that affect the involvement decision of parents. Therefore, in the current study, the sub-scales derived from the theoretical foundation of the model of parent involvement processes in the education process were preferred, in order to present a comprehensive perspective of the determinants of the parent involvement decision.

The first level of the model of parent involvement processes in education three main constructs that present a broader perspective of psychological contributors towards the decisions of parents regarding their involvement: (1) motivational beliefs of parents about their involvement, (2) parents' perception of invitations from others, and (3) parents' self-perceived life context for their involvement (Walker et al., 2005). Each of these main constructs includes some sub-constructs that are assessed via sub-scales. First of all, the motivational beliefs of parents about their involvement construct has two sub-scales: (1.1) Parental Role Construction for Involvement in the Child's Education including (1.1.a) Parental Role Activity Beliefs Scale and (1.1.b) Valence toward School Scale, and (1.2) Parental Self-Efficacy Scale. Secondly, the parents' perception of invitations from others construct includes three sub-scales: (2.1) Perceptions of General School Invitations Scale, (2.2) Perception of Specific Child Invitations Scale, and (2.3) Perception of Specific Teacher Invitations Scale. Lastly, parents' self-perceived life context for their involvement construct, has two sub-scales: (3.1) Self-perceived Time and Energy Scale and (3.2) Self-Perceived Knowledge and

Skills Scale. In the current study, psychological factors that influence the involvement decision of parents were the focus.

The original forms of the sub-scales were tested with the parents of fourth to sixth-grade elementary school students in the United States in multiple studies (see Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005; Walker et al., 2005). As a result of these studies, they stated that the sub-scales of the first level of the theoretical model were reliable instruments. That is, the Cronbach's alpha values of the subscales varied between reliable (α between .70 and .79) and highly reliable (α between .80 and .90) (Cohen et al., 2007; Cronbach, 1990).

The first adaptation of the scales for Turkish language and culture was made by Tekin (2008) with parents of first and second-grade children in elementary school. However, in this adaptation, Specific Child Invitations Scale and Valence toward School sub-scales were not translated and adapted because these variables were considered inappropriate for the sample of the study. On the other hand, Ertan (2017) adapted the scales of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's first level of parent involvement processes once again. In contrast to the first adaptation of the sub-scales, Ertan (2017) translated the Specific Child Invitations and Valence toward School sub-scales, and the items of the scales were adapted to the early childhood context. Moreover, differing from the original form, the researcher divided the Self-perceived Time and Energy Scale into two different scales as Parental Perceptions of Personal Energy for Involvement Activities Scale and Parental Perceptions of Personal Energy for Involvement Activities Scale. Moreover, she added another scale named Parental Perceptions of Personal Desire for Involvement Activities Scale to the perceived life context of the parents in order to enhance the information collected for the construct, while depending on expert opinions.

After that, the researcher piloted all sub-scales to provide evidence for the validity and reliability of the instruments based on parents of preschool children. The CFA results showed that the data of the study revealed an acceptable fit with the measurement model ($\chi 2$ /df = 4.12, RMSEA = .085, RMR =.13, SRMR = .08, TLI =

.92, CFI = .93). The Cronbach's alpha values of the subscales varied between reliable (α between .70 and .79) and very highly reliable values (α> .90) (Cohen et al., 2007; Cronbach, 1990): parental Role Activity Beliefs: α= .82, Valence toward School: α= .88, Parental Self-Efficacy Beliefs: α= .76, Parental Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School: α= .90, Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child: α= .74, Parental Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Teacher: α= .82, Parental Perceptions of Personal Time for Involvement Activities: α= .91, Parental Perceptions of Personal Energy for Involvement Activities: α= .93, Parental Perceptions of Personal Desire for Involvement Activities: α= .94, Parental Perceptions of Personal Knowledge and Skills for Involvement Activities: α= .89. These results provide supporting evidence that the instruments are valid and reliable for the context of early childhood education. Therefore, in this study, whose purpose is focused on the examination of the personal psychological factors regarding the involvement of parents, the Turkish forms of the sub-scales adapted by Ertan (2017) were used to collect data in order to determine parent involvement. The instruments were also tested in the current study in terms of validity and reliability.

3.3.3.1 Reliability and Validity of the Scales of Motivational Beliefs of Parents Regarding Involvement

In the most current version of the original model of parent involvement processes in education, each construct, which is a determinant of parental decision making regarding involvement, was assessed with a sub-scale (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005; Walker et al. 2005). In the current study, the measurement model consisting of these sub-scales, including the sub-constructs of the motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement, were tested via the CFA. The results of the analysis revealed that the measurement model indicated an acceptable to the data ($\chi 2$ /df = 4.22, RMSEA = .047, SRMR = .04, TLI = .91, CFI = .92).

Table 3.7

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scales of the motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement with the main data

Subscale	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Parental Role Beliefs Scale	10	.81
Parental Self-Efficacy Scale	7	.70

In order to examine the internal consistency reliability of the scales of motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each sub-construct were calculated. According to Table 3.7, the alpha coefficients for the three factors of the instruments were α =.81, α =.86, and α =.70, respectively, for the sub-scales. According to these findings, the internal consistency for the constructs was sufficient in terms of the reliability of the instruments (α >.60, Cohen et al., 2007; Cronbach, 1990).

3.3.4 Family Involvement Questionnaire

In the current study, the Family Involvement Questionnaire (FIQ) developed by Fantuzzo et al. (2000) concerning Epstein's (1995) parent involvement model, was used to determine the levels of parent involvement in the parents of preschool children. This questionnaire was developed specifically to delineate the multidimensional ways of the involvement of the primary care provider (e.g., parents, parent figures, legal guardians) in the early educational practices of their child or children at early childhood education or the first-grade level of primary school. This instrument has been frequently preferred by PI studies in the early childhood context because it provides a valid and reliable multidimensional assessment of parent involvement in educational practices, and in the different contexts of parent involvement, such as the involvement of parents from diverse ethnic, cultural and socio-economic backgrounds (e.g., Buhs et al., 2011; Bulotsky-Shearer, Bouza, Bichay, Fernandez, & Hernandez,

2016; Garbacz & Sheridan, 2011; Gürşimşek, 2010; Manz, 2012; McWayne, Campos, & Owsianik, 2008).

FIQ was developed by having researchers test a sample of 641 primary caregivers of children. This 4-point Likert-scale includes the following anchors that refer to the frequency of parents' involvement in education-related activities: 1=rarely, 2=sometimes, 3= often, and 4= always. The exploratory factor analysis revealed a three-factor structure for the instrument. That is, the instrument consists of 34 items within three factors of parent involvement practices: school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing. The items in the school-based involvement factor assess the parents' school-based parent involvement practices, such as being a volunteer in classroom activities or attending a field trip. For example, "I participate in planning classroom activities with the teacher." On the other hand, the home-based involvement factor aims to assess home-related practices of parents in terms of parent involvement, such as helping with children's learning activities at home (e.g., "I spend time working with my child on reading/writing skills"). Lastly, home-school conferencing includes items related to communication between parents and school staff as related to the education of the child (e.g., "I talk to my child's teacher about his/her difficulties at school." or "I talk with my child's teacher on the telephone"). Internal consistency for school-based involvement, home-based involvement and home-school conferencing were $\alpha = .85$, $\alpha = .85$, $\alpha = .81$, respectively.

In the current study, the Turkish form of the FIQ was adapted by Gürşimşek in 2003. After the translation process of the instrument, it was tested with a sample that consisted of 200 parents, of children between the ages of 60-72 months. As a result of the analysis, items that were not confirmed for the sample were excluded and 21 items remained. The internal consistency of this 21-item instrument for three factors—school-based involvement, home-based involvement and home-school conferencing—were $\alpha = .79$, $\alpha = .69$, $\alpha = .84$ respectively, and .87 for the overall scale.

3.3.4.1 Validity and Reliability of the Family Involvement Questionnaire

In the current study, CFA was conducted to test the three-factor structure of the FIQ for the dataset of the major study (n=1,000). The examination of the fit indices derived from the CFA for the instrument, revealed an acceptable model fit to the data of the study ($\chi2$ = 884.546, df = 180, $\chi2$/df = 4.832, CFI = .944, TLI = .902, RMSEA = .050, SRMR = .036). The results of the CFA for FIQ provided supporting evidence for the construct validity of the three-factor structure of the instrument.

Table 3.8

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales of the FIQ with the main data

Subscale	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
School-based involvement	7	.82
Home-based involvement	5	.78
Home-school conferencing	9	.92

In order to examine the internal consistency reliability of the FIQ, Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each factor were calculated. In detail, the alpha coefficients for three factors of the instrument were α =.82 for school-based involvement, α =.78 for home-based involvement, and α =.92 for home-school conferencing. According to these findings, the internal consistency of the factors that constitute the instrument was sufficient for the reliability of the instrument (α >.60, Cohen et al., 2007; Cronbach, 1990).

3.4 Data Collection Procedure for the Main Study

After the translation and adaptation of the Coparenting Relationships Scale, all four main data collection instruments were merged in a single four-page data collection form. However, there was not a single form to be used for both mothers and fathers. That is, two different forms were prepared by merging the main instruments of the study form: the father and mother forms (Appendices A and B). These two forms were

substantially the same. On the other hand, the words “mother” and “father” were used interchangeably for some items in the Coparenting Relationships Scale. The researcher also prepared a consent form including some brief information related to the purpose and the process of the study, and a statement related to the declaration of the parents for voluntarily participating in the study (Appendix F). The data collection forms and consent forms were put in envelopes, closed, and confidentially sent to parents.

The data of the study were collected during the fall semester of the 2018-2019 academic year. Before starting the data collection, the necessary permissions were obtained from the Applied Ethics and Research Center in METU and the Provincial Directorate of National Education (Appendix G). After obtaining permission, the schools were contacted by the researcher to arrange visits to the school for data collection. The first thing the researcher did in the data collection visit was to inform the classroom teachers and administrators about the purpose of the study and the data collection procedure. After that, the researcher provided the data collection forms in the envelopes to the classroom teachers to send them to the parents of the children in their classroom.

The sample of this study included the parents whose children were enrolled in an early childhood education institution. The researcher could not directly contact the parents. Because the intended sample of the study was very large, it was not feasible and economical to reach all parents individually. Therefore, the data of the study was collected through a third party: the teacher of the classroom. Therefore, it was the teachers who agreed to participate in the data collection process, and were asked to send the envelopes that included the data collection instruments and consent forms, via the children or to give directly to the parents if at all possible. The teacher was contacted directly or via administrators. The administrators were asked whether the researcher could directly give the envelopes to classroom teachers. Although it was rare, some administrators preferred to give the envelopes themselves, to the classroom teachers.

When the researcher was contacted by either the classroom teachers or the administrators, he informed them about the process of the data collection procedure verbally. The researcher also provided a guideline that explains how the process of data collection procedure would be, and some points that were crucial for the sake of the data collection procedure (Appendix I). Additionally, the teachers were warned not to open the envelopes for reasons of confidentiality. A warning was also placed in the consent form to ensure confidentiality. Parents were asked to put forms in envelopes and return them after closing. Depending on the procedure, the classroom teachers passed the forms to the parents, and then collected the envelopes in one- or two- weeks time. Then, the researcher visited the schools and retrieved the returned envelopes.

3.5 Ethical Issues

The researcher considered ethical issues seriously and carefully before conducting the study, as ethical issues are the first aspect to be considered before conducting research studies, and not something that can be postponed (Hesse-Biber, 2016). Therefore, the ethical issues that might be raised as a result of the current study were carefully and deeply considered by the researcher. Also, a center – the Applied Ethics and Research Center- within METU, was consulted to evaluate the study in terms of any ethical considerations. The committee at the center concluded that the study did not pose any ethical problems and granted permission for conducting the study (see Appendix C).

On the other hand, the researcher not only considered ethical issues before beginning the study, but ethical considerations were also regarded during and after the study. In conclusion, the researcher had also considered any ethical issues before, during and after the study, depending of the nature of the study: obtaining informed consent, confidentiality, deception, and any possible cause for psychological harm (Cohen et al., 2007; Gay, Mills, & Airasan, 2012; Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2006).

At first, the researcher sent a consent form, including brief information related to the purpose and the process of the study. Second, the way the data collected was could cause concerns related to confidentiality. However, the researcher ensured confidentiality by providing envelopes for the forms. The parents were notified to put the forms in the envelopes and return them closed. Moreover, the participants were asked not to write their names on the forms. The teachers were also requested to pay special attention to the conservation of the forms, and were warned not to open the envelopes. The names of the institutions and the participants were not disclosed during or after the study. Third, the participants were not deceived in any way. Moreover, as stated in the consent form, participants had the right to refuse to participate in the study and withdraw from the study at any time. Lastly, the items in the research instruments were appropriate for the parents and did not include any statements that could displease the participants or cause any psychological harm in the condition of the participants.

3.6 Variables of the Study

The mean scores of the subscales were used to measure the variables of the study. In line with the purpose of the study, the group of variables that were examined within the current study was:

Exogenous variables: coparenting agreement, coparenting support, endorsement of partner's parenting, coparenting undermining, exposure to conflict, and division of labor

Mediator variables: parental role beliefs for involvement and parental self-efficacy

Endogenous variables: school-based involvement, home-based involvement and home-school conferencing

Control variables: parent gender (limited to school-based involvement and home-school conferencing)

3.7 Data Analysis

The data analysis process of the study was carried out in four stages (Figure 3.2). First, the data were screened in terms of outliers and missing values, and the assumptions for analysis were checked. Second, the possible effects of the demographic variables on the mediator and exogenous variables were questioned because these variables may have an influence on the relationship on the study variables.

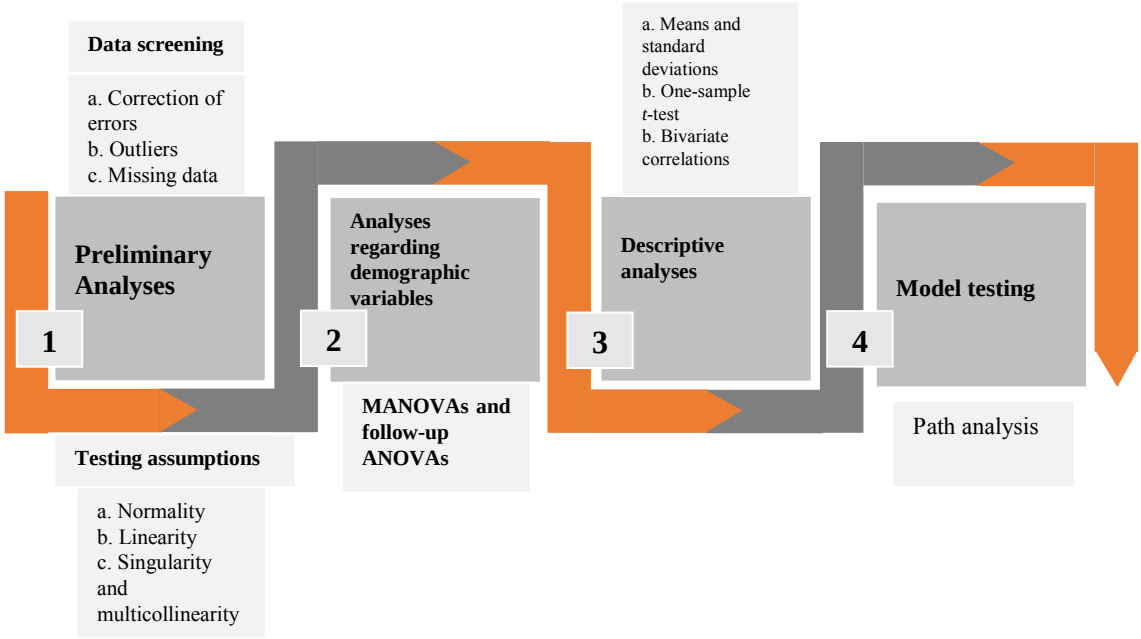

Figure 3.2. Data analysis process

In the third stage of the data analysis process, some descriptive analysis was conducted to provide an answer to the first research question of the study. Last, path analyses were employed to test the direct and indirect relationship among study variables.

3.7.1 Preliminary Analysis (Data Screening and Testing Assumptions)

Before starting the analysis regarding the research questions of the study, some preparatory analysis was conducted. First of all, the data of the study were screened and treated in terms of data entering errors, missing values, and outliers with the IBM SPSS 21.0 package program.

After the data screening, the assumptions that are the preconditions of the data analysis in the study were tested with IBM SPSS 21.0. First, the sample size, which had been determined approximately before data collection, was evaluated. Second, the data was checked to display normal distribution. Then, the distribution was assessed in terms of linearity and homoscedasticity. Lastly, the multicollinearity and singularity were controlled for the associations among exogenous variables.

3.7.2 Preliminary Analysis Regarding Demographic Variables

In the current study, some parent-related characteristics were considered as variables that may lead to false results. Some of the demographic variables were examined as to whether they would have an effect on the mediator and endogenous variables, in order to eliminate the spurious relationship among study variables. Briefly, the related literature has suggested that household income, parental education level, and employment status are associated with parental school involvement (e.g., Eccles & Harold, 1996; Fantuzzo et al., 2000; Kohl et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2007). Although the related literature provides evince to the effect of some parent-related characteristics, the researcher did not decide to only depend on the literature due to the potential differences between the sample of the current study and the samples of the previous studies. Therefore, the related literature was used to determine the potential control variables for the motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement and the levels of parent involvement variables.

Before addressing the research questions, the possible effects of the parent's gender, their level of education, their employment status, and their total income, on the research variables were examined via IBM SPSS 21.0 package program. Individual

factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVAs) analyses were conducted to determine whether scores for exogenous and mediator variables differed considerably against the parent's gender, level of education, employment status, and total income of the family. Although examining the effects of demographic variables on study variables does not serve as the main focus of the study, detecting the possible confounding effects of demographic variables (e.g., gender, race, age) that may affect the study variables, and controlling them, is important to produce more robust results for the study (Field, 2009; Fraenkel et al., 2011; MacKinnon, Krull, & Lockwood, 2000; Wunsch, 2007). Therefore, an analysis was conducted to determine if the gender and the age of children, employment status, educational level of parents, family income, the number of children in the family, and the type of school had any determining effects among demographic variables with respect to the study variables.

Before conducting MANOVA, some assumptions were examined to continue further analysis. Firstly, as it was mentioned before, the univariate and multivariate outliers were removed from the data set in order to avoid the effects of these outliers on the results of the analyses. Second, as it was stated before, although some of the inspection of skewness and kurtosis values, the results of the normality tests, histograms and plots, provided evidence that the data in the current study met the normality assumption for some variables, enough evidence was not found to be sure that the distribution of some of the variables did not violate the assumption of normality. Therefore, it was also decided to use the bootstrap method (i.e., a resampling method by generating the observations in the current data set from the possible samples) to control the violation of the normality assumption (Chernick, 2008). Third, multicollinearity and singularity were checked through the examination of the correlation coefficients among study variables. Consequently, multicollinearity and singularity were not a concern for the current study. Similarly, when the scatterplot matrices for all combinations of the independent variables were investigated, it was seen that there was no violation of the linearity assumption (see Appendix I). In order to endure the robustness of the analysis, the homogeneity of the variance-covariance

matrices assumption should be met. Box's M Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was assessed to test the homogeneity of variance. A non-significant value at .001 level means that the data does not violate the homogeneity of the variances assumption (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). However, the violation of this assumption may be sensitive to deviations from multivariate normality (Field, 2009). On the other hand, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) recommended checking the coherence between the sample size in cells, and the amount variances and covariance that that cell produces. That is if the larger samples produce more variances and covariance, the rejection of the null hypothesis can be legitimized. After all, no serious violation of the homogeneity of variance was detected in the current study. Moreover, a series of Levene's test of equality of error variances, which is more robust against deviation from normality, were also conducted as an additional check on the diagonals of the covariance matrices (Tabachknick & Fidell, 2013) (see Appendix J). The results of Levene's F tests showed that the homogeneity of the variance assumption was accepted as satisfactory; therefore, the variances associated with the two variables were not homogenous. However, the standard deviations revealed that none of the largest standard deviations were more than four times the size of the corresponding smallest one, so the analysis can be accepted as robust (Howell, 2010).

Interpretation of the *p* values for the effect of the independent variables on dependent variables does not provide evidence for the practical significance of correlation or mean difference. However, the effect size, which is an indicator of practical significance, provides more robust evidence for the effect or difference (Sun, Pan, & Leigh Wang, 2010). Accordingly, for interpreting the results of MANOVAs, the Pillai's trace, which provides more robust results in the case of suspicion for the assumption violation and dealing with unequal sample sizes, and more effective control of Type I error than other tests (e.g., Wilks' Lambda, Hotelling's trace), was used (Field, 2009; Harlow, 2005; Olson, 1976; Pillai, 1955; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Moreover, because the p-value is very sensitive to the sample size, partial eta squared values (η^2_p) were considered in evaluating the possible effects of the

demographic variables (Ferguson, 2009; Royall, 1986, 1997). According to Cohen (1988, 1992), the magnitudes of .01, .06, and .14 are interpreted as small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively. Specifically, the partial eta square coefficients lower than .06 are considered relatively small or trivial effect sizes (Richardson, 2011). Therefore, in the current study, the partial eta squared values equal to or higher than .06 were considered as sufficient evidence for the effect of the variables. Moreover, a series of univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed following multivariate analyses to examine where the significant effects lie (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). In order to provide protection against inflated Type I error rates, Bonferroni correction was applied to following ANOVAs due to multiple comparisons (Harris, 2001; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

3.7.3 Descriptive Analyses

The major analyses of the study were started by conducting some descriptive analyses to provide answers to the first research question of the study. The descriptive analyses were conducted to characterize the scores regarding each exogenous, mediator, and exogenous variables via IBM SPSS 21.0. In parallel, with the main purpose of the study, the means, standard deviations, and minimum and maximum values were reported for the whole sample. Besides, one-sample *t*-tests were conducted to determine whether the mean values of the variables statistically differed from the midpoint of the scales.

3.7.4 Bivariate Correlations among the Study Variables

The bivariate correlation coefficients between quality of coparenting relationship variables of AG, SUP, UND, END, CON and DIV, motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement variables of RC and SE, and the levels of parent involvement variables of SBI, HBI, and HSC were calculated to measure the magnitude and direction of the linear relationship through bivariate correlation analysis with IBM SPSS 21.0 statistical program. In the interpretation of the strength

of the correlations among the study variables, the coefficients lower than .30 were considered as the small effect. The coefficients between .30 and .50 were considered as the moderate effect, and the coefficients higher than .50 were considered as the large effect (Cohen, 1988, 1992).

3.7.5 Path Analysis

Path analysis, which is a form of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with observed variables (Kline, 2016; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010), was employed to explore the direct and indirect relationships among study variables in line with the proposed model assembled by the researcher. In the current study, the relationships among observed constructs regarding the quality of the coparenting relationship, motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement, and the levels of parent involvement were studied through a series of path analyses in which the direct and indirect associations among the study of these variables was examined simultaneously via AMOS statistical package program Version 21 (Arbuckle, 2012). Parallel with the research questions, the path analysis made it possible to examine the direct and indirect associations among study variables simultaneously in the path diagram (see Figure 3.3) (Kline, 2016; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The path analysis via observed variables was used in the current study because of the sample size requirements for latent variable models. According to Jackson (2003), the ratio of the number of the sample to the number of parameters estimated should be at least 20:1 (*N:q ratio*). This ratio was calculated as 17.92 for the current study. Although this ratio is close to the cut-off point for latent model analysis, and the study has a relatively large sample, the path analyses were conducted via observed analyses to reach more reliable results regarding the model.

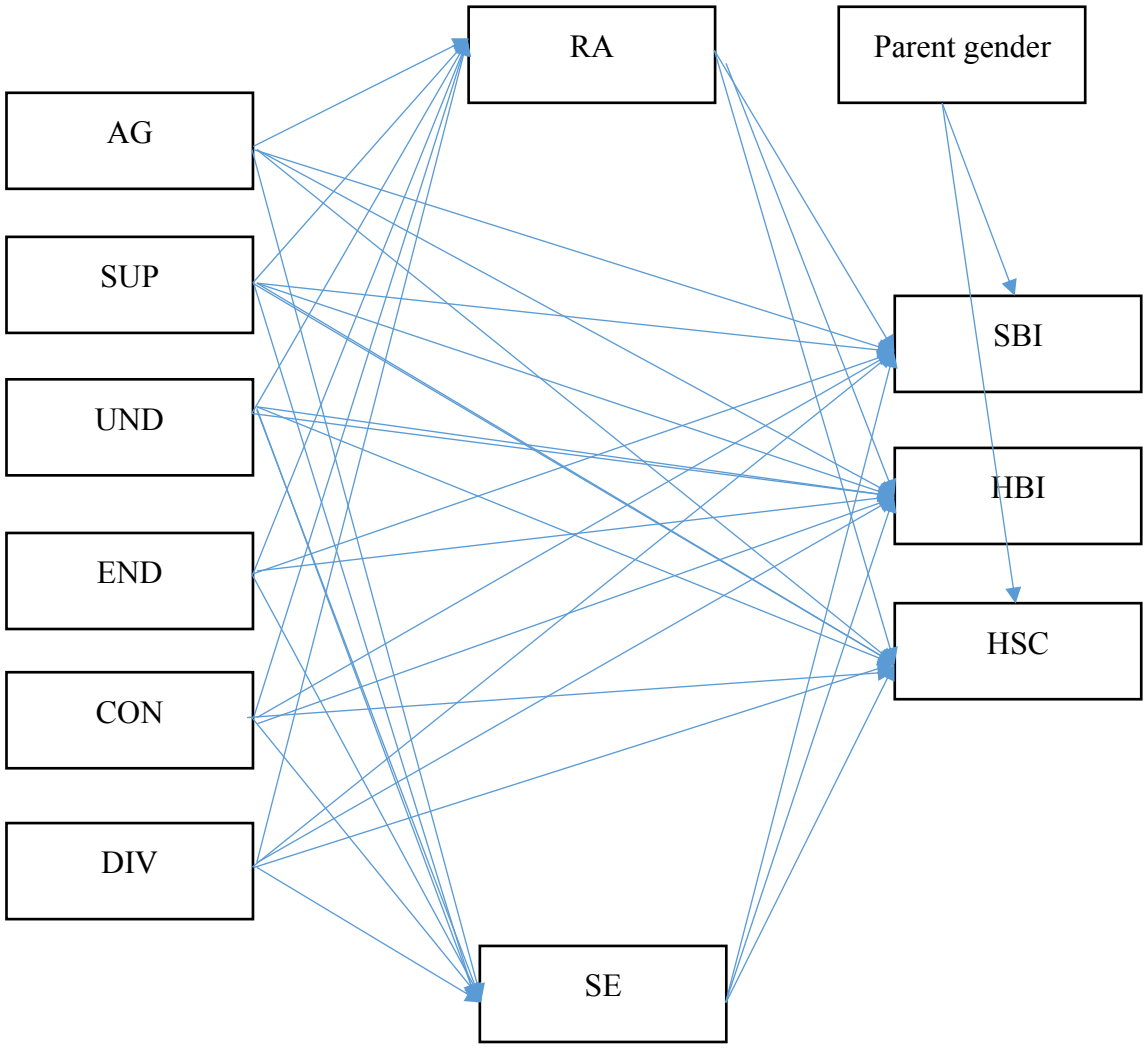

Figure 3.3. Initial proposed model

AG: coparenting agreement, SUP: coparenting support, END: endorsement of partner's parenting, UND: coparenting undermining, CON: exposure to conflict, DIV: division of labor; RA: role activity beliefs, SE: parental self-efficacy beliefs; SBI: school-based involvement, HBI: home-based involvement and HSC: home-school conferencing.

The steps of the path analysis suggested within the related literature were followed (Kline, 2016; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). In the beginning, the path model was specified through a detailed literature review in which the related theoretical background, research, and knowledge in the field were utilized (see section 1.4 in the

Introduction chapter). In the model specification, an observed structural model, where endogenous variables were specified as the outcomes of the other variables of the model, was adopted (Kline, 2016). The covariances were included among all exogenous variables, including control variables. Then, error variances were added to all endogenous and mediator variables in the model. The parameters were set. That is, path coefficients were determined.

Second, the model identification was evaluated. According to Kenny and Milan (2012), when making the decision regarding the identification of the model, the amount of known and unknown information to be estimated was compared. Here, the rule of thumb is that the unknown information should be less than, or at most equal to, known information. The knowns are determined by the depending equation: $k(k + 1)/2$ (Kenny & Milan, 2012, p.145), in which "k" stands for the measured variable. On the other hand, the unknowns include all parameters— variances, covariances, and path coefficients—to be estimated. Fundamentally, the degrees of freedom represent the difference between the knowns and the unknowns. That is, in order to fulfill the condition, the relationship between the number of known and unknown information in the model, or the degrees of freedom should not be negative for the specified model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). In the current study, it was decided that the model identification was established. After that, the estimations related to the proposed model were made with the data collected for the main study, including the determination of parameter values and errors of estimated values.

Then, how well the data fit with the model was tested in line with some fit indices. Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) were utilized to evaluate the model fit depending on the different suggestions for interpretation of the model fit within the related literature (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Sümer, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010, Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2016). The cut-off values for fit indices were presented in Table 3.9 In the study, the significance level of the chi-square (χ^2) value (p <.05) was not considered as a fit index,

because it was quite sensitive to the sample size (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014). However, it was reported for informational purposes.

Table 3.9

Fit indices and acceptable cutoff-values

	Fit indices	Cut-off values
χ^2	Chi-square	The smaller the better
df	Degrees of freedom	-
χ^2/df	Normed Chi-square Fit Index	≤ 2 to 5
CFI	Comparative fit index	≥ .90
TLI	Tucker-Lewis index	≥ .90
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	≤ .05 to. 10
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual	≤ 08 to .10

(Arbuckle, 2012; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2016; Sümer, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010, Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Yadama & Pandey, 1995)

To determine the relationships among endogenous variables and their predictors in the path model, path coefficients were examined. Path coefficients correspond to regression coefficients in multiple regression analyses, and their values are interpreted simply as regression coefficients (Kline, 2016). In Table 4.10, standardized (β) and unstandardized (Estimate) path coefficients, their standard errors (SE), and *p* values, which are used for evaluating significances of the corresponding path coefficients, are given.

Lastly, if the path model indicates a poor fit, then a modification or re-specification for the model may be needed (Kline, 2016). Firstly, to improve the model fit, Modification Indices (MI) were evaluated, and the error covariances between mediator variables (i.e., between RA and SE) and among endogenous variables (i.e.,

between SBI and HBI, between SBI and HSC, and between HBI and HSC) were allowed for free estimation, which was empirically and theoretically supported by the related literature discussed in the previous sections of the current study. This represented a considerable improvement in model fit, but to reach a better fit against the data, regarding some fit indices (i.e., TLI), second, the model was revised, and thus the nonsignificant paths were removed to trim the model (Chou & Bentler, 1990; Kelloway, 2015; Kline, 2016; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010), which is also in line with the design of the study.

3.8 Assumptions and Limitations

It was assumed that participants in the research have expressed their views honestly and accurately regarding the expressions in the data collection instruments that were used. Moreover, it was assumed that there was no interaction between parents while responding to items in the instruments.

The study was limited to the married and cohabited heterosexual parents of 36-72-month-old children enrolled in a private or public school in the province of Antalya during the fall semester of the 2018-2019 academic year. The study included only the biological mothers and fathers of the children; thus, other parental figures (e.g., grandparents as parental figures) or different family types (e.g., divorced, sing-parent) were not to focus of this study.

Another limitation was related to the data collection method. That is, the researcher could not collect data by directly contacting the parents. Therefore, approximately half of the instruments were not returned. The data of the study is limited to the responses that parents provided through the self-reporting measures regarding the quality of the coparenting relationship, motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement, and the level of parent involvement. Furthermore, alternative assessments, such as interviews or observations, were not used to collect data.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Results of Preliminary Analysis (Data Screening and Testing of Assumptions)

Before addressing the research questions, first, the data of the study were screened in terms of errors in data entering, missing values, and outliers and checked in terms of assumptions that should be met for further analyses in the study.

4.1.1 Data Screening (Management of Missing Values and Outliers)

In this section, the procedures followed, and analyses conducted to prepare the data for the main data analyses of the study via the IBM SPSS 21.0 package program were explained. First, the data set of the study was checked in terms of data entry errors, and these errors were corrected. Second, some preliminary analyses were performed in order to prepare the data for the main data analyses. The data set was inspected in terms of missing values; the missing values in the data set were replaced with the values derived through estimation. Last, the outliers were detected and removed from the data set.

4.1.1.1 Missing Data Analysis

Missing data is a serious problem that should be addressed before the data analysis because of the conventional statistical methods process on the assumption that all variables are measured in all cases (Allison, 2009; Brown, 1983; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Moreover, one of the major assumptions of the path analysis is that there should be no missing value in the data set (Kline, 2016). Therefore, in order to make proper analyses, the missing value problem should be solved before proceeding to the main data analyses in a research study. The researcher could either follow the

conventional methods, i.e. listwise deletion, pairwise deletion, dummy-variable adjustment, imputation (e.g., substituting means for missing value, imputation with regression) or more contemporary methods, i.e. maximum likelihood and multiple imputations to overcome the missing data problem (Allison, 2009). Instead of using the conventional models, following maximum likelihood and multiple imputations that bring advantages such as reducing biases, maximizing the use of available data, and providing a good estimation of uncertainty might be a more effective way of handling the missing data problem (Allison, 2009). On the other hand, in order to determine which method will be followed, some preliminary analyses should be conducted for the missing values.

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), the pattern of the missing values—whether the distribution of the missing data is random or nonrandom can also be a more serious problem than the amount of the missing data. Therefore, missing completely at random test-MCAR test was conducted to determine the percentage of missing values in the data set and whether the distribution of the missing values was randomly distributed in this study (Little, 1988). The MCAR test refers to an analysis to test the assumption that the pattern of missing data that belongs to a variable is not related to the value of any other variables in the data set and so it has a completely random distribution (Allison, 2009; Little, 1988). In the MCAR test, if the missing values in the data set are randomly distributed (χ^2MCAR, $p > .05$) and the proportion of missing values in data set is less than 5 %, the missing values can be assigned using one of the conventional methods (Allison, 2009; Little, 1988; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

In this study, the result of the MCAR test showed that the proportion of the missing values did not exceed 5 %; however, the result also showed that the missing data was not randomly distributed (χ^2MCAR (df = 51566) = 56434.062, $p < .001$). This result means that the missing values in the data set are not missing at random. Therefore, using conventional methods may not be practical because of their inadequacy in terms of minimizing biases and proving accurate estimates of standard

errors, confidence intervals, and p-values (Allison, 2009). On the other hand, the maximum likelihood and multiple imputation methods can be good at satisfying the criteria that conventional methods are inadequate to meet, and can be reliable in conditions in which the MCAR assumption is not satisfied (Brown, 1983; Rubin, 1976). Therefore, instead of the conventional methods, expectation-maximization algorithm-EM, which is a form of maximum likelihood method, was used and the missing values, except missing values of demographic variables, were estimated depending on the EM algorithm. On the other hand, the missing values of demographic variables were noted as "missing."

Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggested that data analyses should be repeated with and without using missing data in order to compare the results of the analyses. In this respect, the same analyses were performed with and without the missing values. The results of the two groups of the analyses revealed similar results. This similarity provided evidence that the estimation of the missing value did not create an effect on the fundamental results of fundamental analyses of the study. After providing solutions for missing value problem, the outliers in the data set that might create flaws for the analyses, so affect the findings of the study, were analyzed.

4.1.1.2 Outliers

An outlier in the data set can be defined as "an extreme point that stands out from the rest of the distribution" (Howell, 2011, p. 83). The extreme points in the data set should be detected and dealt with before the main data analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Therefore, the outliers that might affect the research results were removed in the present study. The outliers were detected by following univariate and multivariate outlier analyses. First, as a univariate analysis, the outliers of the data set were determined by converting the values to standard scores (z points) because in the related literature, the data with a value higher than 3.29 ($p < .001$) or lower than -3.29 ($p < .001$) can be considered as extreme values in large samples (Field, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Each sub-construct within the dependent, independent,

and mediator variables in the current study were analyzed one by one to detect the outliers based on z points of all constructs' total scores. As a result, 219 data with a z score higher than 3.29 ($p < .001$) or lower than -3.29 ($p < .001$) were accepted as the outliers and removed from the data set.

Second, multivariate outliers were determined by a statistical procedure known as Mahalanobis distance. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) and Field (2009), Mahalanobis distance is a case's distance from the center of distribution of other cases in the data set. It is calculated by comparing the critical Chi-Square value, which is significant at $p < .001$ level, to the degree of freedom, which is equal to the number of independent variables. In this study, when the degree of freedom (df) was 13 for all independent variables significant at the .001 level, the critical Chi-Square value was calculated as 35.084. Accordingly, 30 data with a Mahalanobis value greater than 35.084 were considered as the outliers and removed from the data set. As a result of univariate and multivariate outlier analyses, in total, 249 data were deducted from the data set, so the further analyses were conducted on the remaining 1,434 data in the study.

4.1.2 Results of Assumption Testing

After completing the data screening, possible violations of assumptions are checked (i.e., sample size, normality checks, linearity and singularity, and multicollinearity) via IBM SPSS 21.0 package program in order to test the appropriateness of the data for the analyses conducted to address the research questions in the study.

4.1.2.1 Sample Size

There are different suggestions for the sample size required to conduct statistical analyses. For example, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggested that the sample size should be > 50 + 8m in which m refers to the number of exogenous variables for testing multiple correlations. Indeed, SEM and path analyses are very

sensitive to the sample size (Ullman, 2013). That is, the large sample size is essential for the path analysis because the estimation of the covariances are more unstable when made from a small sample. Specifically, Kline (2016) suggested that 200 cases might be sufficient, depending on the educational and psychological review studies. However, he also asserted that this number is not an absolute cut-off for the minimum sample size because the sample size may depend on some factors such as the complexity of the model, the distribution of the data, the type of estimation method, etc. Correspondingly, in the current study, a sample was drawn as large as possible for more accurate analyses with the observed variables (n = 1,434).

4.1.2.2 Normality

Another essential step in the preparation of the data for statistical analyses is to examine whether the data normally distributed. Most of the statistical tests—especially SEM or path analysis—are conducted with data sets that meet the assumption of normality (Byrne, 2016; Pallant, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The normality of the variables can be assessed with different methods such as checking the distributions with histograms and plots, examining skewness and kurtosis values, and running Kolmogorov Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk tests.

Skewness and kurtosis values are the indicators of symmetry and peakedness of the distribution (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Skewness value is related to the symmetry of the distribution, meaning that if a variable has a skewed distribution, the mean value of the variable does not locate in the center of the distribution. On the other hand, kurtosis value shows whether the distribution is peaked or flat. If the skewness and kurtosis values equal to zero, this means that the data are normally distributed. In addition to that, for both the skewness and kurtosis values, a near-zero value is an indicator of a near-normal distribution. For the current study, the skewness and kurtosis values were examined to check the normality of each variable (i.e., the quality of parents' coparenting relationship and the motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education).

Table 4.1

Normality statistics

Variable	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Value	Standard error	Value	Standard error
Coparenting relationship				
Coparenting agreement	-0.350	0.065	-0.891	0.129
Coparenting support	-1.435	0.065	1.804	0.129
Coparenting undermining	1.194	0.065	0.971	0.129
Endorsement of partners' parenting	-1.547	0.065	2.701	0.129
Exposure to conflict	1.025	0.065	0.852	0.129
Division of labor	-0.271	0.065	-0.376	0.129
The motivational beliefs of parents regarding parent involvement in education				
Role activity beliefs	-0.465	0.065	0.204	0.129
Self-efficacy beliefs	-0.064	0.065	-0.372	0.129
The levels of parent involvement				
School-based involvement	-0.007	0.065	-0.606	0.129
Home-based involvement	-0.616	0.065	-0.194	0.129
Home school conferencing	-0.242	0.065	-0.574	0.129

The skewness and kurtosis values between -1 and +1 are excellent values for normality; on the other hand, the values between -2 and +2 are acceptable (George & Mallery, 2003; Pallant, 2010). In the current study, as seen in Table 4.1, the skewness values ranged from -1.547 to 1.194. On the other hand, the kurtosis values were in the range between -0.574 and 2.701. Thus, most of the values of skewness and kurtosis for variables were in the range of ± 1. The values exceeded this range was in the range of ±2, indicating a near-normal distribution. However, the kurtosis value of the

endorsement of partner's parenting exceeded the acceptable values with a value of 2.701. As a result, the normality check depending on skewness and kurtosis values provided evidence that the normality assumption for the distribution of the study variables was not violated, except for the endorsement of partner's parenting.

In addition to examining skewness and kurtosis values, the normality tests—Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests—were also conducted to test the normality of the data. The Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests in the current study, which has a relatively large sample (n=1,434), revealed significant results. Indeed, in these tests, non-significant results for each test are expected in order to provide evidence for normality (Pallant, 2010). The significant results for these tests reveal the violation of the assumption of normality. Hence, the significant results of the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests in the present study indicated that the data violated the normality assumption. However, it should be noted that the results for these two tests are typically significant in large samples (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010). Consequently, because of the large sample of this study, the significant results of the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests might not be the best indicators of the normal distribution.

Table 4.2

Tests of normality

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	Sig.	Statistic	Sig.
The levels of parent involvement				
School-based involvement	.050	.000	.990	.000
Home-based involvement	.104	.000	.943	.000
Home school conferencing	.051	.000	.982	.000
The motivational beliefs of parents regarding parent involvement in education				
Role activity beliefs	.063	.000	.981	.000
Self-efficacy beliefs	.142	.000	.891	.000
Coparenting relationship				
Coparenting agreement	.099	.000	.937	.000
Coparenting support	.197	.000	.820	.000
Coparenting undermining	.184	.000	.845	.000
Endorsement of partner's parenting	.186	.000	.827	.000
Exposure to conflict	.132	.000	.904	.000
Division of labor	.106	.000	.945	.000

Because the normality tests commonly provide results that reveal the violation of the normality assumption for large samples, it is also recommended to examine histograms and plots (Pallant, 2010). A bell-shaped distribution for histograms, a reasonable straight line for Normal Q-Q plots, and the proximity of scores to a straight line are the indicator of the normal distribution. In the present study, the histograms, Normal Q-Q plots, and Detrended Normal Q-Q plots were also examined to make a decision about whether data were normally distributed (see Appendix I). The

histograms, Normal Q-Q plots, and Detrended Normal Q-Q plots revealed that although some variables seemed to meet the normality assumption (e.g., school-based involvement and home-school conferencing), some other variables were found to violate the normality assumption (e.g., coparenting agreement and exposure to conflict).

Although skewness and kurtosis values, the normality tests, histograms and plots provided evidence that the data met the normality assumption for some variables in the current study, conclusive evidence could not be offered to arrive exact decision that all distribution of some variables did not violate the assumption of the normality. Therefore, the bootstrap method was used to control the violation of the normality assumption. The bootstrap method is a simple and effective remedy for the conditions in which the data does not meet any parametric assumption (Chernick, 2008). That is, the bootstrap is a method of resampling based on the fact that the observations in the current data set are generated from the possible samples (e.g., 1000, 2000, 5000), which are derived by randomly rearranging the observations (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). The bootstrap method may offer certain advantages when compared to other resampling methods (e.g., jackknife, subsampling, and cross-validation). First of all, the bootstrap method is useful for yielding more accurate confidence intervals that are sensitive to the deviation from normality (Chernick, 2008; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). In fact, it also provides a more accurate test of indirect effects, which is also one of the purposes of the current study (Bollen & Stine, 1990).

Hence, the analyses to examine the possible effects of demographic variables and the analyses of research questions (i.e., correlation analysis and path analysis) in the current study were carried out based on the bootstrap method in order to precise confidence intervals, estimates, and inference of the estimates (Neal & Simons, 2007). In detail, the analyses were carried out on the basis of 1000 bootstrap sample by using the percentile bootstrap method (95 % CI) in order to control for the possible distributional violations and the possible Type I error rates which may appear as

consequence of conducting numerous statistical analyses based on the same sample (MacKinnon et al., 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

4.1.2.3 Linearity

The linearity of the distribution can be assessed by inspecting the scatter plot of the correlations between variables (Pallant, 2010). A scatter plot provides the distribution of points, representing the correlations between two sets of data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). If the data points in this plot are located approximately along a straight line, it indicates a linear relationship between variables. On the other hand, if the distribution of data points curves in this plot, it indicates curvilinear relations between variables. The assessment of the scatter plots revealed that the linearity assumption was met for the current study (see Appendix I).

4.1.2.4 Multicollinearity and Singularity

Two other crucial assumptions that should be questioned before proceeding with the further analyses are multicollinearity and singularity. Multicollinearity and singularity can be checked simply by examining the correlations between independent variables in a regression model. Multicollinearity is a matter of high correlations between independent variables (Field, 2009). That is, when the correlations among independent variables are higher than .90, the issue of multicollinearity arises (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). On the other hand, singularity refers to the excellent correlation between the two independent variables (Field, 2009). In other words, the singularity occurs when one independent variable is a combination of two other independent variables. That is, it occurs when the correlation between two variables is ± 1. In the study, the examination of all inter-correlations among exogenous variables revealed that these correlations were less than the cut-off value of .90 (r = .58 max.) (see Table 4.7). This showed that the multicollinearity and singularity was not a concern for the current study.

Table 4.3

Tolerance and VIF values for exogenous variables

Variables	Tolerance Value	VIF
Role activity beliefs	.923	1.083
Self-efficacy beliefs	.851	1.175
Coparenting agreement	.761	1.315
Coparenting support	.554	1.805
Coparenting undermining	.711	1.406
Endorsement of partner's parenting	.608	1.645
Exposure to conflict	.716	1.397
Division of labor	.832	1.201

In addition, multicollinearity can also be tested via the Tolerance Value and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). That is, when the Tolerance Value is lower than .10, and VIF value is higher than 10, the data display some signs of multicollinearity (Field, 2009). In the current study, Tolerance Values (varying between .554 and .939) and VIF (varying between 1.065 and 1.805) supported the absence of multicollinearity. As a result, both the bivariate correlations among exogenous variables and Tolerance and VIF for variables indicated that there was no evidence for the violation of multicollinearity and singularity assumption in the current study.

4.2 Results of the Preliminary Analyses Regarding Demographic Variables

Individual factorial MANOVAs were performed to determine whether exogenous and mediator variables differed considerably depending on the parent-related characteristics—parent's gender, level of education, employment status, and total income of the family. A series of follow up ANOVAs were also conducted to further examination of the univariate effects of the parent-related characteristics on the exogenous and mediator variables in the study.

In the following sections, the results of the MANOVAs were reported with both statistically significant and nonsignificant values of mediators and exogenous variables. These results were also presented at Appendices J and K. On the other hand, the results of the follow-up ANOVAs which revealed significant effects of the parent-related characteristics on the exogenous and mediator variables were reported for the sake of clarity of presentation. The overall results of the follow-up ANOVAs, including both significant and nonsignificant effects were presented at Appendices J and K.

4.2.1 Results of the Analyses for the Levels of Parent Involvement

A salient result of MANOVA indicated that there was a significant moderate effect of the parents' gender the levels of parent involvement (Pillai's Trace = .09; $F(3, 1233) = 38.78$, $p < .001$; $\eta^2_p = .08$). The results of the analysis also revealed that there were significant effects of the parents' educational level (Pillai's Trace = .05; $F(18, 3687) = 3.15$, $p < .001$; $\eta^2_p = .02$), employment status (Pillai's Trace = .02; $F(18, 3705) = 8.72$, $p < .001$; $\eta^2_p = .02$), and the total income of family (Pillai's Trace = .02; $F(6, 2468) = 4.44$, $p < .001$; $\eta^2_p = .01$) on the levels of parent involvement. Although the effects of the parent's educational level, employment status and the total income of family were statistically significant, the results of MANOVA demonstrated that their effects on the levels of parent involvement were negligible because of the small effect sizes ($\eta^2_p < .06$) (see Appendix J)

Parallel to the results of MANOVA, the results of the follow-up ANOVAs revealed that the main effect of parent gender was significant on school-based involvement ($F(1, 1235) = 74.18$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .06$) and home-school conferencing with moderate effect sizes ($F(1, 1235) = 100.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .08$) The main effect of the parent gender on home-based involvement was also significant with a weak effect size ($F(1, 1235) = 15.08$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .01$). In addition, parents' level of education had a significant effect on the parent school-based ($F(6, 1235) = 4.10$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .02$) and home based-involvement ($F(6, 1235) = 5.40$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .03$)

whereas the effect of parents' employment status had a significant effect on school-based involvement ($F(1, 1235) = 21.61$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .02$). However, all the effects were trivial ($\eta^2_p < .06$) (see Appendix J).

Accordingly, in the present study, parent's level of education, employment status, and the total income of family were not included in further analyses to answer the research questions. On the other hand, the effects of parent's gender on school-based involvement and home-school conferencing were substantial, signifying that the participation of parents in school-based involvement and home-school conferencing might depend on their gender. Thus, in order to ensure that the results of the further analyses are reliable and independent of the effects of parent's gender, the effects of parent's gender on school-based involvement and home-school conferencing were consistently controlled in the later analyses.

4.2.2 Results of the Analyses for the Parents' Motivational Beliefs Regarding Their Involvement

The results of MANOVA indicated that parent's gender (Pillai's Trace = .01; $F(2, 1234) = 4.39$, $p = .013$; $\eta^2_p = .01$), and the total income of family (Pillai's Trace = .01; $F(27, 3687) = 4.09$, $p = .003$; $\eta^2_p = .01$) had significant effects on the parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement. Nevertheless, the results of the analysis revealed that the effects of parent's gender and the total income of family on parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement were negligible ($\eta^2_p < .06$) (see Appendix K). On the other hand, the effects of parents' level of education (Pillai's Trace = .01; $F(12, 2470) = 1.00$, $p =. 446$; $\eta^2_p = .01$) and their employment status (Pillai's Trace = .00; $F(2, 1234) = 1.92$, $p = .013$; $\eta^2_p = .00$) on the parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement were insignificant.

The results of ANOVAs revealed that the effects of parent's gender ($F(1, 1235) = 8.61$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2_p = .01$) and the total income of family ($F(2, 1235) = 3.02$, p = .049, $\eta^2_p = .01$) on role activity were negligible ($\eta^2_p < .06$). Similarly, the effects of the total income of family on self-efficacy beliefs were trivial ($F(2, 1235) = 4.56$, $p = .011$, η^2_p

= .01), meaning that the parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement were not significantly affected by the parent-related characteristics. Therefore, the effects of aforementioned variables on the parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement were not controlled in the later analyses.

4.3 Results of RQ1: Descriptive Results

After the preliminary analyses, the descriptive statistics for (i.e., the means, standard deviations, minimum, and maximum values) and bivariate correlations among the study variables were provided to answer the first research question.

RQ1. What are the general patterns of the quality of the parents' coparenting relationship, their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and their levels of parent involvement in education?

4.3.1 Quality of Coparenting Relationship

The coparenting relationship between parents was measured through their responses to the items in the Turkish form of the Coparenting Relationship Scale (Feinberg et al., 2012), translated and adapted into Turkish language and culture within the current study. The Turkish form of the instrument included five subscales representing the different sub-constructs of the coparenting relationship between parents. Participants respond to the items in the sub-scales of coparenting agreement (i.e., coparenting support, endorsement of partner's parenting and coparenting undermining) on a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (not true for us) to 6 (very true for us). On the other hand, participants respond to the items of exposure to conflict subscale, by stating the frequency of the situations in which they find themselves when all three of them (i.e., parents and child) are together (i.e., from 0 = Never to 6 = Very often [several times a day]).

With scores ranging from 0 to 6, higher scores from coparenting agreement indicate higher levels of consensus between parents in terms of the parenting-related issues; higher scores from coparenting support indicate higher-level supportive

behaviors or thoughts provided by a parent for the other parent; higher scores from coparenting undermining indicate higher level of a parent's behaviors or expressions that might weaken the parenting of the other parent; higher scores from endorsement of partner's parenting indicate higher level of the approval for the parenting practices of the other parent; higher scores from division of labor (i.e., specifically referring to the division of parental labor) indicate fairer share of the parenting-related works, and higher scores from exposure to conflict indicate higher frequency of the situations that cause conflict between parents regarding parenting practices.

Table 4.4

Descriptive statistics for the quality of coparenting relationship

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*Min.*	*Max.*	*t* *df*=1433
Coparenting agreement	3.85	1.67	0.00	6.00	19.22**
Coparenting support	5.15	1.00	1.00	6.00	81.24**
Coparenting undermining	0.92	1.02	0.00	5.20	-77.15**
Endorsement of partner's parenting	5.29	0.81	0.80	6.00	107.63**
Exposure to conflict	0.87	0.78	0.00	4.00	-103.96**
Division of labor	3.87	1.48	0.00	6.00	22.09**

**$p < .01$

The descriptive statistics in relation to the constructs of the coparenting relationship and the *t* values used for comparison of the mean values with the midpoint of the scale (3) were presented in Table 4.4. Accordingly, the mean score of the endorsement of partner's parenting (M = 5.29, SD = 0.81) was significantly higher than the midpoint, $t(1433) = 107.63$, $p = .001$, revealing that parents had a quite positive view of their partner's parenting. Likewise, regarding coparenting support, the mean score (M = 5.15, SD = 1.00) was significantly higher than the midpoint,

$t(1433) = 81.24$, $p = .001$, suggesting that parents found their relationship with their partner highly supportive. On the contrary, the mean score of coparenting undermining ($M = 0.92$, $SD = 1.02$) was significantly lower than the midpoint, $t(1433) = -77.15$, $p = .001$, indicating that the partners of parents displayed very few negative behaviors and statements regarding their own parenting. As these results suggest, parents adopt highly supportive behaviors, expressions, and thoughts in their relationships with their partners.

In addition, although the agreement with the other parent in terms of parenting was very close to medium level ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 1.67$), it was statistically higher than the midpoint, $t(1433) = 19.22$, $p = .001$. Similarly, the division of labor with the other parent in terms of parenting was at the nearly medium level ($M = 3.87$, $SD = 1.48$) but it was statistically higher than the midpoint, $t(1433) = 22.09$, $p = .001$. Similar to coparenting undermining the quite low mean scores of exposure to conflict ($M = .87$, $SD = 0.78$) was significantly lower than the midpoint, $t(1433) = 22.09$, $p = .001$, meaning that they were rarely involved in the conflict in the presence of their child or children.

4.3.2 Parents' Motivational Beliefs Regarding Their Involvement in Education

Parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement in education were measured via the subscales of Motivational Beliefs regarding Involvement Scale developed depending on the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's first level of parent involvement processes (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005; Walker et al., 2005). In general, the subscales assess the personal motivational factors that have an influence on the decisions of the parents on whether their involvement will occur. Participants respond to the items in the subscales of role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs parents were asked for their level of agreement for the items (i.e., 1=Disagree very strongly to 5 =Agree very strongly). With scores ranging from 1 to 5, higher scores from parental role activity indicate parents' stronger beliefs about their responsibility

and role in education and higher scores from self-efficacy beliefs indicate higher competence of parents in participating in education-related activities.

Table 4.5

Descriptive statistics for the motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*Min.*	*Max.*	*t* *df*=1433
Role activity beliefs	3.82	0.62	1.70	5	50.04**
Self-efficacy beliefs	3.78	0.59	1.86	5	50.08**

**$p < .01$

The descriptive statistics related to the constructs of the parents' motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education and the *t* values used for comparison of the mean values with the midpoint of the scales (3) were presented in Table 4.5. As seen in Table 4.5, the parents had high levels of role activity beliefs (M = 3.82, SD = 0.62; $t(1433) = 50.04$, $p = .001$) which was and self-efficacy beliefs (M = 3.78, SD = 0.59; $t(1433) = 50.08$, $p = .001$) about their involvement, suggesting that parents were strongly inclined to believe that they were responsible for becoming involved in education, and they were competent in involvement.

4.3.3 Level of Parent Involvement in Education

Parents' levels of involvement in their child's educational activities were measured with the Turkish form of Family Involvement Questionnaire (Gürşimşek, 2003). Participants respond to the items in the questionnaire on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always) to state the frequency of their involvement in the activity education-related activities. With this 5-point-Likert instrument (i.e., 1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often and 5 = always), participants were asked to respond items considering the frequency of their involvement in the activity education-related activities. With scores ranging from 1 to

5, higher scores indicate higher levels of parent involvement. On the other hand, lower scores indicate lower levels of parent involvement.

Table 4.6

Descriptive statistics for the levels of parent involvement

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*Min.*	*Max.*	*t* *df*=1433
School-based involvement	3.05	0.87	1.00	5.00	2.02
Home-based involvement	4.17	0.64	2.00	5.00	68.14**
Home-school conferencing	3.25	0.97	1.00	5.00	9.61**

**$p < .01$

The descriptive statistics with regard to the levels of parent involvement and the *t* values used for comparison of the mean values with the midpoint of the scale (3) were given in Table 4.6. As seen in Table 4.6, the mean score of the home-based involvement revealed that parents had a high level of home-based involvement (M = 4.17, SD = 0.64), which is significantly higher than the midpoint, $t(1433) = 68.14$, p = .001. In addition, although the mean score of home-school conferencing (M = 3.25, SD = 0.97) was very close to the moderate level, it was statistically higher than the midpoint, $t(1433) = 9.61$, p = .001. On the other hand, the mean score of school-based involvement (M = 3.05, SD = 0.87) did not significantly differ from the midpoint, $t(1433) = 2.02$, p = .05. Overall, the results revealed that parents reported moderate and high levels of participation in their children's education-related activities.

4.4 Bivariate Correlations among the Study Variables

In order to present an overview of the relationships among the study variables, Pearson correlation analysis was computed. The results of the correlation analysis were presented in Table 4.7. As shown in Table 4.7, there were significant and positive relationships between coparenting support and coparenting agreement (r = .27, p <

.001); between coparenting undermining and exposure to conflict (r = .35, $p < .001$); between coparenting support and endorsement of partner's parenting (r = .58, $p < .001$). These results revealed that parents who got higher scores from any of these variables tended to get higher scores from the others. On the other hand, there were significant and negative relationships between endorsement of partner's parenting and coparenting undermining (r = -.17, $p <.001$); between coparenting support and coparenting undermining (r = -.31, $p < .001$). These results revealed that parents who got higher scores from any of these paired variables tended to get lower scores from the others.

In terms of coparenting relationship, the two strongest relationships were found between coparenting support and endorsement of partner's parenting (r = .58, $p < .001$), as well as between coparenting support and exposure to conflict (r = -.46, $p < .001$). On the other hand, the weakest relationships were found between coparenting undermining and endorsement of partner's parenting (r = -.17, $p < .001$) and between coparenting support and division of labor (r = .17, $p < .001$) (see Table 4.7).

In addition, As Table 4.7 indicates, role activity beliefs were significantly and positively related to self-efficacy beliefs (r = .14, p < .001). As for the levels of parent involvement in education (i.e., school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing), there were positive associations among them. Specifically, there were significant and positive relationships between home-based and school-based involvement (r = .42, $p < .001$); between home-based involvement and home-school conferencing (r = .47, $p < .001$); between school-based involvement and home-school conferencing (r = .59, $p < .001$). These strong relationships revealed that the parents who became involved in one type of involvement tended to become involved at higher levels in other activities of parent involvement.

Table 4.7

Bivariate correlations among the study variables

	AG	SUP	UND	END	CON	DIV	RA	SE	SBI	HBI	HSC
AG											
SUP	.27***										
UND	.-42***	-.31***									
END	.24***	.58***	-.17***								
CON	-.32***	-.46***	.35***	-.33***							
DIV	.23***	.17***	-.28***	.30***	-.18***						
RA	.05	.15**	-.03	.13***	-.08**	-.04					
SE	.23***	.25***	-.24***	.17***	-.19***	.11***	.22***				
SBI	.08*	.09***	-.12***	-.05	-.07*	-.15***	.28***	.17***			
HBI	.16***	.23***	-19***	.11***	-.24***	-.02	.26***	.33***	.42***		
HSC	.06*	.16****	-.11***	.03	-.09***	-.09**	.32***	.22***	.59***	.47***	

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$ ***$p < .001$

AG: coparenting agreement, SUP: coparenting support, END: endorsement of partner's parenting, UND: coparenting undermining, CON: exposure to conflict, DIV: division of labor; RA: role activity beliefs, SE: parental self-efficacy beliefs; SBI: school-based involvement, HBI: home-based involvement and HSC: home-school conferencing.

Table 4.7 also showed that the quality of coparenting relationship and the levels of parent involvement of the parents were correlated positively or negatively. That is, the positive constructs of the coparenting (i.e., coparenting agreement, coparenting support, endorsement of partner's parenting and parent involvement) and the levels of parent involvement correlated negatively or positively (e.g., between coparenting agreement and home-school conferencing, r = .06, p = .023; and between coparenting undermining and school-based involvement, r = -.12, p < .001).

Similarly, the quality of coparenting relationship and the motivational beliefs regarding involvement were also correlated positively or negatively. That is, there were positive and significant associations between positive constructs of the coparenting relationship and motivational beliefs regarding involvement of the parent involvement, varying from .08 to .25 (e.g., between role activity beliefs and coparenting support, r =.15, p < .001). On the other hand, the associations between negative constructs of the coparenting relationship and the motivational beliefs regarding involvement were negative and significant, varying from -.24 to -.05 (e.g., between self-efficacy and exposure to conflict, r = -.19, p < .001).

With correlation coefficients ranging from .10 to .33 (p < .001), the motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement were found significantly and positively correlated with the levels of parent involvement as expected, which indicates that parents who had higher role activity and self-efficacy beliefs tended to get higher scores on school-based involvement, home-based involvement and home-school conferencing. The strongest relationship was found between self-efficacy beliefs and home-based involvement (r = .33, p < .001). On the other hand, the weakest relationship was observed between self-efficacy beliefs and school-based involvement (r = .17, p < .001) (see Table 4.7).

4.5 Results of RQ2: Proposed Model

For the second research question of the study, a path model was created and tested by conducting a series of path analyses to determine whether the model fits the data:

RQ2. What are the direct and indirect relationships between the quality of the parents' coparenting relationship, their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and their levels of parent involvement in education?

As displayed in Figure 4.1, in the proposed model, exogenous variables (independent variables) were the quality of parents' coparenting relationship (i.e., coparenting agreement [AG], coparenting support [SUP], coparenting undermining [UND], endorsement of partner's parenting [END], exposure to conflict [CON], and division of labor [DIV]. Mediator variables were parents' motivational beliefs regarding their involvement in education (i.e., parental activity beliefs [RA] and parental self-efficacy beliefs for helping their child succeed in school [SE]). Lastly, endogenous variables (dependent variables) were the levels of parent involvement in education (i.e., school-based involvement [SBI], home-based involvement [HBI], and home-school conferencing [HSC]). The effects of parent's gender on SBI and HSC were consistently controlled in the path analyses because the effects of parent's gender on SBI and HSC were significant, as indicated in the preliminary analyses related to demographic variables

In the proposed model, it was proposed that the quality of parents' coparenting relationship was directly related to their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education (RQ2.1) and levels of parent involvement in education (RQ2.2). Furthermore, it was suggested that parents' motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education (RA and SE) were directly related to their levels of parent involvement in education (RQ2.3). Lastly, it was proposed that parents' motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education mediated the relations between the quality of parents' coparenting relationship and their levels of parent involvement in education (RQ2.4). Accordingly, the second research question of the study consisted of four sub-questions:

RQ2.1 What is the direct relationship between the quality of the parents' coparenting relationship and their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education?

RQ2.2 What is the direct relationship between the quality of the parents' coparenting relationship and their levels of parent involvement in education?

RQ2.3 What is the direct relationship between the motivational beliefs of the parents regarding parent involvement in education and their levels of parent involvement in education?

RQ2.4 Do motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education play significant roles in the relationships between the quality of the parents' coparenting relationship and their levels of parent involvement in education?

To address the second research question, the proposed model served as an initial model and encompassed all possible paths depicting paths from the independents to the mediators, from the mediators to the independents, and from the independents to the mediators. The initial model was tested by conducting a path analysis. Based on the results of the path analysis, the nonsignificant paths were trimmed, and a final model was created. The answers to the second research question were provided in the following parts.

4.5.1 Results for the Initial Model

The results of the path analysis showed that the initial model had good fit to the data ($\chi 2$ /df = 7.32, RMSEA = .066, SRMR = .016, TLI = 90, CFI = .99) (see Figure 4.1). The results of the path analysis regarding the initial model were summarized in Table 4.8, Table 4.9, and Table 4.10, respectively.

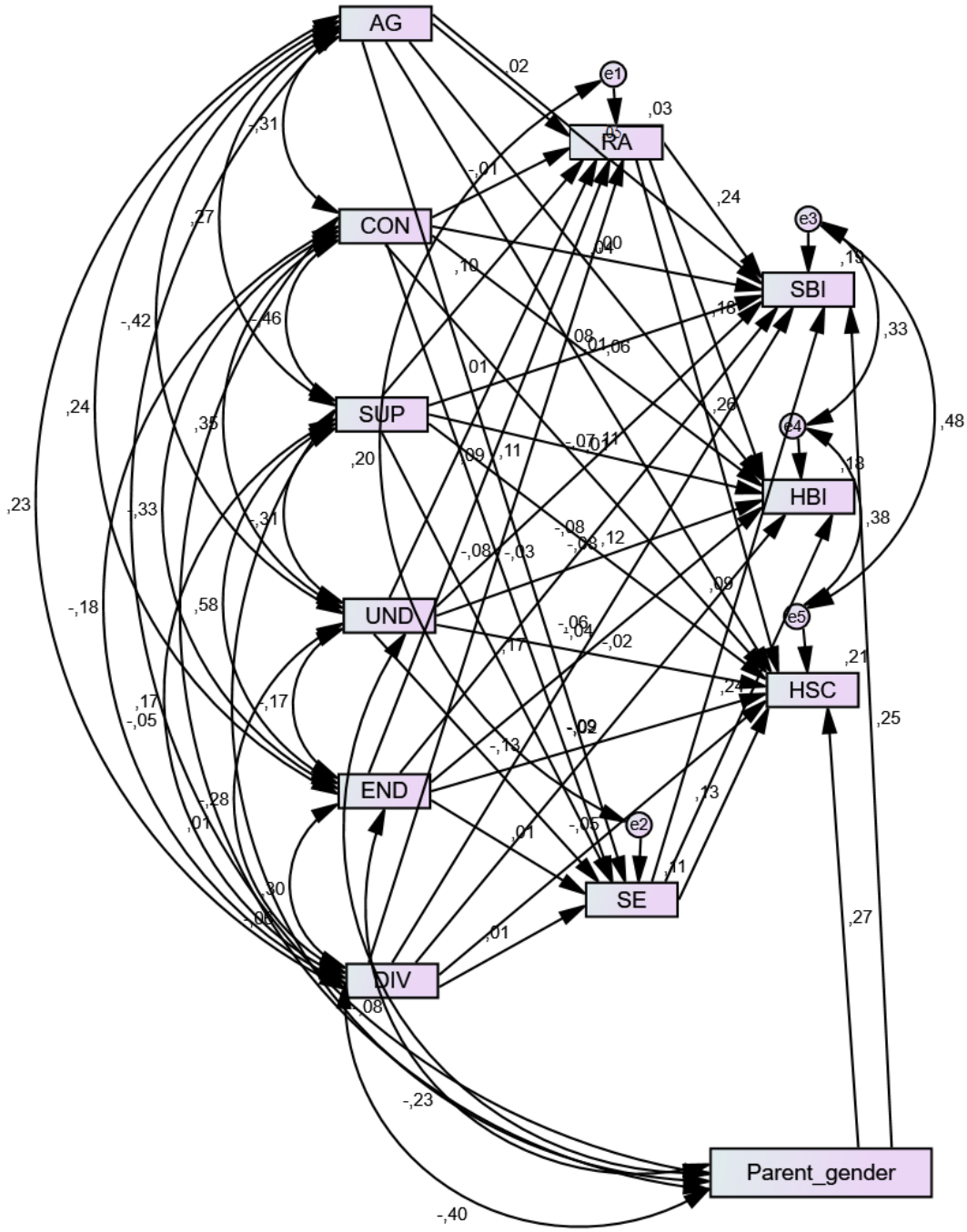

*Figure 4.1.*Initial model

AG: coparenting agreement, SUP: coparenting support, END: endorsement of partner's parenting, UND: coparenting undermining, CON: exposure to conflict, DIV: division of labor; RA: role activity beliefs, SE: parental self-efficacy beliefs; SBI: school-based involvement, HBI: home-based involvement and HSC: home-school conferencing.

4.5.1.1 Direct Relationships between the Quality of Parents' Coparenting Relationship and Their Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement in Education

In order to explore the direct relationships between the quality of parents' coparenting relationship (AG, END, SUP, UND, CON, and DIV) and their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education (RA and SE), path coefficients were examined. As seen in Table 4.8, the coparenting agreement significantly and positively predicted SE (β = .11). Importantly, coparenting support significantly and positively predicted RA (β = .10) and SE (β =.15). The results (Table 4.7) also showed that coparenting undermining significantly and negatively predicted SE (β = -.13). Furthermore, endorsement of partner's parenting was positively correlated with RA (β = .09). On the other hand, division of labor significantly and negatively predicted RA (β = -.08). Intriguingly, exposure to conflict did not significantly predict both RA and SE.

Table 4.8

Parameter estimates of direct relationships between the quality of coparenting relationship and motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education

Exogenous variable	Endogenous variable	*B*	SE	β	Lower	Upper
Coparenting agreement	RA	.02	.04	.02	-.04	.08
	SE	.09	.02	.11**	.06	.17
Coparenting support	RA	.12	.04	.10**	.03	.16
	SE	.14	.03	.15**	.10	.23
Coparenting undermining	RA	.01	.04	.01	-.06	.07
	SE	-.10	.02	-.13**	-.19	-.06
Endorsement of partner's parenting	RA	.14	.05	.09**	.03	.15
	SE	.01	.03	.01	-.06	.07
Exposure to conflict	RA	-.02	.05	-.01	-.07	.05
	SE	-.03	.03	-.03	-.09	.04
Division of labor	RA	-.18	.06	-.08**	-.14	-.03
	SE	.02	.04	.01	-.04	.07

**p <. 01

4.5.1.2 Direct Relationships between the Quality of Parents' Coparenting Relationship and Their Levels of Parent Involvement in Education

The direct relationships between the quality of parents' coparenting relationship (AG, END, SUP, UND, CON, and DIV) and their levels of parent involvement in education (SBI, HBI, and HSC) were presented in Table 4.8. As depicted in Table 4.8, coparenting agreement and exposure to conflict did not significantly predict levels of parent involvement in education. On the other hand, coparenting support significantly and positively predicted all levels of parent involvement in education. Specifically, coparenting support had significant effects on SBI (β = .08), HBI (β = .12) and HSC (β = .12).

Moreover, the results (Table 4.9) also displayed that coparenting undermining significantly and negatively predicted SBI (β = -.07) and HBI (β = -.08). Similarly, division of labor significantly and negatively predicted SBI β = -.06) and HBI (β = -.09). Lastly, endorsement of partner's parenting significantly and negatively predicted SBI (β = -.08).

Table 4.9

Parameter estimates of direct relationships between the quality of coparenting relationship and levels of parent involvement in education

Exogenous Variable	Endogenous Variable	*B*	SE	*β*	Lower	Upper
Coparenting agreement	SBI	.06	.03	.05	.00	.01
	HBI	.03	.02	.04	-.01	.09
	HSC	.01	.05	.01	-.04	.06
Coparenting support	SBI	.09	.04	.08*	.02	.14
	HBI	.07	.02	.12**	.05	.18
	HSC	.20	.05	.12**	.06	.18
Coparenting undermining	SBI	-.08	.03	-.07*	-.12	-.01
	HBI	-.05	.02	-.08*	-.13	-.02
	HSC	-.04	.05	-.02	-.08	.03
Endorsement of partner's parenting	SBI	-.12	.05	-.08**	-.15	-.02
	HBI	-.03	.02	-.04	-.10	.02
	HSC	-.05	.07	-.02	-.08	.04
Exposure to conflict	SBI	.00	.04	.00	-.05	.06
	HBI	-.05	.02	-.06	-.11	.00
	HSC	-.01	.06	-.01	-.06	.05
Division of labor	SBI	-.13	.06	-.06*	-.12	-.01
	HBI	-.10	.02	-.09**	-.14	-.04
	HSC	-.14	.08	-.05	-.11	.01

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

4.5.1.3 Direct Relationship between Parents' Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement in Education and Their Levels of Parent Involvement in Education

In order to explore the direct relationships between parents' motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education (RA and SE) and their levels of parent involvement in education (SBI, HBI, and HSC), path coefficients were examined (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10

Parameter estimates of the direct relationship between motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education and levels of parent involvement in education

Exogenous Variable	Endogenous Variable	*B*	SE	*β*	Lower	Upper
Role activity beliefs	SBI	.23	.02	.24**	.19	.30
	HBI	.09	.01	.18**	.13	.23
	HSC	.36	.03	.26**	.21	.31
Self-efficacy beliefs	SBI	.13	.04	.09**	.04	.14
	HBI	.19	.02	.24**	.19	.29
	HSC	.27	.05	.13**	.08	.18

**p <. 01

As shown in Table 4.9, role activity beliefs of parents significantly and positively predicted all levels of parent involvement in education. Specifically, role activity beliefs had significant effects on SBI (β = .24), HBI (β = .18), and HSC (β = .26). Similarly, self-efficacy beliefs significantly and positively predicted SBI (β = .09), HBI (β = .24), and HSC (β = .13).

4.5.2 Results for the Final Model

Based on the results of the path analysis regarding the initial model, a final model was created. The comparison of the models revealed that although the chi-square change was not significant ($\Delta\ \chi2$ (Δdf = 16) = 17.45, p=.357), there was a considerable change in AIC (ΔAIC = 14.55 > 10; Burnham & Anderson, 2003). The results of the path analysis showed that the final model fitted the data better ($\chi2$ /df = 2.45, RMSEA = .032, SRMR = .021, TLI = .98, CFI = .99). The final model was illustrated in Figure 4.2, while the results of the path analysis were summarized in Table 4.11 and Table 4.12, respectively.

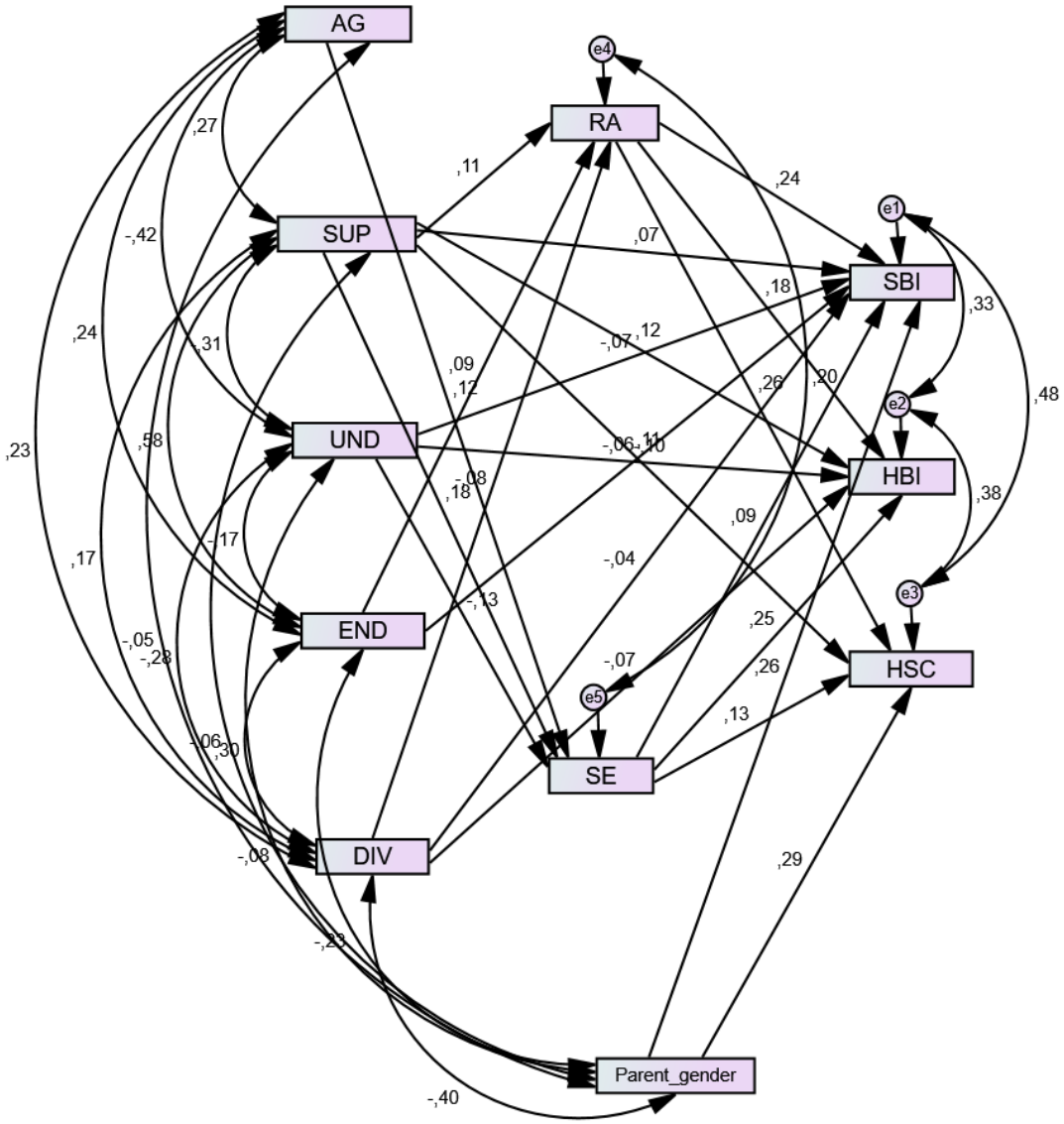

Figure 4.2. Final model

AG: coparenting agreement, SUP: coparenting support, END: endorsement of partner's parenting, UND: coparenting undermining, CON: exposure to conflict, DIV: division of labor; RA: role activity beliefs, SE: parental self-efficacy beliefs; SBI: school-based involvement, HBI: home-based involvement and HSC: home-school conferencing.

4.5.2.1 Direct Relationships among the Study Variables

To answer the sub-questions of the RQ2, the direct relationships between the quality of parents' coparenting relationship, their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement, and their levels of parent involvement in education were examined based on the results of path analysis regarding the final model (see Table 4.11).

Similar to the results of the path analysis regarding the initial model, the results of the current path analysis also showed that the coparenting agreement significantly and positively predicted only SE (β = .18), implying that when parents reach an agreement with their partner, they feel more self-efficient in taking part in the educational activities of their children. On the other hand, the current study revealed salient results in terms of the effects of the coparenting support on motivational beliefs and parents' levels of involvement in education. More clearly, coparenting support significantly and positively predicted parents' motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education (i.e., RA and SE) and all levels of parent involvement in education (i.e., SBI, HBI, and HSC). First of all, these results indicate that parents who receive more support from their partners, feel more responsible for their involvement, and assume the involvement is a part of their role in the family. Likewise, the more a parent supports his/her partner in terms of parenting practices, the more this parent feels self-efficient for participating in educational activities. In other words, the partner's supportive behaviors or expressions regarding the parenting gets inclined the other partner to believe that s/he has a role in becoming involved in the education of their children and consider that s/he is competent at helping their child with school-related works. Second, these results revealed that parents who receive more support from their partners tend to participate in parent involvement activities in different contexts such as participating activities specifically planned for the involvement of parents at school, engaging in some school-related works at home, and establishing communications with the school for school-related issues.

On the other hand, coparenting undermining significantly and negatively predicted SE (β = -.13), SBI (β = -.07), and HBI (β = -.10), signifying that the more a parent thwarts other parent's parenting and competes against the other parent to show

that s/he is better in parenting, the less the parent who is exposed to these behaviors feel efficient for involvement. Moreover, these results also suggested that when a parent undermines parenting of his/her partner by denigrating the way s/he becomes parent, the parent who is exposed to the undermining behaviors or expressions becomes more reluctant to become involved in both SBI and HBI.

Intriguingly, endorsement of partner's parenting significantly and positively predicted RA (β = .09) while it significantly and negatively predicted SBI (β = -.06). This means that when parents think that their partner is a good parent, they also think that they have a role in getting involved in the education of their children. However, if a parent has a partner who displays appreciated parenting behaviors, s/he demonstrates less involvement in school-based involvement activities.

As seen in Table 4.11, the results also indicated that division of labor significantly and negatively predicted RA (β = -.08) and HBI (β = -.08). These results indicated that a parent who has a partner, fairly sharing the child-related works might think himself or herself less responsible for involvement in education. Similarly, the more parent's partner plays his/her roles in parenting-related works, the less this parent participates in home-based and school-based activities.

Moreover, role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs significantly and positively predicted all levels of parent involvement in education (i.e., SBI, HBI, and HSC). Firstly, these results indicated that parents who have stronger beliefs about participating in the education of their children are their responsibility, have more tendency to become involved in parent involvement activities regardless of the types of involvement. Secondly, the results also implied that when parents feel higher competence in helping their children with their school-related works, they tend to participate in either home- or school-based activities, or in the communication process with school.

Table 4.11

Parameter estimates of direct relationships among the study variables

Exogenous Variable	Endogenous Variable	*B*	SE	*β*	Lower	Upper
Coparenting agreement	SE	.10	.02	.12**	.06	.17
Coparenting support	RA	.13	.04	.11**	.04	.16
	SE	.15	.02	.18**	.13	.23
	SBI	.09	.04	.07*	.02	.13
	HBI	.08	.02	.12**	.07	.17
	HSC	.19	.04	.11**	.06	.15
Coparenting undermining	SE	-.11	.02	-.13**	-.19	-.08
	SBI	-.08	.03	-.07**	-.11	-.02
	HBI	-.06	.02	-.10**	-.15	-.05
Endorsement of partner's parenting	RA	.14	.05	.09**	.03	.15
	SBI	-.10	.04	-.06*	-.12	-.01
Division of labor	RA	-.18	.06	-.08**	-.14	-.03
	HBI	-.08	.03	-.08**	-.12	-.03
Role activity beliefs	SBI	.23	.02	.24**	.19	.30
	HBI	.09	.01	.18**	.13	.23
	HSC	.36	.03	.26**	.21	.31
Self-efficacy beliefs	SBI	.13	.04	.09**	.04	.15
	HBI	.19	.02	.25**	.20	.30
	HSC	.27	.05	.13**	.08	.18

**$p < .01$

4.5.2.2 Indirect Relationships among the Study Variables

To answer the last sub-question (RQ2.4) of the RQ2 research question, the total direct and indirect effects of the quality of parents' coparenting relationship on their levels of parent involvement in education were examined.

As seen in Table 4.12, the results of the path analysis showed that the relationships between coparenting agreement and levels of parent involvement in education (i.e., SBI, HBI, and HSC) were fully mediated by SE. Coparenting support

significantly and positively predicted RA and SE, which, in turn, significantly and positively predicted levels of parent involvement in education (i.e., SBI, HBI, and HSC). These results indicate that the relationships between coparenting support and levels of parent involvement in education were partially mediated by RA and SE.

Intriguingly, the relationship between coparenting undermining and HSC was fully mediated by SE, while the relationships between coparenting undermining and SBI, as well as HBI, were partially mediated by SE. Indeed, coparenting undermining significantly and negatively predicted SE, which, in turn, significantly and negatively predicted SBI and HBI. Likewise, the relationship between division of labor and SBI, as well as the relationship between division of labor and HSC were fully mediated by RA, whereas the relationship between division of labor and HBI was partially mediated by RA. These results indicate that division of labor significantly and negatively predicted RA, which, in turn, significantly and negatively predicted HBI. Furthermore, the relationships between endorsement of partner's parenting and HBI, as well as HSC, were fully mediated by RA (Table 4.12).

Table 4.12

Direct, indirect, and total effects in the final model

Exogenous Variable	Endogenous Variable	Total effect	Direct effect	Indirect effect
Coparenting agreement	SBI	.01**	-	.01**
	HBI	.03**	-	.03**
	HSC	.02**	-	.02**
Coparenting support	SBI	.12**	.07*	.05**
	HBI	.18**	.12**	.06**
	HSC	.16**	.11**	.04**
Coparenting undermining	SBI	-.08**	-.07**	-.01**
	HBI	-.13**	-.10**	-.03**
	HSC	-02**	-	-.02**
Endorsement of partner's parenting	SBI	-.04	-.06*	.02**
	HBI	.02**	-	.02**
	HSC	.02**	-	.02**
Division of labor	SBI	-.06*	-04	-.02**
	HBI	-.09**	-.08*	-.02**
	HSC	-.02**	-	-.02**

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

The squared multiple correlation coefficients (R^2) were calculated to determine the proportion of variance explained by exogenous and mediator variables in endogenous variables. Results regarding the final model revealed that the overall exogenous and mediator variables explained the 18% of variance in school-based involvement (R2= .18), 18% of variance in home-based involvement (R2= .18), and 21% of variance in home-school conferencing (R2= .21) jointly. These proportions revealed that the explained variance for all three endogenous variables was medium in terms of their effect sizes (Cohen, 1988, 1992).

4.6 Summary of the Results

In this study, the results were obtained through the analyses conducted to investigate the general patterns of the coparenting relationship of the parents, the motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and the level of parent involvement in education and to explore the direct and indirect relationships among these variables. Before conducting the major data analyses to answer the research questions, the data of the study were prepared by treating data entering errors, missing values, and outliers. And then, the assumptions for the major data analyses were tested. As a result of the overall testing of the assumptions, the bootstrap method was decided to be used in the major data analyses. Lastly, the parent-related demographic variables (i.e., parents' gender, educational level, employment status, and total income) were examined as to whether they would have an effect on the mediator and endogenous variables in the study. The significant effects of the gender of the parent on the school-based involvement and home-school conferencing were detected, so the effects of parents' gender were controlled on these two endogenous variables.

Regarding the first research question of the study, descriptive analyses and one-sample t-tests were performed to present the general patterns of the study variables. First, the results of the analyses revealed that the mean scores of the positive dimensions of the coparenting relationship (i.e., coparenting agreement, coparenting support, endorse partner's parenting, and division of labor) were significantly higher than the midpoint of the scale, whereas the negative dimensions of the coparenting relationship (i.e., coparenting undermining and exposure to conflict) were significantly lower than the midpoint, meaning that parents demonstrated high levels of the positive relationships in terms of their coparenting. Second, parents' role and self-efficacy beliefs were significantly higher than the midpoints of the scales, revealing that parents were strongly inclined to believe that they were responsible for becoming involved in education, and they were competent in involvement. Last, the results also revealed that the mean score of home-based involvement was significantly higher than the midpoint of the scale. Although the mean score of home-school conferencing was at the nearly

medium level, it was statistically higher than the midpoint. However, the mean score of school-based involvement did not differ significantly from the midpoint of the scale.

For the second research question of the study, a path model was created and tested by conducting a series of path analyses to explore the direct and indirect relationships among the study variables. The results of the analyses indicated that the initial and final models had a good fit to the data. Variances in the levels of parent involvement that were explained by the final path model had medium effect sizes. To determine the relationships among the study variables, the path coefficients were examined. First, the significant positive effects of coparenting agreement and coparenting support on self-efficacy beliefs; the significant negative effect of coparenting undermining on self-efficacy beliefs, and the significant positive effects of coparenting support and endorsement of partner's parenting on role activity beliefs; the negative effects of division of labor on role activity beliefs of parents were found. Second, it was found that coparenting support significantly and positively predicted all levels of parent involvement (i.e., school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing). Besides, the effects of coparenting undermining on school-based involvement, as well as on home-based involvement; the effect of endorsement of partner's parenting on school-based involvement; and the effect of division of labor on home-based involvement were significant and negative. Third, the effects of role activity and self-efficacy beliefs of parents on all levels of parent involvement were significant and positive. Last, the results of the path analyses revealed that the relationships between coparenting agreement and all levels of parent involvement in education (i.e., school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing), and the relationship between coparenting undermining and home-school conferencing entirely depend on self-efficacy beliefs. In addition, the relationship between division of labor and school-based involvement, the relationship between division of labor and home-school conferencing, and the relationships between endorsement of partner's parenting and home-based involvement, as well as home-school conferencing entirely depend on role activity beliefs. On the other hand, the relationships between coparenting support and all levels

of parent involvement in education depend, in part, on role activity and self-efficacy beliefs. Similarly, the relationships between coparenting undermining and school-based involvement, as well as home-based involvement, partially depend on self-efficacy beliefs. Moreover, the relationship between division of labor and home-based involvement depends, in part, on role activity beliefs.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Moving beyond the understanding of parent involvement studies and tightening the gaps in the research studies on the relationship between parent involvement and family structure, the current study specifically aimed to investigate the associations between preschoolers' parents' quality of coparenting relationship, motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education and levels of parent involvement in education in a sample from Turkey. In line with this purpose, the general patterns of preschoolers' parents' quality of coparenting relationship, motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and levels of parent involvement in education were presented. Furthermore, a path model was tested to explore the relationships between the aforementioned study variables. In the following sections, the results obtained in the study were interpreted and discussed within the context of the early parenting practices of parents. In addition, implications for theory, research and practice, and recommendations for future researches studies were presented.

5.1 Discussions of the Results

5.1.1 General Discussion

The current study expands the parent involvement literature by making four significant contributions. First of all, previous studies in the related literature conducted to investigate parents' motivational beliefs regarding involvement have substantially focused on the general parenting practices and participation in the daily activities of children. Similarly, there are limited research studies that particularly have examined the levels of parent involvement in education (e.g., Berryhill, 2017; Chen et al., 2017). The present study is the first, to the best of the author's knowledge, to

explore the associations between the quality of parents' coparenting relationship, which represents a "wheel" of the family system and their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education. Thus, this study expands the model of parent involvement processes in education by suggesting essential parent-related factors that affect parental decisions regarding involvement. As Sheldon (2002, p. 311) stressed, the parent involvement research had neglected the parents' social interactions and "characterized parents as relatively isolated individuals who interact with their own child and their child's teacher". This was not true for the model of parent involvement processes in education because they involved some environment- and context- related determining factors of parent involvement (i.e., perception of invitation from school, teacher and child, and perceived life context). However, although Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) suggested a comprehensive model for the personal and environmental factors that were influential on the parental decisions regarding involvement in education, they neglected the potential effects of the family system as many parent involvement studies did. In short, the current study opens a gateway to introducing the coparenting relationship between parents with the model of parent involvement processes in education.

Secondly, this study proposes that how parents work cooperatively in parenting practices is actually influential instead of the number of parents in the family. Some studies found that the family structure—being single or divorced parent—affects parent involvement in education. Specifically, single parents participate in parent involvement activities in education less than parents in the two-parent families because single-parents face with more barriers such as lack of time (e.g., Arnold et al., 2008; Balli, Demo, & Wedman, 1998; Grolnick, Friendly & Bellas, 2009; Myers & Myers, 2014). However, some other studies could not find a significant association between single-parent family and parent involvement (e.g., Acock & Demo, 1994; Manz et al., 2004; Marcon, 1999). Similarly, having a partner in the family might not be enough to increase the level of involvement in education, as well. In the two-parent families, instead of parenting in a cooperative way, one of the parents may shoulder the responsibilities and become more involved in parenting. Indeed, the previous studies

also revealed that mothers became far more involved in education of their children than fathers did (Fletcher & Silberberg, 2006; Giallo et al., 2013; Gürşimşek et al., 2007; McBride et al., 2002; Tezel-Şahin & Özbey, 2009). In parallel, the current study proposes that rather than the number of cohabited parents in the family, how parents relate to each other is a more significant predictor of parent involvement in education.

Third, the adaptation of the Coparenting Relationship Scale (Feinberg et al., 2012) into the Turkish language and culture was a significant effort of the current study. In the adaptation process, the reliability and validity of this comprehensive and popular research instrument were ensured by adapting the factor structure of the instrument to the parents of preschoolers in Turkey. In addition to other research instruments (e.g., Parenting Alliance Inventory, Abidin & Brunner, 1995, adapted to Turkish parents and grandmothers of infants by Salman-Engin (2014) in the related-literature, the instrument addressed in the current study provides a more comprehensive perspective of the coparenting relationship between parents in Turkey and deserves greater utilization in future studies

Lastly, although there are several research studies that investigated the association between the quality of coparenting relationship and parent involvement in education, they remained limited to certain indicators of the coparenting relationship (i.e., coparenting support, Berryhill, 2017; coparenting agreement referred as coparenting consistency and division of labor referred as coparenting strategies, Chen et al., 2017). While these studies were novel in investigating the effect of the coparental relations between parents on the parent involvement in education, they neglected to examine the other indicators of the quality of coparenting relationship that would have potential effects on involvement. Thus, the current study extends the existing literature by providing additional evidence for the possible coparenting-related predictors of the parent involvement in education (i.e., the effects of coparenting undermining, endorsement of partner's parenting and exposure to conflict). Moreover, convincing evidence on the association between the quality of coparenting relationship and parent involvement in the Turkish early childhood education context was reached in the current study.

In conclusion, the results of this study shed light on the significance of the coparenting relationship in the context of parent involvement in Turkish early childhood education. Moreover, the current study comes to the forefront with its strength of the relatively large sample that the results regarding the patterns of parents' quality of coparenting relationship, motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education, and levels of parent involvement in education.

5.1.2 Discussions Regarding Descriptive Results

The results regarding the first research question of the study reporting the general patterns of preschoolers' parents' quality of coparenting relationship, motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education, and levels of parent involvement in education were discussed based on the mean scores of the variables. In general, these results come explicitly into prominence in terms of three significant contributions to early childhood literature on coparenting and parent involvement in education. First of all, the results regarding the quality of coparenting relationship, which is a new concept in the national literature and recently have become a hot topic in the international early childhood education context, shed light on the family dynamics of the preschoolers in terms of parent relations in the parenting practices. Secondly, the relatively large sample size of the study which allows more accurate and precise mean scores for the variables and the relatively more representative sample maintaining the balance between the number of the mothers and fathers provides more representative results for the patterns of parents' quality of coparenting relationship, motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education and levels of involvement in education compared to the previous national and international studies (e.g., Anderson & Minke, 2005; Arnold et al., 2008; Ertan, 2017; Fishman & Nickerson, 2015; Freund et al., 2018; Gürşimşek, 2003; Gürşimşek et al., 2007; Tekin, 2011). Lastly, the current study provides further evidence for the patterns of parents' coparenting and parent involvement in the context of early childhood.

5.1.2.1 Quality of Coparenting Relationship

Coparenting relationship (i.e., coparenting agreement, coparenting support, coparenting undermining, endorsement of partner's parenting, exposure to conflict, and division of labor) was examined to make inferences on the quality of coparenting relationship between the parents with children between 36 to 72 months enrolled in a preschool.

The mean scores calculated for the six sub-construct of the quality of coparenting relationship revealed that the mean score of the endorsement of partner's parenting (M = 5.29), followed by coparenting support (M = 5.159), was the highest when compared to the other dimensions Coparenting undermining, which is the exact opposite of coparenting support; on the other hand, collaterally revealed very low mean scores (M = 0.92). That is, the parents of preschoolers reported that they adopted a positive view of their partners' parenting and received support from their partners in terms of parenting practices. These results mean that parents have high positive relations with their partners in terms of supportiveness in parenting practices (Feinberg, 2003), which was clearly indicated by three sub-contracts (i.e., coparenting support, coparenting undermining and endorsement of partner's parenting). For example, these results specifically showed that parents received support from their partner when they did not know what to do for a specific parenting practice instead of competing with each other. Within this scope, for example, if one of the parents was not competent in a specific area such as science or mathematics, the other parent provided support for him/her instead of making jokes or sarcastic comments about the incompetence of him/her and exploiting the situation to show herself as a better parent to their child.

These results are also in line with previous studies conducted in different contexts (e.g., European American, African American, and Asian) even before birth. For instance, Song and Volling (2015) found that European American parents and parents from different ethnic minorities started to display supportive behaviors in their relations with their partners during the prenatal period. In a longitudinal study conducted by Feinberg et al. (2012), similar results were achieved for the coparental

relationship between parents in terms of supportiveness when their first child was at the average of 6.5 months, at the average of 13.7 months, and the average of 36.8 months. The researchers found high mean values for the coparenting support and endorsement of partner's parenting and very low mean values for coparenting undermining at the three different age groups of children, suggesting that parents had positive attitudes towards their partners in terms of supportive parenting at the very young ages (see, for similar results for babies from four months to 36 months, Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Solmeyer & Feinberg, 2011; Le, McDaniel, Leavitt, & Feinberg, 2016; Schoppe-Sullivan, Settle, Lee, & Kamp-Dush, 2016). Lastly, Dopkins et al. (2009) also reported high mean values for the supportive coparenting for parents of children between the ages of 8 to 9.5. In that vein, in addition to the parents of very young children (i.e., approximately between 6 and 36 months) and older children (i.e., between ages of 8 and 9), the current study also produced evidence for high levels of support in coparenting relationship of the parents with children between 36 to 72 months in the Turkish early childhood educational system.

Similar to these previous studies, the current study supports the idea that parents show high levels of supportive coparenting in the different age groups, which may require different responsibilities and duties to be undertaken. For example, beginning from preschool education, in addition to the support for the daily needs of children, parents are expected to participate in education-related activities such as supporting the learning at home or being a volunteer in the school (Epstein, 1995). Accordingly, the results of the study suggest that the positive relations between parents regarding coparenting continue consistently despite the dramatic changes in the context of the child's life such as transition to the formal education and despite the changes in the dynamics of the relations between the family members when the child's transition to the formal education occurs.

With regard to coparenting agreement and division of labor (i.e., specifically referring to the division of parental labor), the results of the present study displayed moderate mean values for the coparenting agreement (M = 3.85) and division of labor (M = 3.87), indicating that parents had somewhat mutual agreement on the goals

established for the life of the child, similar ideas for raising the child, and consistent standards for the behavior of the child, and they somewhat equitably shared the parenting work as in the Feinberg and his colleagues' study with parents of infants (2012). Nevertheless, Feinberg et al. (2012) reported high levels of agreement and division of labor in parenting practices for European American parents of infants and parents of infants from different ethnic groups compared to the present study. This result can be explicated based on the contextual differences of the coparenting relations of parents of infants and parents of preschoolers.

More clearly, the relations between parents may change after the transition of the child to the formal schooling; i.e., preschool education, (Dockett & Perry, 2004; McHale & Irace, 2011). This considerable change in the family system brings about new responsibilities and decision making processes for parents. That is to say, the transition of the child to school brings about a lot of new concerns, thoughts, beliefs, and behaviors that parents should discuss and become agree or disagree on. Moreover, the decisions regarding the child, which are mostly related to the education of the child, can be taken more seriously by parents in this period of life than the infancy because of the importance of education in a child's life. For example, a study conducted with the parents of children with special needs between the ages of 5 to 13 (Thullen & Bonsall, 2017) also revealed moderate mean scores for agreement in the coparenting relations. Accordingly, it may be proposed that the child-related changes may create new situations that may increase the chance of violating the agreement between parents in parenting issues. Similarly, the child's participation in the education system may increase the parenting workload with the emerging of new school-related work of the child, such as involvement in education and monitoring the educational progress. The extra workload of the parents may upset the balance between parents in terms of the share of parenting-related works. Lastly, the child's transition to school may also make parents meet with different parenting styles and varying beliefs, thoughts, and behaviors regarding parenting. That is, the parents in the child's school are included in the social network of this parent and parents may experience different contexts regarding parenting in this new social network, and so this may produce influence on

the parenting of this child's parent (Curry, Jean-Marie, &Adams, 2016; Sheldon, 2002). Concerning the coparenting agreement and division of labor, exposure to the new perspectives of parenting may inevitably result in disagreements between parents and their perception of the distribution of child-related works.

Coparenting undermining (M = 0.92) and exposure to conflict (M = 0.87), which represents the negative indicators of coparenting, has very low mean scores. This result indicated that the parents of preschoolers in the current study rarely became involved in the argument about their relationship and they avoided saying cruel or hurtful things or yelling to each other in the presence of their child. More clearly, low levels of engaging in conflict revealed low levels of argument and tension between parents in the presence or earshot of their children. This result is consistent with the studies conducted with the parents of infants, which reported notably low levels of conflict between parents in different cultures (e.g., Favez et al., 2016; Feinberg et al., 2012).

A similar result was also reported for the American parents of children between the ages of 8 to 11 years old (Young, Riggs, & Kaminski, 2017). Apparently, parents' awareness of the negative effect of the parental conflict on the family members, especially on children, leads to low levels of conflict between parents. In Turkish society, as in various societies, children are now valued more than before (Aslan, 2002; Tezel-Şahin & Cevher, 2007). As a result, most families are sensitive to the psychological development of children and discuss issues peacefully instead of getting involved in heated arguments for protecting the psychology of their child.

In addition to specific results regarding the sub-constructs of coparenting relationship, the overall results of the study revealed that the parents obtained high and moderate scores from the positive dimensions of coparenting whereas they got low scores from the negative dimensions of coparenting for the parents of preschoolers between the ages of 36 to 72 months in Turkey. Despite the cultural differences in the family system, which has been reported by some studies (e.g., Kagitcibasi, 2005; Poortinga & Georgas, 2006), similar results can be found in Reader, Teti, and Cleveland (2017) study. They reported high levels of positive coparenting relationship

represented by agreement, closeness, support, endorsement, and low levels of negative coparenting relationship, including exposure to conflict and undermining based on the sample of culturally diverse American parents of children between ages of one to 12 months. Likewise, McDaniel, Teti, and Feinberg (2017) reported that parents of children younger than age five had higher scores of positive daily coparenting, referring to the agreement between parents, supportive relations, fair division of labor, and respect for the other parent' parenting. They also reported lower scores of negative daily coparenting, referring to disrespectful, disagreed, and undermining parenting behaviors to the other parent.

The high levels of the positive coparenting relations and low levels of the negative coparenting relations might be the result of the promising changes in the perception of the family and family members. In that, the family system in Turkey, as in Western or Eastern societies, has been undergone considerable changes (Kavas & Thornton, 2013). That is, the roles of mother and father in the family become more egalitarian instead of different roles attributed to mother and father depending on their gender (Mercan & Tezel-Şahin, 2017; Pleck, 1987; Rotundo, 1985). For example, a father participating in their child's or children's care as a caregiver was inadmissible in the past. However, in modern families, fathers have started to take an active part as a caregiver in their child's life in Turkey and Western societies (Barker, Dogruoz, & Rogow, 2009; Fernandez-Lozano, 2019; Jurczyk, Jentsch, Sailer, & Schier, 2019; Kotila, Schoppe-Sullivan, & Dush, 2013; Salman-Engin, 2014). This might be more apparent in families in which partners are similar to each other in terms of the distribution of power. For example, according to Fernandez-Lozano (2019) fathers, who are accused of not doing their share for child-related works, tend to more equally share the child-care related works with their partner only when they earn less money than their partners, and they do not have one of the so-called masculine jobs such as managers or blue-collar workers. In other words, the equal share of power between partners, especially economic power, prompts fathers to feel responsible for the child-care and do what is expected from a parent by ignoring the traditionally attributed roles to the genders in the family. Concordantly, it is understandable why high levels of the

positive coparenting relations and low levels of the negative coparenting relations were reported considering that the urban life necessitates the dual-employed families to afford the expenses of the family (Bolak, 2005). Indeed, a large number of the participants in the current study reported themselves as dual-earners who have an equal share of economic power. Thus, the results of the current study clearly signify that the changes in the role of the mother and father in family-related issues, especially in parenting practices in modern societies (Sunar & Fişek, 2005) lead to the results of the positive coparenting relationship between partners.

Nonetheless, it is worth noting that the changes in family life may differ for families from various socio-economic backgrounds, especially in Turkish culture, which is "a blend of the Eastern and the Western cultural features" (Ataca, 2006, p. 476). For example, the urban middle class is more exposed to the changes than the more traditional groups such as the traditional rural family, which has different attitudes towards education, role division, and expectations from children, child-rearing practices and values (Kagitçibasi & Sunar, 1992; Sunar, 2009). More specifically, the urban family has faced with the redistribution of power between mother and father in terms of the decision-making on birth control, how to educate and discipline children, how to spend money and solve problems, meaning that father is not the "boss" of the family anymore (Ataca & Sunar, 1999, p. 88).

In addition, these dramatic changes affecting the relations between parents in the family structure also create differences in the quality of parents' coparenting relationship. For example, Lamela, Figueiredo, Bastos, and Feinberg (2016) reported lower levels of coparenting agreement, coparenting support and division of labor, and higher levels of coparenting undermining and exposure to conflict for the divorced parents compared to the co-resident and married parents. Similarly, Russell, Beckmeyer, Coleman, and Lawrence (2016) also indicated that the divorced parents reported lower levels of positive coparenting behaviors such as discussing parenting-related issues peacefully and cooperating in parenting and higher levels of negative coparenting behaviors such as disagreement on parenting and child-related issues. Furthermore, higher levels of the negative coparental relations were also reported for

the nonresidential and residential separated parents (e.g., Buehler & Trotter, 1990), for single parents engaging in parental activities with their spouse or other individuals such as the relatives (e.g., Jones, Shaffer, Forehand, Brody, & Armistead, 2003; Perez-Brena, Updegraff, Umaña-Taylor, Jahromi, & Guimond, 2015). The main reasons for the conflict between coparents in the case of divorces are the lack of satisfaction of mothers for fathers' caring skills, mothers' accommodation, and parents' custody satisfaction (Madden-Derdich, & Leonard, 2002). Consequently, it is reasonable to claim that the increase in higher levels of negative coparental relations may emerge as a result of the reorganization of the family system.

5.1.2.2 Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement in Education

As the mediator variables in the current study, parents' motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education (i.e., role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs) were examined in terms of the mean scores to determine parents' role activity beliefs about involvement in education and self-efficacy beliefs about helping the child succeed in school.

When the motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education examined, the parents scored above the midpoint for both role activity beliefs (M = 3.82) and self-efficacy beliefs (M = 3.78). These results revealed that the parents had moderately high role activity beliefs, referring to the beliefs regarding their responsibility for participating in their children's education and moderately high self-efficacy beliefs regarding helping their children succeed in school. The high levels of role activity and self-efficacy beliefs parents of higher graders were also reported in the literature (e.g., parents of primary school children, Freund et al., 2018; parents of elementary school students, Anderson & Minke, 2007; and parents of high school students, Lavenda, 2011). This study provided similar evidence for motivational beliefs of parents in the context of parent involvement in early childhood education for a large and balanced sample (i.e., almost even numbers of mother and father participants).

The most salient result of this study concerning the motivational beliefs of parents regarding involvement in education is parents' quite similar levels of role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs. However, this result is not in line with the results of previous studies which showed that parents had higher scores on their role activity beliefs compared to their self-efficacy beliefs. Particularly, the parents of the older children perceive the involvement in education as their role but feel less efficient in involving. The reason for the parents' feeling of insufficiency can be linked to the context of the grade level (Patall, Cooper, & Robinson 2008). For example, according to Wilder (2017), parents of the elementary school children who have children at lower grade levels (i.e., 1st grade) reported higher levels of self-efficacy for assisting their children with mathematics assignments than parents of higher graders (i.e., 2nd and 3rd grades). The aforementioned result might result from the increase in the difficulty level of the subjects that parents face in their children's homework. Similarly, Tekin (2011) examined the patters of role activity and self-efficacy beliefs of parents with children enrolled in 1st and 2nd grades in primary schools in Turkey and found that parents perceived participating in their children's education was their responsibility at a high level; however, they felt less efficient in helping their children succeed in school because of the knowledge and skills which they are expected to support and handle.

On the other hand, in the current study, there was not a noticeable difference between role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs of parents of 36-72 months old preschool children, which is also in line with previous national and international studies conducted with the parents of the preschoolers. For example, Filik (2018) reported moderately high and close mean values for the role activity and self-efficacy beliefs of Turkish mothers with 36-72 months old children enrolled in preschools. In addition, Ertan (2017) also reported moderately high values for Turkish mothers and fathers of 36-72 months old preschoolers regarding role activity and self-efficacy beliefs for helping their children succeed in school. In brief, these results indicated that parental role activity beliefs are strong predictors of parent involvement in education, but they are not enough alone to become involved in their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). Parents should also believe their competence in

terms of supporting their children's learning and development, which leads to high levels of involvement in education.

5.1.2.3 Levels of Parent Involvement in Education

The levels of parent involvement in education, which represents the endogenous variables in the study, were also examined in terms of mean scores to make inferences about the levels of parents' involvement in education within different contexts (i.e., school-based involvement, home-based involvement home-school conferencing).

The mean scores calculated for the three levels of parent involvement in education revealed that parents had the highest score in home-based involvement (M = 4.17), followed by home-school conferencing (M = 3.25) and school-based involvement (M = 3.05). These results indicated that the parents preferred to participate in home-based educational activities more compared to school-based activities and communication with the school, which is consistent with the previous studies reporting that parents of elementary and secondary level children as well as parents of preschoolers became more involved in home-based activities than school-based involvement (Deslandes & Bertland, 2005; Durand, 2011; Freund et al., 2018; Green et al., 2007; Ritblatt, Beatty, Cronan, & Ochoa, 2002; Xia, Hackett, & Webster, 2019; Sheldon, 2002). Thus, it is apparent that parents' involvement level increases when the activities move away from school towards home, which implies that parents do not prefer to interact directly with the school or communicate with the school as much as they become involved in home-based activities.

The higher levels of home-based involvement activities can be explained based on parents' division of responsibilities with the teacher on the one hand. Parents may think that home-related activities are under their responsibilities whereas they may feel less responsible for school-based activities. That is, parents may accept that helping their children in school-related work is their responsibility, but the teacher of the child is mainly responsible for the school-based activities or works. For example, parents may think that creating an environment in the home to support the child's learning is

their responsibility while they may think that activities made in the classroom such as book reading activity in the classroom are the responsibility of the classroom teacher. On the other hand, the source of this responsibility-sharing may also be the teacher. To illustrate, a teacher who considers that parent involvement in school is not necessary and gives no place to parents in the school can make parents think that participation in school-based activities is not their responsibility. Another reason for higher levels of home-based involvement and lower levels of school-based involvement might be that parents may feel more comfortable at home, and thus, they may avoid participating in school-based activities and contacting the school (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011; Gürşimşek et al., 2007). In addition, parents may not find time to participate in school-based activities and to communicate face to face with the teacher because of their employment status or other family-related responsibilities such as caring an infant (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011; Lamb-Parker et al., 2001; Williams & Sánchez, 2011). As a result, parents may be inclined to participate in home-related activities rather than becoming involved in school-based activities and home-school conferencing.

Moreover, in the study, the levels of school-based involvement and home-school conferencing were both found to be lower than home-based involvement and very close to each other. This result points out the similar nature of these kinds of involvement. That is, they both require to contact directly with the school, which might be uncomfortable for parents as discussed earlier. Besides, the negative school climate due to the negative attitudes of teachers or administrators, including stereotypic attitudes, socioeconomic, cultural, and educational differences between school staff and parents may negatively affect the involvement of parents in school-based activities and home-school conferencing (Kim, 2009; Nichols-Solomon, 2001; Tadesse, 2014; Turney & Kao, 2009). In particular, negative attitudes of the teacher and administers about the presence of the parents at school of teachers may affect the frequency of parents' involvement (Şimşek & Tanaydın, 2002; Yıldırım & Dönmez, 2008). For example, Hakyemez (2015) found that Turkish preschool teachers reported home-based parent involvement as the most popular parent involvement activity type and

associated this result with the teachers' beliefs that the home-support was the best possible option to meet the needs of the children. This popularity of home-based involvement; on the other hand, might be due to the negative attitude of the teacher and administers about the presence of the parents at school (Şimşek & Tanaydın, 2002; Yıldırım & Dönmez, 2008). The potential effects of the barriers of parent involvement in different contexts of involvement can be investigated to clarify reasons of the difference between levels of involvement in different contexts.

Another prominent result of the current study indicates that although parents had relatively higher levels of motivational beliefs regarding their involvement in education, as discussed earlier, they had low levels of school-based involvement and home-school conferencing. In other words, although parents perceived the involvement as their responsibility for the enhancement of their children's education and they believed they were capable of helping their children succeed in education, they reported low levels of involvement in school-based involvement activities and home-school conferencing. Likewise, Şad and Gürbüztürk (2013) reported that parents communicated with the school to get information about their child's progress and became volunteers for school-related activities or works at low levels. Durand (2011) also found that the involvement levels of kindergartners' parents in school-related activities such as meetings, volunteering activities, fundraising activities, and in-class activities were low. Similarly, Daniel, Wang, and Berthelsen (2016) reported low levels of involvement of preschoolers' parents in attending school events, volunteering, visiting the child's class, contacting the teacher, attending meetings at school, and helping with fundraising activities. Altogether, these results suggest the lack of the desired level of participation in school-based involvement activities and home-school conferencing should be reconsidered in terms of the methods to be followed in the process of parent involvement in education. Maybe the conceptualization of the parent involvement in education should be re-examined in terms of the applications of the parent involvement in education to reach more comprehensive and reciprocal involvement experiences (Demircan, 2018).

5.1.3 Discussions Regarding the Model

In this section, the results of the second research question in the present study were discussed based on the results of the path analysis. First, under the second research question of the study, three sub-questions addressing the direct relationships between the preschoolers' parents' quality of coparenting relationship and their motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education (RQ2.1), the direct relationships between the preschoolers' parents' quality of coparenting relationship and their levels of parent involvement in education (RQ2.2), and the direct relationships between the preschoolers' parents' motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education and their levels of parent involvement in education (RQ2.3) were discussed subsequently. Second, the last sub-question (RQ2.4) addressing the mediating role of the preschoolers' parents' motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education in the relationships between their quality of coparenting relationship and levels of parent involvement in education was discussed in detail.

5.1.3.1 Discussions Regarding Direct Effect of the Quality of Coparenting Relationship on Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement in Education

With regard to the proposed relationships between the parents' quality of coparenting relationship and their motivational beliefs of regarding parent involvement in education, the results of the path analysis revealed the significant effects of parents' quality of coparenting relationship (i.e., coparenting support, endorsement of partner's parenting, and division of labor) on their role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs regarding involvement in education, indicating that the positive relationships with their partners in terms of coparenting encourage the beliefs of parents in their active role in education and the efficacy for supporting their child or children in education. This result is in line with the results of previous studies, which showed that parents' quality of the coparenting relationship was associated with their motivational beliefs for parenting practices. For example, in addition to the other types of relationships between parents, coparenting relationships established as a consequence of being parent, have effects on parents' role activity beliefs and self-

efficacy beliefs regarding their parenting practices such as caring a child and involvement in the child's education (Feinberg et al. 2012; Merrifield & Gamble, 2012).

More specifically, the significant relations were reported between overall parents' quality of coparenting relationship and their role activity beliefs. For instance, Schoppe-Sullivan et al. (2008) found a significant positive relationship between mothers' and fathers' quality of coparenting and their beliefs about the paternal role in childcare. Similarly, Favez et al. (2016) also found positive associations between coparenting support and the role activity beliefs of parents for each other's importance in parenting.

Significant relations were also reported between parents' coparenting quality (i.e., coparenting agreement, coparenting support, and coparenting undermining) and parental self-efficacy for parenting. For instance, Indrasari and Dewi (2018) found that the overall quality of parents' coparenting relationship was a strong predictor of the general parenting self-efficacy. Specifically, Merrifield and Gamble (2012) found that coparenting undermining was a negative predictor of the general parenting self-efficacy beliefs of parents who had at least one child between the ages of 2 and 7. Schoppe-Sullivan et al. (2016) reported that coparenting support positively predicted parenting self-efficacy. Similarly, Solmeyer and Feinberg (2011) revealed a significant negative effect of coparenting undermining on general parenting self-efficacy and significant positive effect of coparenting support on the general parenting self-efficacy. Overall, these studies demonstrated that the more parents undermined each other's parenting, the more they tended to have lower levels of the general parenting self-efficacy, such as feeling incompetent in meeting their children's needs. In contrast, the supportiveness of parents for each other led to higher levels of parenting self-efficacy.

In line with the results of previous studies, the results of the current study provided persuasive evidence that parents' quality of coparenting relationship (i.e., the specific indicators of parents' quality of coparenting relationship, including coparenting support, endorsement of partner's parenting, and division of labor) had

significant effects on parents' motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education (i.e., role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs) in the context of early childhood education. In addition, the current study provided more sophisticated results regarding parental self-efficacy for helping children succeed in school, which is a domain-specific self-efficacy of parenting (Coleman & Karraker, 2000; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995) compared to the results of previous studies, which mostly focus on the general parenting self-efficacy beliefs of parents. To clarify, the present study showed that parents' self-efficacy beliefs for helping children succeed in school were predicted by the quality of their coparenting relationship. In other words, coparenting is also influential not only on the general parenting efficacy beliefs, but also on parents' self-efficacy beliefs for participating in education-related parenting practices.

In relation to the specific indicators of parents' quality of coparenting relationship, the results of the path analysis showed that the effect of coparenting agreement on self-efficacy beliefs of parents for helping their children succeed in school was significant and positive. This result can be expected because when parents reach an agreement with their partners in terms of goals, ideas, or standards about parenting practices, they may think that their thoughts and beliefs are appropriate and they might feel more efficient in taking part in the educational activities of their children. On the other hand, disagreement between parents may lead to demoralization on the part of parents, which may make them believe that they are not efficient in helping their children in school. To illustrate, when one of the parents advocates the best way to support their child as giving the child chances to explore the environment and to learn by doing, the other parent might think that they should directly provide answers for the child whenever s/he needs it. This disagreement between parents in terms of how they should support their child's education may lead to continuous criticisms, which eventually may bring one parent into doubt about his/her efficacy for helping their child succeed in school. Indeed, the chronic disagreements between parents may create an environment that parents frequently face reciprocal undermining and criticism (Grych & Fincham, 1993), which may cause a lack of confidence in being a parent.

The results of the path analysis also indicated that coparenting support significantly and positively predicted both role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs of parents. Given that receiving more support from their partners makes parents feel more responsible for their involvement in education and assume the involvement is a part of their role in the family, it is not surprising to observe significant and positive relationships between coparenting support and role activity beliefs. In fact, certain behaviors or thoughts of a parent may encourage the other parent to adopt a role in involvement (Feinberg et al., 2012). For instance, Ataca and Sunar (1999) found positive associations between shared decision-making on children's education and discipline, and the role sharing between Turkish mothers and fathers, meaning that the more parents uphold and support each other's decision, the more they share a role in children's lives, which make them feel more mutually responsible. Moreover, if a parent appreciates the other parent for his or her efforts in parenting practices, the parent may be encouraged to take more responsibilities for the school-related issues such as volunteering at school, helping a child for home activities, communicating with other parents and teachers. This can be explained by the driving force behind this parent who is conveying the message that "you are the best possible parent for our child or children, and I am here always if you need help in the parenting."

Likewise, coparenting support positively predicted self-efficacy beliefs of parents for helping the child succeed in school, implying that the more parents support their partners in terms of parenting practices, the more the partners feel self-efficient for participating in educational activities. This association can be explained with the help of the Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1989a, 1989b) original argument on the sources of self-efficacy beliefs in his self-efficacy theory as well as the adapted version of his argument into the sources of the parental self-efficacy beliefs suggested by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995). To elaborate, one source of the self-efficacy beliefs is the verbal persuasion of others, meaning positive or negative comments of other people. In parenting, supportive comments of parents about their partners may enhance their self-efficacy beliefs (e.g., appreciating hard work of the partner for being a good parent and exchanging of views related to parenting practices). In addition to verbal

comments, supportive behaviors (e.g., providing support when the parent needs) of parents for their partners are also important to make them believe in their competence in helping their child with school-related works (Feinberg et al., 2012). In short, coparenting support should be considered as a strong predictor of parents' motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education.

In contrast to coparenting support, coparenting undermining significantly and negatively predicted parents' self-efficacy beliefs. Unlike positive verbal persuasions pertaining to supportive coparenting, coparenting undermining is perceived as the sarcastic comments of a parent for the other, mistrust of a parent to the other, a parent's competition for being the best parent, and a parent's thwarting the other in parenting (Feinberg et al., 2012). Thus, the more parents thwart their partners' in parenting and compete against them to show they are better in parenting, the partners who are exposed to these behaviors feel less efficient for involvement in education.

Specifically, in the case of dual earner-parents of preschool-aged children, the more mother undermines father's parenting, the fewer he become involved in caregiving and playing activities with their preschool-aged children (Buckley & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Jia & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2011). This not just true for resident fathers, who live with the mother and their children as unmarried parents, it is also true for nonresident fathers. The coparenting is a crucial factor to increase active involvement of nonresident fathers, who do not live with their children because of divorce or something else in spending time with their children and engaging activities such as play and oral language activities (Carlson et al., 2008; Fagan & Palkovitz, 2011; Sobolewski & King, 2005; Waller, 2012). Hence, undermining behaviors or comments of parents for each other is an important factor for seeing the overall picture of the determining factors of the self-efficacy beliefs of parents.

As a part of the supportive coparenting referred in the ecological model of coparenting relation (Feinberg, 2003), endorsement of partner's parenting was also positively correlated with parents' role activity beliefs, indicating that when parents perceive their partner as a good parent, they think that they have a role in getting involved in education of their children. According to LeRoy et al. (2013), parents co-

create their parenting roles through the relationships they establish. That is, the positive relationships between parents may end up with equal share of responsibilities. As the results of the current study indicate, the positive behaviors of preschoolers' parents, such as paying attention to the child's needs and making personal sacrificing involve in caregiving, shortly endeavoring to be a good parent influences the role activity beliefs of parents for participating in education. In the context of parent involvement in early childhood education, for instance, the personal sacrifices of parents (e.g., creating time despite an intense work schedule) may model to their partners, so they may feel responsible for talking to the child about the day s/he has spent at school. On the other hand, the traditional or cultural context may create a pressure for parents to behave differently even mothers and fathers or men and women consider that they have roles in coparenting practices independently of their gender (Feinberg, 2003).

In addition to the contextual factors, personal factors may also matter in endorsement of partner's parenting. To clarify, mothers and fathers may react differently to their partners' behaviors. For example, fathers are more sensitive to the endorsement of their parenting by their spouses than mothers are; so, the unsupportive behaviors of mothers may be inferred by fathers as the inability to be a competent parent (Van Egeren & Hawkins, 2004). Thus, fathers who experience a lack of maternal support for their parenting decisions begin to have suspicions about their parenting competence; on the other hand, mothers are less prone to relying on fathers' affirmation of their parenting ability. Therefore, although it was not a major concern of the current study, there is a need for further exploration of different expectations of mothers and fathers for endorsement of parenting in future studies.

Lastly, division of labor significantly and negatively predicted role activity, suggesting that the unfair share of child-related works may lead one of the parents to feel himself or herself more responsible for involvement in education. According to Biehle and Mickelson (2011), parenting is a collection of shared experience for mother and father, meaning the feelings or behaviors of a parent may influence the other's feelings and behaviors. Consequently, if parents do not carry their fair share of the parenting work, one of the parents may perceive parent involvement activities such as

volunteering in school, communicating with teacher, helping child at home, contacting with other parents in the school and supporting the school as his/her role. On the contrary, balanced share of child-related works may lead parents to shoulder equal responsibility for the school-related works.

5.1.3.2 Discussions Regarding Direct Effect of the Quality of Coparenting Relationship on Levels of Parent Involvement in Education

The results of the path analysis revealed that coparenting support, coparenting undermining, endorsement of partner's parenting, and division of labor were statistically related to at least one level of the parent involvement in education.

Specifically, coparenting support had significant and positive effects on all levels of parent involvement in education (i.e., school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing), signifying that coparenting support is a strong predictor of parent involvement in education. This result was consistent with the results of previous studies which showed that higher supports in coparenting led to an increase in the levels of both school and home-based involvement for parents of nine-year-old American children and parents of Taiwanese children between the ages of eight to eleven (Berryhill, 2017; Chen et al., 2017).

In addition to the results of the aforementioned studies, the results of the current study also provided evidence that coparenting support also significantly and positively predicted the home-school conferencing referring to the communication between school and parents regarding the child's education and progress in the context of Turkish parents with children between 36 to 72 months. These results indicate that coparenting support is a comprehensive predictor of parent involvement in education and supportive relationships established between parents increase involvement in education in the context of early childhood, regardless of location and content. Indeed, the appreciation of parenting or expression of the extra support may encourage parents to become more involved in school-based parent involvement activities (e.g., being volunteer or participating parent-teacher meetings), home-based parent involvement activities (e.g., reading book to the child or preparing activities to support the child's

learning) and home-school conferencing (e.g., communicating with teacher about progress of the child or daily activities of the child).

Contrary to coparenting support, coparenting undermining was found to predict school-based and home-based involvement significantly and negatively. It is understandable because undermining parenting of partners by denigrating the way they become parent results in their reluctance to become involved in both school-based and home-based involvement. For example, if a father makes jokes or ironic comments about a mother's inexperience or knowledge level, the mother will not be willing to participate in parent involvement activities. The main reason for the decrease in the involvement level of the parent who exposed to undermining comments or behaviors can be explained based on the effects of self-efficacy beliefs. In fact, as discussed earlier, the results of the present study revealing the negative associations between coparenting undermining and parental self-efficacy beliefs implicated the possible effect of the coparenting undermining on self-efficacy beliefs of parents, which turns the effect on the involvement level of the parents.

The results of the path analysis also showed that division of labor significantly and negatively predicted school-based and home-based involvement. That is, the more one parent plays his/her roles in parenting-related works, the less the other parent participates in home-based and school-based activities. On the other hand, in the related literature, it was reported that the share of tasks or responsibilities regarding parenting leads to more involvement in education both at home and school (Chen et al., 2017), meaning that when parents share parenting-related works, they may participate more frequently in the home-based and school-based involvement activities. In Chen et al. (2017)'s study, parents assessed their relationship in terms of a fair share of parenting-related works. This might be true for the nature of this variable in that study, which expressing the items that parents assess their relationship in terms of a fair share of the parenting-related works (Newland et al., 2008). On the contrary, in the current study, the division of labor was determined through the view of one parent about the attitude of the other parent towards the fair share of the parenting-related works (Feinberg et al., 2012). Therefore, unlike the study of Chen et al. (2017),

the negative correlation found in the current study might be due to the different stances against division of labor.

To elaborate more on the results of the present study, the presence of a parent may make the other parent withdraw from the parenting practices. Indeed, parents might behave differently in the presence of the other parent. To illustrate, the interaction between parents and the child may significantly differ when they interact with each other in the presence of the other parent. According to Bingham, Kwon, and Jeon (2013), mothers or fathers used different languages when they were alone with their child than when all they were together. Specifically, when mother, father, and child were together, fathers generally talked less and used fewer words than mothers. They also found that fathers were more involved in interaction when the mother was not with them. Therefore, when mothers are not in presence, the involvement of fathers in care increases to that of mothers to compensate for the absence of mother (Mendonça, Bussab, & Kärtner, 2019; Szabó et al., 2011). Concordantly, one of the parents of the child may not participate in parent involvement activities just because the mother is attending somehow. However, parents should be aware of the fact that both of their involvement is essential and necessary for the education of their children instead of putting this critical parenting practice solely on mother or father.

Furthermore, the results demonstrated that endorsement of partner's parenting significantly and negatively predicted parents' school-based involvement. That is, if parents have a partner who displays appreciated parenting behaviors, they demonstrate less involvement in school-based involvement activities. This result can be explained in two ways. First, the "good" characteristics of a parent in parenting, such as paying attention to the child, making personal sacrifices, and treating sensitively and patiently to the child can make the other parent less participate in education. That is, parents may think that their partner is a good parent and s/he participates anyway, so they may feel relaxed because of their partner does most of the parenting-related work as good as s/he can. Second, this result may also be explained by the reverse effects of the unnecessary supportiveness of one parent for the other. Clearly, according to LeRoy et al. (2013), parents may perceive parenting behaviors as supportive or undermining

in different conditions. For instance, the redundant support of a mother may be perceived as the intention of undermining the father's parenting or vice versa. This can be perceived as "steal a role". Therefore, this exaggerated support and goodness of a parent may cause less involvement of the other parent.

On the other hand, the results of the path analysis revealed that coparenting agreement and exposure to conflict did not significantly relate to any dimensions of involvement in education. There might be several reasons for the insignificant effects of these two indicators of the coparenting. First of all, gender and cultural differences may be influential on them. For example, Ataca and Sunar (1999) reported that decisions regarding the child's education and discipline were mostly taken by mothers in Turkish families. If the decisions regarding the child's education and other parenting practices are made by mother and father consents with them, then there may not be a need to disagree and come into conflict. That is, the insignificant effects of coparenting agreement and exposure to conflict on involvement in education are understandable because the decision-making process that may lead to disagreements and conflicts between parents is already handled by the one parent in the family. Thus, due to the one-sided decision-making mechanism, coparenting agreement and exposure to conflict may not cause any difference in the involvement behaviors of the parents in the present study. Moreover, McBride and Rane (1998) found that disagreement between parents influenced mother and father differently. In other words, mothers were capable of overcoming the effects of the disagreement, but fathers could not, which led to less involvement of fathers. In addition to gender, cultural differences may be a reason for the insignificant effects of coparenting agreement and exposure of conflict on the levels of involvement in education As Feinberg (2003) stressed, coparenting relations are formed under a cultural environment that includes different beliefs, values, expectations, and desires. To this respect, some patterns of the relationship between coparents may not be sound for some other cultures. Following this line of reasoning, it can also be understood why coparenting agreement and exposure to conflict did not relate to the parent involvement in the context of the Turkish early childhood education.

In fact, exposure to conflict was also a weak predictor of the motivational beliefs of the parents regarding involvement in education, which is in line with the results of Rogers' (1996) study revealing nonsignificant relationships between Mexican and African American mothers' parenting and conflict between parents. On the contrary, Cabrera, Shannon, and La Taillade (2009) reported that coparental conflict was a significant predictor of the parenting of Mexican American parents of infants. These inconsistent results may reveal that the coparenting conflict is not a consistent predictor of parenting practices compared to the other indicators, as reported by previous studies (e.g., Chen et al., 2017; Sobolewski & King, 2005).

Another explanation for the insignificant effects of coparenting agreement and exposure of conflict on the levels of involvement in education can be made based on a more indirect effect of coparenting agreement and exposure to conflict instead of direct effects of the involvement behaviors of parents. On the other hand, because coparenting support, coparenting undermining, endorsement of partner's parenting, or division of labor may have direct effects on the involvement behaviors of parents, they stood out as more powerful predictors of parents' levels of involvement in education. To exemplify, cruel jokes or sarcastic comments of parents about the involvement of their partners in activities may cause less participant on the part of the partners, which may imply that undermining behaviors or comments of parents may create powerful direct effects on the parenting behaviors of their partners. On the contrary, disagreement between parents or exposure to conflict may not produce a significant direct effect on the involvement behaviors of parents. For instance, exposure to conflict in coparental relationship refers to the general arguments between parents in the presence of the child. Therefore, exposure to conflict may not create a direct effect on the involvement behaviors as coparenting undermining, which directly targets the parenting of the parents.

Second, the results of the study revealed that home-school conferencing was the least predicted dimension of parent involvement although it can be accepted as an extension of the school-based involvement (Pomerantz et al., 2007), which can be explained based on the activities that school-based involvement and home-school

conferencing include. Home-school conferencing might not be affected as much as school-based involvement because it just involves the communication between parents and school staff rather than actively doing something such as being a volunteer or participating book reading activity in the classroom as in school-based involvement (Fantuzzo et al., 2000). Consequently, home-school conferencing can be considered as an easier way of involvement than school-based involvement so that it may be affected less by the coparenting indicators compared to school-based involvement.

5.1.3.3 Discussions Regarding the Direct Effect of the Motivational Beliefs Regarding Parent Involvement in Education on the Levels of Parent Involvement in Education

The results of the path analysis revealed that the motivational beliefs regarding parent involvement in education (i.e., role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs) directly and significantly predicted all levels of parent involvement in education (i.e., school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing). These results were consistent with the model of parent involvement processes in education proposed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995; 2005). To elaborate, as the model suggests, parental role activity for parent involvement, referring the parents' role beliefs regarding their responsibilities and duties for participating in education and school-related activities of their children is one of the determinants of the parents' decision about whether they become involved in the educational life of their children. Similarly, the self-efficacy beliefs of parents referring to parents' beliefs about their competence in helping their children with school-related works. These results were also in line with previous studies conducted with the parents of children at different age groups and educational levels ranging from preschool to high school (e.g., Deslandes & Bertrand, 2005; Freund et al., 2018; Green et al., 2007; Kaya & Bacanlı, 2016; Lavenda, 2011; Park & Holloway, 2018; Reed et al., 2000; Sheldon, 2002; Yamamoto et al., 2006). Although the results of these studies provided plenty of evidence reporting the significant positive effects of the motivational beliefs on the school-based and home-based involvement (e.g., Deslandes & Bertrand, 2005; Giallo

et al., 2013; Sheldon, 2002; Tazouti & Jarlégan, 2016), the results of the current study also provided additional evidence of the relations between the motivational beliefs and home-school conferencing, which suggest that the motivational beliefs of parents are also influential on the communication between parents and school staff.

Specifically, the way parents define values, expectations, goals, and beliefs about the behaviors of children and parents' understanding of their responsibilities in terms of child's education motivates or demotivates their involvement in education (Hoover-Dempsey & Jones, 1996, 2002; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005; Reed et al., 2000). Some parents may believe that their involvement is important for the education of their children, and perceive their involvement as their responsibility (Drummond & Stipek, 2004; Wilder, 2017). On the other hand, some other parents might think that their role should be more passive than the roles of teachers (Chrispeels & Rivero, 2001; O'Conner, 2001; Tveit, 2009). These types of role beliefs lead parents' involvement behaviors. Indeed, the results of the study revealed that role activity beliefs had significant effects on school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing, indicating that parents who had stronger beliefs that participating in the education of their children were their responsibility, had more tendency to become involved in parent involvement activities regardless of the types of involvement. These results were also supported by previous studies (e.g., Deslandes & Bertrand, 2005; Park & Holloway, 2018; Sheldon, 2002; Yamamoto et al., 2006).

According to Deslandes and Bertrand (2005), although parental role activity, which is the strongest predictor of the parent involvement in education, is required for the involvement decisions of parents in their children's education, it is not enough alone (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005). Besides, parents have to deal with their self-efficacy beliefs, which also affect their involvement decisions. In general, self-efficacy beliefs, referring to the confidence of parents in their qualifications in terms of skills and knowledge in involvement practices (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005) influence individuals in numerous aspects, including thoughts, feelings, behaviors, motivations, choices, and future performances

(Bandura, 1977, 1982; Gist & Mithchell, 1992; Schunk, 2009). To illustrate, when individuals have a belief that they are able to succeed in a task or their involvement will create a positive change in the task, they will be motivated to become involved in the task.

Therefore, if parents believe that they are efficient in helping their children with school-related works, they tend to become involved more in education. Similar to the role activity beliefs, in the present study, self-efficacy beliefs of parents significantly and positively predicted school-based, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing, which indicates that when parents perceive their competence higher in helping their children with their school-related works, they tend to participate in either home- or school-based activities, or the communication process with school. These results were in line the results of previous studies showing that there was a significant and positive relationship between parents' self-efficacy beliefs and their participation in home-based involvement activities such as reading and helping with the school work at home (Grolnick et al., 1997; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992).

5.1.3.4 Mediating Roles of Role Activity and Self-Efficacy Beliefs

The results of the path analysis revealed that the relationships between the quality of coparenting relations and the levels of parent involvement in education were either fully or partially mediated by the role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs.

Specifically, the results of the study showed that role activity beliefs of parents fully mediated the relationship between endorsement of partner's parenting and home-based involvement as well as home-school conferencing. The results also showed that role activity beliefs of parents fully mediated the relationship between division of labor and school-based involvement as well as home-school conferencing. This shows that endorsement of partner's parenting positively affects home-based involvement and home-school conferencing, and this effect entirely depends on the role activity beliefs of parents for involvement in education suggesting that only when a parent feels himself or herself responsible for the involvement, their endorsement of the partner's parenting influences the involvement of this parent in home-based involvement and

home-school conferencing. Clearly, parents' good traits regarding being a parent, such as their sensitiveness and patience for the child, and their personal sacrifices can be model to their partners and make them think that parent involvement activities might be their role, as well, which in turn, increases their involvement. Second, division of labor negatively affects the levels of school-based involvement and home-school conferencing, and this effect also entirely depends on the role activity beliefs of parents about involvement in education. In other words, only when a particular parent thinks that involvement is his or her role, this unfair share of parenting-related works leads to higher levels of involvement in school-based involvement and home-school conferencing.

Moreover, the results of the study demonstrated that role activity beliefs of parents partially mediated the effects of the coparenting support on school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing. This indicates that, in part, parent involvement in education depends on parents' beliefs on role activity. In other words, coparenting support is important to predict the levels of parents' involvement in education, but when coparenting support is accompanied by high levels of the role activity, coparenting support may produce a better effect on the levels of parent involvement in education.

Role activity beliefs of parents also partially mediated the relationship between endorsement of partner's parenting and school-based involvement, and the relationship between the division of labor and home-based involvement. These results indicate that when endorsement of partner's parenting and division of labor is accompanied by high levels of role activity beliefs, they can be better predictors of parent involvement either in-home or school. So, parental levels of school-based and home-based involvement depend, in part, on parents' role activity beliefs.

Intriguingly, the direct effect of endorsement of partner's parenting was negative on school-based involvement; however, endorsement of partner's parenting significantly and positively predicted role activity, which, in turn, significantly and positively predicted school-based involvement. As discussed earlier, considering the reciprocal effects of the parents on each other, parents may believe that there is no

need to participate in education because their partner is a good parent, and anyhow, does parenting practices, including participating in involvement activities (Cox & Paley, 1997; LeRoy et al., 2013). Nonetheless, when parents perceive the involvement as their role, they do not use the goodness of their partner as an excuse for not participating. They also find themselves responsible for their involvement. Hence, the role activity beliefs play a significant role as an underlying mechanism that changes the direction of the relationship between endorsement of partner's parenting and school-based involvement because the effects of environment on the behaviors and thoughts of a parent for what type of parent s/he becomes and to what extend s/he will take responsibility in parenting influence can influence the parent involvement in education as a part of co-creation of role beliefs (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997; LeRoy et al., 2013; Feinberg, 2003).

According to the Role Theory (Biddle, 1979, 1986), the immediate social environment has an effect on leading the thoughts, ideas, beliefs, and behaviors on people's roles within the social environment they belong to. Considering the role theory and the inference of Whitaker and Hoover-Dempsey (2003), individual behaviors can be influenced either directly by the social environment of individuals or indirectly the effects of social environment on the role beliefs of individuals. For example, according to Park and Holloway (2018), parental role activity mediates the relationship between the relationship established with the school and school-based involvement and academic socialization. This means that the relations of parents with a positive immediate social environment – school in this case- influences the role activity beliefs of the parents positively, which in turn, increases the levels of parent involvement. In parallel to the premises of the role theory and the fact that the immediate environment of the children affects the role beliefs in the context of the most proximal environment of children (i.e., family), the Family System Theory also suggests that the family members influence each other's beliefs, thoughts or behaviors. In fact, the results of the current study which investigated the effect of the relationship between mother and father who are the closest members in their environment revealed that role activity beliefs regarding parent involvement in education partially or fully

mediated the associations between the quality of coparenting relationship and their involvement to education.

In addition to the role activity beliefs of parents, the results of the path analysis showed that self-efficacy beliefs of parents also partially mediated the effects of the coparenting support on school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing. This signifies that parent involvement in education depends, in part, on parents' beliefs about their self-efficacy for helping their children with education-related activates. So, coparenting support is a significant predictor of the levels of parents' participation in different involvement activities. In addition, it can be stronger if coparenting support is accompanied by high levels of self-efficacy beliefs. To illustrate, when parents who have supportive partners who appreciate their parenting or provides support when they have obstacles in parenting practices, they feel more self-efficient for helping their children with education-related activities, which in turn increases their levels of involvement in education.

Furthermore, self-efficacy beliefs of parents fully mediated the relationship between coparenting undermining and home-school conferencing although coparenting undermining represents the relations to the reverse nature of supportive relations between coparents. On the other hand, self-efficacy beliefs partially mediated the effects of coparenting undermining on school-based involvement and home-based involvement. More clearly, self-efficacy beliefs of parents contributed to the predictive power of coparenting undermining for home-based and school-based involvement.

Lastly, the relationship between coparenting agreement and levels of parent involvement (i.e., school-based involvement, home-based involvement, and home-school conferencing) were fully mediated by self-efficacy beliefs for helping children succeed in school. This shows that coparenting agreement works only when parents' self-efficacy is high. As stated earlier, whether parents have an agreement in terms of parenting practices is not important for parent involvement in education. Only when parents feel self-efficient, coparenting agreement and parent involvement in education are associated. Thus, the self-efficacy beliefs of parents appear to be a crucial mediator between coparenting agreement and all levels of parent involvement in education. In

other words, if the self-efficacy beliefs of parents are not strong enough, the association between coparenting agreement and parent involvement in education can not be established. Similarly to role activity beliefs, self-efficacy beliefs of parents are shaped within the environment of parents (Bandura, 1977; H Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005). More specifically, behaviors and beliefs of partners, who are at the immediate environment of parents, influence their self-efficacy beliefs involvement behaviors (Biehle & Mickelson, 2011).

Based on the Self-efficacy Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1989a, 1989b), as Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) also suggests that comments and behaviors of others—especially significant to parents—are influential on the parents' beliefs of self-efficacy regarding helping their child/children succeed in the school, as such on role activity beliefs. The behaviors and attitudes of the coparent may enhance or diminish the self-efficacy belief of a parent, which is a determining factor of decision of parents regarding involvement in education (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005; Walker et al., 2005) because the coparent in one of the most significant person who has a significant effect on the self-efficacy beliefs in the life this parent (Feinberg, 2003; Tice, 1992). For example, a parent's sarcastic comments regarding the ability of the spouse for the helping the homework of the child would make this parent to question his or her potential to help the child, which turns not to become involved in these types of activities. On the other hand, the supportive behaviors and comments of the spouse may produce the exact opposite effect. These types of negative and positive effects of coparent may influence parenting behavior. That is, as Feinberg (2003) proposed, parental self-efficacy can explain the relationship between coparenting and parenting performance. In the context of the previous example, the self-efficacy of these parents serves as the underlying mechanism of the effect of coparental relations and involvement of the parent.

The previous studies based on the model of the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) demonstrated the significant effects of the role activity and self-efficacy beliefs of parents on their involvement levels. Moving one step further, the results of the present study provided a piece of solid evidence that role activity and self-efficacy

beliefs of parents are potential underlying mechanisms in the associations between coparental relationship and parent involvement in education, which was unclear in previous studies (i.e., Berryhill, 2017; Chen et al., 2017). The current contribution of this study may help understand how the familial relationship in a specific family sub-system is filtered through the individual beliefs of parents that strongly affect levels of parental involvement in education. This highlights that, in addition to parental relations, the individual beliefs of parents are still quite influential on parental involvement in education.

5.2 Implications

The results of the present study provided valid conclusions regarding coparental relations as a sub-system of family and parent involvement in education in the context of Turkish early childhood education. They also provided guiding information for future studies in the field of parent involvement in education. Therefore, in the light of the results of the study, implications for theory, research and practice as well as suggestions for future research were presented subsequently.

5.2.1 Implications for Theory and Research

The current study is important for the field of education because of its significant contributions to parent involvement in education, specifically in early childhood education. Accordingly, depending on the results presented in this study, three considerable implications for the research of parent involvement in education were explained. These implications are expected to lead future studies to explore parent involvement in education within the scope of coparenting relations, which is quite a new topic in the field of parent involvement in education, and even it is the first introduction of coparenting relations in the national parent involvement literature.

First of all, in the parent involvement literature, various models were proposed to understand the factors that influence the decisions of parents about their participation in their child's or children's education (e.g., Barton et al., 2004; Green et al., 2007; Grolnick et al., 1997; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997, 2005); but,

less attention was given to the possible effects of the family structure and dynamics on the parent involvement decision (Jeynes, 2011). Indeed, extending the knowledge on the effects of the psychological conditions of family such as maternal depression, parental stress or the quality of marital relationship can provide insights into the understanding of parent involvement in the context of family (Giallo et al., 2013; Kiernan & Huerta, 2008; McBride & Mills, 1993). With regard to this, the results of the current study provided considerable insights into possible predictors from the inside of the family system. The significant indirect and direct effects of coparenting relations on parent involvement in education provided initial evidence to verify one of the fundamental assumptions of the Family System Theory that behaviors and beliefs of members in a family is interconnected and the relations between family members produce effects on the beliefs and behaviors of the members (Minuchin, 1985). More specifically, the results of this study open a new gate to the investigation of parental involvement in education in terms of its relations with intrafamilial relationships by revealing the possible predictor roles of coparental relations.

Second, the current study certainly provided a unique contribution to parent involvement in early childhood education in Turkey by introducing the concept of coparenting relation to the national early childhood education literature. To the best of the author's knowledge, there exists no research study addressing the coparenting relationship in terms of its relation to parent involvement motivations and behaviors. The present study is the first attempt to explore the associations between coparenting relationship and individual parent involvement motivations and behaviors. Therefore, the Coparenting Relationship Scale (Feinberg et al., 2012) translated and adapted into Turkish language and culture can be used in further research studies to investigate the family relations in terms of parenting practices. As discussed earlier, the coparenting relationship was found as an essential predictor of the parent involvement motivations and behaviors in education, so a valid and reliable instrument to measure the coparental relationship of Turkish parents can be useful to determine the patterns of coparental relationship in early childhood research in Turkey.

Third, the results of the study revealed that coparenting is a multidimensional construct that has an effect on parents' beliefs and behaviors. In other words, the dynamics of family relations considerably influence parent involvement in education. The results of the study further the understanding that the quality of coparenting relationship not only directly affects the levels of parent involvement in education, but also enhances the levels of parent involvement through its effect on the strong predictors of the motivational beliefs of parents regarding parent involvement in school—role activity beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs of parents. Thus, this study leads up to further examination of the direct effects of various family system variables and the possible underlying mechanism of them in relation to parent involvement in education. Therefore, this study extends the knowledge on the possible predictors of the parent involvement in education by providing considerable evidence on the effects of the specific intrafamilial dynamics—parental relationships in terms of parenting practices on involvement in education. Besides, the results of this study also deepen the understanding of the effects of parental relations on involvement in education by clarifying the possible mechanisms of the effects of these parental relationships on the involvement in education.

Lastly, the significant effects of the coparenting relationship on parent involvement motivations and behaviors of parents address the need of the re-definition and re-conceptualization of parent involvement in education. More clearly, the results of the current study indicated that in addition to the individual level associations of the parent involvement in education with the family members in a nuclear family (i.e., mother and father), the relationships between these two members also associate with parent involvement in education, so parent involvement necessitates to be re-conceptualized within the context of coparenting relations. Therefore, instead of seeing parents two different individuals who are parenting to a child or children, they may be considered as the coparents who are equally responsible for the child or children.

In fact, in Turkey, it seems that previous studies have been conducted based on the dominating traditional definition and conceptualization of parent involvement in education, which is also commonly acknowledged in the international literature. More clearly, in Turkey, parent involvement activities include parent-teacher meetings; communication between parents and school through different means of communication such as phones, letters, brochures, booklets; volunteering for in-class activities or other school-related activities such as field trips; home visiting; parent education programs such as seminars, conferences, and meetings; participating in decision-making regarding school; preparing educational activities at home or school (Aral, Kandır & Can-Yaşar, 2000, MoNE, 2013; Temel, Aksoy, & Kurtulmuş, 2010; Tezel-Şahin & Özyürek, 2010). On the other hand, the implementation of these activities may be slightly different in practice in Turkey. For example, participating in decision making is a part of parent involvement in education, and as stated in MoNE (2012)'s regulations regarding the parent-teacher association, participating in the decision-making processes of the school is the responsibility and role of parents. Although it is included in the regulation, the regulations do not seem to comply with practice. According to European Commission, (2014), although in most of the European countries (e.g., Denmark, Belgium, France), parents have opportunity to participate as either decision-maker or consultor for the educational objectives, content, and methods; choice of educational materials, rules of governing daily life in early childhood education and care (ECEC) settings and staff requirements, in Turkey, parents do not engage in governance of center-based ECEC (European Commission, 2014). This may indicate a disconnection between the family and the school, which was also supported by previous studies. For example, it was reported that teachers were not in favor of involving parents in the management and decision-making process of their involvement activities; moreover, administrators and teachers ignored the opinions of parents when organizing social and educational activities and were not open to the presence of parents at school (Erdem & Şimşek, 2009; Şimşek & Tanaydın, 2002).

In addition, a considerable amount of research studies on parent involvement investigated parent involvement with the mothers of children, which is most probably because of the role attributed to mothers specifically in parenting—the mother is the responsible person for the child-care (e.g., Greif & Greif, 2004; Filik, 2018). On the other hand, fathers might have been considered as the indifferent member of the family and their involvement was found unnecessary to investigate because of the indifference attributed to fathers. Nevertheless, the number of research studies addressing parental involvement in education has increased during the last three decades (Palm & Fagan, 2008) and there is a voluminous of research studies that have investigated specifically paternal involvement in education (e.g., Kim & Hill, 2015; Gürşimşek et al., 2007; Ünlü-Çetin, 2016).

Recently, Demircan (2018) introduced the concept of parent engagement to the national parent involvement literature, which gave an impulse to the understanding of parent-school partnership in early childhood education. In this context, the aim was not to enable parents to take more responsibility for their children, but to make them realize that they are individuals who are or will continue to take an active part in the education of their children and to make them establish engagement in their educational processes. The researcher proposes that parent involvement in education is developing and becoming more inclusive in line with the needs of society, school, and family as a reflection of the constantly changing social life. Within this scope, following this new trend, the current study aimed to broaden the concept of parent involvement in education in relation to coparenting relationships that gain strength in today's more egalitarian society. In this respect, the results of the present study provided a new perspective to establishing engagement between both parents and school by giving information about the relationships between parents about parenting, especially the engagement of the fathers who are considered as the "secondary parents" (Wall & Arnold, 2007, p.515). Hence, based on the effects of coparenting relationship on family functioning, it is suggested that parent engagement should also be considered in the context of family relations to make it more effective.

5.2.2 Implications for Practice

The presence of more parents in the workforce, the fast pace of modern society as a whole, and the declining role of the family have all been reasons that some social scientists have pointed to explain an apparent decline in parent involvement in education (Jeynes, 2010, 2011). Educators have also realized that children in urban areas might be influenced by these realities as much or more than any group in the country (Jasis & Ordonez-Jasis, 2012; Jeynes, 2012; Lightfoot, 2004). A supportive, respectful, and fair coparenting may be a remedy for the psychological and physical burden shouldered by the parents in the exhausting world.

In the current study, the coparenting relationship between parents affected directly or indirectly the levels of parent involvement in education through its effect on the motivational beliefs of parents regarding parent involvement in education. This result suggests that the enhancement of coparenting relations contributes to the beliefs of parents on their role in education and to their self-efficacy beliefs to provide help for their children to be successful. Schools may be good places to draw attention to the importance of qualified coparenting relationships for the academic and social development of children and the quality of the family relations because parents may not know how to be a "coparent." Schools may provide educational activities to provide information about healthy coparenting relations in addition to traditional subjects such as commutating with children, discipline, etc. In schools, parent involvement activities may be re-organized to support coparenting. For example, a schedule for the fair share of the school activities may be planned. Also, while planning parent involvement activities, teachers and schools should consider the family dynamics within the context of coparental relations. It is very crucial to know the family of the children to provide more specific activities appropriate for their family context and the relationships established within their family system.

Specifically, the current study revealed that the quality of parents' coparenting relationship associates with their levels of involvement in education and provided an important general result. More clearly, school-based involvement was predicted by more coparenting indicators than home-based involvement and home-school

conferencing. This result is promising for future parent involvement studies because positive coparental relations between parents may be a remedy to increase the low levels of school-based involvement which is the least preferred involvement type in education as found both in the current study and previous studies (Deslandes & Bertrand, 2005; Durand, 2011; Freund et al., 2018; Green et al., 2007; Ritblatt et al., 2002; Xia et al., 2019; Sheldon, 2002). To clarify, interventions to enhance positive coparenting relationships may enhance the involvement of parents in education, especially in school-based involvement activities.

Indeed, recent studies revealed that the quality of the coparenting relationship between parents could be enhanced through interventions (Pilkington et al., 2019). These interventions led to an increase in the participation of parents in childcare and parenting practices (e.g., Beach et al., 2014; Doss, Cicila, Hsueh, Morrison, & Carhart, 2014; Fagan, 2008; Feinberg & Kan, 2008; Rienks, Wadsworth, Markman, Einhorn, & Moran-Etter, 2011). These intervention programs included parent education programs, group meetings, or home visiting programs, which aimed to enhance the communication between partners, to facilitate father involvement, to support parents to prevent parenting related problems, to share the ways of coping with disagreement and conflict, to encourage fair share of parenting tasks. Similar intervention programs that specifically address how to involve in education as coparents can be organized within the schools. More specifically, parent education programs can be planned to share how parents can cope with the problems, conflicts, or disagreements caused by the involvement in education such as conflicts arisen from the lack of time for involvement or lack of knowledge regarding how to involve. In relation to that, parents may be informed, for example, about how to create time for involvement in by fairly sharing parenting-related works and responsibilities. As a result, parent education programs, home visiting programs or group discussions can be organized by schools to prevent parents from involvement-related conflicts, problems, or disagreements; to share the possible ways of fairly sharing involvement-related activities or specifically to support the father involvement in education who considered as the secondary

participator of education. These types of programs can be planned both immediately before the child starts to school and during the education of the child.

The intervention and parent education programs can be integrated into the early childhood curriculum. The early childhood education program includes the OBADER, which is a guide for teachers for the enhancement of parent involvement in education. In this guide, there are some informative presentations regarding parenting and parent involvement in school. Coparenting may be added to the guide as a new subject to inform the teachers. Sample of the activities and cases may be provided in a special section for teachers to guide them to integrate the coparenting in parent involvement in education.

In short, the schools should find ways to reach to parents to improve the quality of the coparenting that children can experience on every day (McDaniel et al. 2017) by telling them that "…when 'four arms' and 'four legs' that love that child are available, it makes it easier for children to have a sense of parental involvement" (Jeynes, 2011, p. 15).

5.3 Recommendations for Future Research

The current study can be considered as an introduction to a research area that specifically integrates a core family system with parent involvement in education. Although the possible effects of demographic variables on the research variables were examined in the preliminary analysis, demographic variables related to the family system such as gender differences, employment status, income, and level of education were not the main concern of the current study. Thus, further research studies may extend the related literature by investigating the potential effects of aforementioned demographics on the patterns of associations.

In particular, the effects of gender differences of parents on direct and indirect associations among the study variables could be addressed in further studies because mothers and fathers may react differently to their partner's behaviors. For example, fathers are more sensitive to the confirmation of their parenting by their spouses than the mothers are. That is, the unsupportive behaviors of mothers may be inferred by

fathers as their inability to be a competent parent (Van Egeren & Hawkins, 2004). In addition, parents may have influences on each other in terms of shaping their roles and self-efficacy beliefs. To illustrate, mothers may affect the involvement of fathers through their gatekeeping roles (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2008). Besides, parents' traditional or cultural context may create a pressure to behave differently even mothers and fathers or men and women consider that they have roles in coparenting practices independently of their gender (Feinberg, 2003). Consequently, in addition to gender differences, further studies may also take cultural contexts into account.

Although the current study provides information regarding the relationship between coparenting relations and parent involvement in school based on a sample of parents of children between the ages of 3 and 5, further studies can be conducted with younger children's parents (i.e., 0 to 3) and older children (e.g., middle school children or high school children) because the patterns of the relations may differ depending on age or grade level of children. These research studies may extend the relationship between coparenting relations, which is a family structure variable, and parent involvement in education either in terms of motivations for involvement or the levels of parent involvement in for the parents of very young children in Turkish early childhood context. This might be an enormous contribution to the parent involvement literature in terms of the deficiency—not enough focus on the relationship between family structure and parent involvement in education—of the parent involvement literature emphasized by Jeynes (2011). Coparenting relations are not only established by biological and coresident parents. Coparenting is also the case for the different family structures such as nonresidential parents, divorced parents, step-parents, grandparents (Bronte-Tinkew & Horowitz, 2010; Jones et al., 2003; Schrodt, Baxter, McBride, Braithwaite, & Fine, 2006). Especially, the grandparenting is very important in Turkish culture in which the grandparents are closely related to the nuclear family (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010; Salman-Engin, 2014). The dynamics of the relations in these diverse families may be different, which may influence the relations between the quality of coparenting and parent involvement in education. Consequently, future studies should be conducted based on diverse family structures.

Besides, the possible mediating roles of the parents' school-related beliefs might be investigated in addition to their motivational beliefs that lead to their involvement in education. For example, recent research shows that curriculum orientations are significant for parental involvement in education (Antony-Newman, 2019). Accordingly, parental beliefs in curriculum orientations (i.e., academic rationalism, social efficiency, humanism, and social reconstruction) were proposed as the potential predictors of parental satisfaction with the school and the parent involvement in education. The future studies may investigate the predictor roles of the curriculum orientations in the motivational beliefs regarding involvement in education and the levels of the parent involvement in education in the context of early childhood education. Furthermore, the potential effects of the coparenting relationship between parents—found as a good predictor of the parental involvement in education in the current study—on the curriculum orientations, which, in turn, produce effects on the levels of parent involvement in education.

In the current study, the coparenting quality was assessed via the self-report instruments applied to the mother or father in different family contexts for their coparenting relationship. That is, the evaluation of the quality of coparenting was made by the data gathered either from mother or father in the family, not from both of them as in some other related research studies (e.g., Bonds & Gondoli, 2007; Bearss & Eyberg, 1998; Lam, Tam, Chung, & Li, 2018; McHale, Rao, & Krasnow, 2000; Parent et al., 2016; Thullen & Bonsall, 2017). The reason behind this preference for the data collection technique was to take a precaution for reducing the threat of the interaction between mother and father when filling the data collection instruments because the family members may tend to copy the answer of the partner. In fact, this was reported as a serious threat to reaching reliable and valid results for studies (Fraenkel et al., 2011).

On the other hand, making the evaluation from only one partner's point of view may lead to the biased or nonobjective evaluation of coparenting quality because in the evaluation of dyadic relationships involving both partners, mother and father may have different views on the same concept. In order to enhance objectivity and reduce

bias, the actor-partner interdependence model (APIM) may be adopted in future studies (Cook & Kenny, 2005) to evaluate the same concept from the point of view of different individuals, namely, mothers and fathers.

The further studies may also investigate the relations among the study variables, not only by collecting data with the self-reported instruments but also by using the observations and interviews. That is, the observational coding schemes and interviews may also be used to confirm the reliability and validity of the results of future studies. Moreover, as a member of the family, child or children may also be interviewed to examine the relations from their viewpoints.

In the current study, path analysis was conducted to test the conceptual model and to explore the associations between study variables via observed variables because of the methodological concerns regarding the ratio of the number of cases in the study and estimated parameters. The future studies can test the model based on larger samples ($n > 2000$) and explore the associations via latent variables with SEM, which leads to fewer measurement errors.

Lastly, a correlational research design was adopted, indicating that the current results could not be interpreted in a causal manner. Thus, experimental studies in which evidence regarding the cause-effect relationships among research variables can be provided in the most robust way (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel et al., 2012) should be conducted to see whether, for example, coparenting support significantly affect the school-based involvement or whether self-efficacy significantly affects home-based involvement. Longitudinal studies are also needed to explore whether the relationships between the exogenous, mediator, and endogenous variables significantly change or remain stable over one or more years

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Aile Katılımı ve Ortak Ebeveynlik Araştırması Anne Formu

Değerli Anneler,

Doktora tez çalışması olarak yürütülen bu araştırmanın temel amacı, sizlerin **aile katılımı ve ortak ebeveynlik** durumlarınız arasındaki ilişkilerin incelenmesidir. Sizlerin katkılarınızla söz konusu konularda önemli sonuçlar elde edilmesi beklenmektedir. Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalı olup, görüşleriniz yalnızca bu çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda kullanılacak ve yanıtlarınız gizli tutulacaktır. Ölçme aracında yer alan soruların doğru ya da yanlış yanıtları yoktur. Bu nedenle, ifadelere ilişkin olarak doğru ve/veya sosyal açıdan en uygun cevap arayışında OLMAMANIZ, görüşlerinizi sizi en iyi yansıtacak şekilde ve içtenlikle belirtmeniz, işaretlenmemiş boş kutucuk bırakmamanız son derece ÖNEMLİDİR. Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederim.

Arş. Gör. Mustafa Çetin / Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Antalya / E-posta: cetinmustafacetin@gmail.com, Tel: (0242) 227 44 00 - 4641
Danışman: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi H. Özlen Demircan

Yaşınız: 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 ○ ….

Çocuk sayısı: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Mesleğiniz: ……

Örnek Kodlama ● ✍

En son mezun olduğunuz eğitim/öğretim kurumu:

- ○ İlkokul
- ○ Ortaokul
- ○ Lise
- ○ Lisans
- ○ Yüksek Lisans
- ○ Doktora

Ailenizin toplam aylık geliri nedir?

- ○ 2000 TL ve altı
- ○ 2001-3000 TL
- ○ 3001-4000 TL
- ○ 4001-6000 TL
- ○ 6001-8000 TL
- ○ 8001-10.000 TL
- ○ 10.001 - 12.000 TL
- ○ 12.001 - 15.000 TL
- ○ 15.001 - 20.000 TL
- ○ 20.001 TL ve üzeri

Okul öncesi eğitim kurumuna devam eden çocuğunuzun yaşı: 3 4 5 6 **» Cinsiyeti** Kız K E Erkek

(Bu durumda birden fazla çocuğunuz varsa anketi tek bir çocuğunuzu düşünerek yanıtlayınız.)

Aile Katılımı İnanç ve Algıları Ölçeği

1. ANNE-BABALARIN AİLE KATILIMI İLE İLGİLİ GÜDÜSEL İNANÇLARI *(Çocuk Eğitiminde Aile Katılımı İçin Anne-Baba Rolü Oluşumu Ölçeği-* *Aile Katılımı için Anne-Baba Rolünün Çocuğun Eğitiminde Etkinlik Derecesi İnançları Ölçeği)* Lütfen, ÇOCUĞUNUZUN şu anki okul yaşantısını göz önünde bulundurarak aşağıdaki her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde KATILDIĞINIZI ya da KATILMADIĞINIZI belirtiniz. Aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmama derecenizi ifadelerin sağında yer alan puanları dikkate alarak ve karşılarında bulunan kutucuklardan yalnızca bir tanesini ● şeklinde işaretleyerek belirtiniz.	**Kesinlikle katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Kararsızım**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle katılıyorum**
1.Okulda gönüllü olarak görev almanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Çocuğumun öğretmeniyle düzenli olarak iletişim kurmanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Çocuğuma verilen ev etkinliklerine (ev ödevlerine) yardımcı olmanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Okulun ihtiyaç duyduğu şeylere sahip olup olmadığını bilmenin benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Öğretmen tarafından alınan kararları desteklemenin benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Okulda olup bitenler hakkında bilgi sahibi olmanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Zor ev etkinliklerini (ev ödevlerini) çocuğuma açıklamanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Çocuğumun okulundaki diğer velilerle görüşmenin benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Okulu daha iyi bir hale getirmenin benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Okulda geçirdiği gün hakkında çocuğumla konuşmanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

(Çocuğun Okuldaki Başarısına Yardımcı Olmak İçin Anne-Baba Özyeterlik Ölçeği) Lütfen, **ÇOCUĞUNUZUN şu anki** okul yaşantısını göz önünde bulundurarak aşağıdaki her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde KATILDIĞINIZI ya da KATILMADIĞINIZI belirtiniz. Aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmama derecenizi ifadelerin sağında yer alan puanları dikkate alarak ve karşılarında bulunan kutucuklardan yalnızca bir tanesini ● şeklinde işaretleyerek belirtiniz.	**Kesinlikle katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Kararsızım**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle katılıyorum**
1. Çocuğuma okulda başarılı olması için nasıl yardım edebileceğimi biliyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. Çocuğumla etkili iletişim kurabildiğimden **emin değilim.**	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. Okulda başarılı olabilmesi için çocuğuma nasıl yardımcı olacağımı **bilmiyorum.**	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. Kendimi çocuğumun öğrenmesine yardımcı olma çabalarımda başarılı hissediyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. Çocuğumun okuldaki başarısı üzerinde benden çok diğer çocukların etkisi var.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. Öğrenme sürecinde çocuğuma nasıl yardımcı olacağımı **bilmiyorum.**	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. Çocuğumun okul performansında önemli bir fark yaratıyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Aile Katılım Ölçeği Aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmama derecenizi ifadelerin sağında yer alan puanları dikkate alarak ve karşılarında bulunan kutucuklardan yalnızca bir tanesini ● işaretleyerek belirtiniz.	**Hiçbir zaman**	**Nadiren**	**Bazen**	**Sık sık**	**Her zaman**
1. Okul çalışmalarına gönüllü olarak katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. Diğer çocukların velileri ile okul dışında da görüşürüm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. Okul gezilerine çocuğum ile birlikte katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. Okula maddi katkı saklayacak etkinliklere katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. Okulun düzenlediği sosyal etkinliklere katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. Sınıf-içi etkinliklere katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. Veli toplantılarına katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. Çocuğuma evde öğrenme materyalleri hazırlarım. (TV, video, bilgisayar, kitap, VCD gibi)	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. Çocuğuma hikâyeler okurum ya da anlatırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10.Çocuğumu hayvanat bahçesi, sinema, tiyatro, müze gibi etkinliklere götürürüm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11.Çocuğumu öğrenme yaşantıları konusunda teşvik ederim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12.Çocuğumun yaratıcılığını geliştirmek için onunla çeşitli etkinlikler yaparım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13.Çocuğumun başarıları ile ilgili olarak öğretmeni ile konuşurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14.Çocuğumun günlük aktiviteleri konusunda öğretmeni ile konuşurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15.Çocuğumun okul aktiviteleri ile ilgili olarak öğretmeni ile haberleşirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16.Çocuğumun öğretmeni ile kişisel ya da ailevi konuları paylaşırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17.Evde yapılacak etkinlikler konusunda öğretmen ile konuşurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18.Çocuğumu öğretmeninin yanında çalışmalarından dolayı desteklerim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. Çocuğumun arkadaş ilişkileri konusunda öğretmeni ile konuşurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. Problemlerle ilgili konuşmak ve bilgi edinmek için okul yönetimi ile görüşürüm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. Sınıf kuralları konusunda çocuğumun öğretmeni ile konuşurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkileri Ölçeği

Lütfen, her bir madde için **eşiniz ve sizin** anne-baba olarak beraber çalışmanızı en iyi betimleyen seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Lütfen, kutucuklardan yalnızca bir tanesini ● şeklinde işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

Bizim için hiç doğru değil		**Bizim için biraz doğru**		**Bizim için kısmen doğru**		**Bizim için tamamen doğru**
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. Eşimin iyi bir baba olduğuna inanırım.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Eşimle olan ilişkim, çocuğumuz olmadan önceki zamanlara kıyasla daha güçlüdür.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Eşim, anne-babalık ile ilgili konularda bana görüşümü sorar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Eşim, çocuğumuza yoğun ilgi gösterir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Eşim çocuğumuzla oynamayı sever, ama daha sonra dağınıklığı bana bırakır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Çocuğumuz için, eşimle ben aynı hedeflere sahibiz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Eşim, sorumluluk sahibi bir baba olmak yerine bireysel işlerini yapmak ister.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Çocuğumla baş başayken, eşimin de bizimle olduğu zamanlardan daha iyi vakit geçiririz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Çocuğumuzu nasıl yetiştireceğimiz konusunda eşimle farklı fikirlerimiz var.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Eşim bana iyi bir anne olduğumu söyler veya fark ettirir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Çocuğumuzun yemek, uyku ve diğer günlük işleriyle ilgili eşimle farklı düşüncelere sahibiz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Eşim, bazen anneliğimle ilgili hoş olmayan şakalar ya da alaycı yorumlar yapar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Eşim, annelik becerilerime güvenmez.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Eşim, çocuğumuzun duygularına ve ihtiyaçlarına duyarlıdır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Çocuğumuzun davranışları konusunda eşimle farklı ölçütlerimiz/kriterlerimiz var.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Eşim, çocuğumuzun bakımında benden daha iyi olduğunu göstermeye çalışır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Eşimi çocuğumuzla oynarken gördüğümde kendimi ona yakın hissederim.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Eşim, çocuğumuza karşı çok sabırlıdır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Çocuğumuzun ihtiyaçlarını karşılamanın en iyi yolunu bulmak için sık sık fikir alışverişinde bulunuruz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Eşim, anne-babalıkla ilgili işlerde adil bir biçimde üzerine düşeni yapmaz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Üçümüzün birlikte olduğu bazı zamanlarda, eşim çocuğumuzun dikkatini çekmek için benimle yarışır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Eşim, beni kötü bir anne gibi göstermeye çalışır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Eşim, çocuğumuzun bakımına yardımcı olmak için kişisel fedakarlıklar yapmaya isteklidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Anne-babalık deneyimlerimiz sayesinde birlikte gelişip olgunlaşıyoruz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Eşim, iyi bir anne olmada gösterdiğim çabayı takdir eder.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Bir anne olarak ne yapacağımı bilemediğimde, eşim bana ihtiyacım olan fazladan desteği sağlar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Eşim, çocuğumuz için olabilecek en iyi annenin ben olduğumu bana hissettirir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Anne-baba olmanın yarattığı stres, eşimle uzaklaşmamıza neden oldu.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Eşim, çocuğumuz tarafından rahatsız edilmekten hoşlanmaz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Anne-babalık, geleceğe odaklanmamızı sağladı.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Bu sorular, sizin ve eşinizin çocuğunuzla fiziksel olarak birlikte bulunduğu zamanlarda (örneğin, aynı odada, arabada, gezilerde) yaptığınız şeyleri betimlemenizi istemektedir.

Lütfen, yalnızca üçünüzün birlikte olduğu zamanları (bu haftada sadece birkaç saat olsa bile) sayınız.

Hiç		**Bazen (Haftada bir ya da iki kez)**		**Sık sık (Günde bir kez)**		**Çok sık (Haftada pek çok kez)**
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Sıradan bir haftada, üçünüz birlikteyken ne sıklıkla …

31. Kendinizi eşinizle hafif gergin ya da alaycı bir iletişim içinde bulursunuz?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Çocuğunuz yanınızdayken, eşinizle çocuğunuz hakkında tartışırsınız?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. Çocuğunuz yanınızdayken, çocuğunuzla ilgili olmayan, evliliğinizle ilgili konuları tartışırsınız?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. Çocuğunuzun önünde, biriniz ya da ikiniz, birbirinize acımasız ya da kırıcı şeyler söylersiniz?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
eği mesafede birbirinize bağırırsınız?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Anket bitmiştir, katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Aile Katılımı ve Ortak Ebeveynlik Araştırması Baba Formu

Değerli Babalar,

Doktora tez çalışması olarak yürütülen bu araştırmanın temel amacı, sizlerin **aile katılımı ve ortak ebeveynlik** durumlarınız arasındaki ilişkilerin incelenmesidir. Sizlerin katkılarınızla söz konusu konularda önemli sonuçlar elde edilmesi beklenmektedir. Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalı olup, görüşleriniz yalnızca bu çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda kullanılacak ve yanıtlarınız gizli tutulacaktır. Ölçme aracında yer alan soruların doğru ya da yanlış yanıtları yoktur. Bu nedenle, ifadelere ilişkin olarak doğru ve/veya sosyal açıdan en uygun cevap arayışında OLMAMANIZ, görüşlerinizi sizi en iyi yansıtacak şekilde ve içtenlikle belirtmeniz, işaretlenmemiş boş kutucuk bırakmamanız son derece ÖNEMLİDİR. Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederim.

Arş. Gör. Mustafa Çetin / Akdeniz Üniversitesi, Antalya / E-posta: cetinmustafacetin@gmail.com, Tel: (0242) 227 44 00 - 4641
Danışman: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi H. Özlen Demircan

Yaşınız: 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 ○ ....

Çocuk sayısı: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Mesleğiniz: .....

Örnek Kodlama ● ✍

En son mezun olduğunuz eğitim/öğretim kurumu:

- ○ İlkokul
- ○ Ortaokul
- ○ Lise
- ○ Lisans
- ○ Yüksek Lisans
- ○ Doktora

Ailenizin toplam aylık geliri nedir?

- ○ 2000 TL ve altı
- ○ 2001-3000 TL
- ○ 3001-4000 TL
- ○ 4001-6000 TL
- ○ 6001-8000 TL
- ○ 8001-10.000 TL
- ○ 10.001 - 12.000 TL
- ○ 12.001 - 15.000 TL
- ○ 15.001 - 20.000 TL
- ○ 20.001 TL ve üzeri

Okul öncesi eğitim kurumuna devam eden çocuğunuzun yaşı: 3 4 5 6 **» Cinsiyeti** Kız K E Erkek

(Bu durumda birden fazla çocuğunuz varsa anketi tek bir çocuğunuzu düşünerek yanıtlayınız.)

S

Aile Katılımı İnanç ve Algıları Ölçeği

1. ANNE-BABALARIN AİLE KATILIMI İLE İLGİLİ GÜDÜSEL İNANÇLARI

(Çocuk Eğitiminde Aile Katılımı İçin Anne-Baba Rolü Oluşumu Ölçeği-
Aile Katılımı için Anne-Baba Rolünün Çocuğun Eğitiminde Etkinlik Derecesi İnançları Ölçeği)

Lütfen, ÇOCUĞUNUZUN şu anki okul yaşantısını göz önünde bulundurarak aşağıdaki her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde KATILDIĞINIZI ya da KATILMADIĞINIZI belirtiniz. Aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmama derecenizi ifadelerin sağında yer alan puanları dikkate alarak ve karşılarında bulunan kutucuklardan yalnızca bir tanesini ● şeklinde işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1.Okulda gönüllü olarak görev almanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Çocuğumun öğretmeniyle düzenli olarak iletişim kurmanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Çocuğuma verilen ev etkinliklerine (ev ödevlerine) yardımcı olmanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Okulun ihtiyaç duyduğu şeylere sahip olup olmadığını bilmenin benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Öğretmen tarafından alınan kararları desteklemenin benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Okulda olup bitenler hakkında bilgi sahibi olmanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Zor ev etkinliklerini (ev ödevlerini) çocuğuma açıklamanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Çocuğumun okulundaki diğer velilerle görüşmenin benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Okulu daha iyi bir hale getirmenin benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Okulda geçirdiği gün hakkında çocuğumla konuşmanın benim sorumluluğum olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

(Çocuğun Okuldaki Başarısına Yardımcı Olmak İçin Anne-Baba Özyeterlik Ölçeği) Lütfen, **ÇOCUĞUNUZUN şu anki** okul yaşantısını göz önünde bulundurarak aşağıdaki her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde KATILDIĞINIZI ya da KATILMADIĞINIZI belirtiniz. Aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmama derecenizi ifadelerin sağında yer alan puanları dikkate alarak ve karşılarında bulunan kutucuklardan yalnızca bir tanesini ● şeklinde işaretleyerek belirtiniz.	**Kesinlikle katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Kararsızım**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle katılıyorum**
1. Çocuğuma okulda başarılı olması için nasıl yardım edebileceğimi biliyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. Çocuğumla etkili iletişim kurabildiğimden **emin değilim.**	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. Okulda başarılı olabilmesi için çocuğuma nasıl yardımcı olacağımı **bilmiyorum.**	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. Kendimi çocuğumun öğrenmesine yardımcı olma çabalarımda başarılı hissediyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. Çocuğumun okuldaki başarısı üzerinde benden çok diğer çocukların etkisi var.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. Öğrenme sürecinde çocuğuma nasıl yardımcı olacağımı **bilmiyorum.**	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. Çocuğumun okul performansında önemli bir fark yaratıyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Aile Katılım Ölçeği Aşağıdaki ifadelere katılıp katılmama derecenizi ifadelerin sağında yer alan puanları dikkate alarak ve karşılarında bulunan kutucuklardan yalnızca bir tanesini ● işaretleyerek belirtiniz.	**Hiçbir zaman**	**Nadiren**	**Bazen**	**Sık sık**	**Her zaman**
1. Okul çalışmalarına gönüllü olarak katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. Diğer çocukların velileri ile okul dışında da görüşürüm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. Okul gezilerine çocuğum ile birlikte katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. Okula maddi katkı saklayacak etkinliklere katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. Okulun düzenlediği sosyal etkinliklere katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. Sınıf-içi etkinliklere katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. Veli toplantılarına katılırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. Çocuğuma evde öğrenme materyalleri hazırlarım. (TV, video, bilgisayar, kitap, VCD gibi)	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. Çocuğuma hikâyeler okurum ya da anlatırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10.Çocuğumu hayvanat bahçesi, sinema, tiyatro, müze gibi etkinliklere götürürüm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11.Çocuğumu öğrenme yaşantıları konusunda teşvik ederim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12.Çocuğumun yaratıcılığını geliştirmek için onunla çeşitli etkinlikler yaparım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13.Çocuğumun başarıları ile ilgili olarak öğretmeni ile konuşurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14.Çocuğumun günlük aktiviteleri konusunda öğretmeni ile konuşurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15.Çocuğumun okul aktiviteleri ile ilgili olarak öğretmeni ile haberleşirim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16.Çocuğumun öğretmeni ile kişisel ya da ailevi konuları paylaşırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17.Evde yapılacak etkinlikler konusunda öğretmen ile konuşurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18.Çocuğumu öğretmeninin yanında çalışmalarından dolayı desteklerim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. Çocuğumun arkadaş ilişkileri konusunda öğretmeni ile konuşurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. Problemlerle ilgili konuşmak ve bilgi edinmek için okul yönetimi ile görüşürüm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. Sınıf kuralları konusunda çocuğumun öğretmeni ile konuşurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkileri Ölçeği

Lütfen, her bir madde için **eşiniz ve sizin** anne-baba olarak beraber çalışmanızı en iyi betimleyen seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Lütfen, kutucuklardan yalnızca bir tanesini ● şeklinde işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

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0	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. Eşimin iyi bir anne olduğuna inanırım.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Eşimle olan ilişkim, çocuğumuz olmadan önceki zamanlara kıyasla daha güçlüdür.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Eşim, anne-babalık ile ilgili konularda bana görüşümü sorar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Eşim, çocuğumuza yoğun ilgi gösterir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Eşim çocuğumuzla oynamayı sever, ama daha sonra dağınıklığı bana bırakır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Çocuğumuz için, eşimle ben aynı hedeflere sahibiz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Eşim, sorumluluk sahibi bir anne olmak yerine bireysel işlerini yapmak ister.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Çocuğumla baş başayken, eşimin de bizimle olduğu zamanlardan daha iyi vakit geçiririz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Çocuğumuzu nasıl yetiştireceğimiz konusunda eşimle farklı fikirlerimiz var.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
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12. Eşim, bazen babalığımla ilgili hoş olmayan şakalar ya da alaycı yorumlar yapar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Eşim, babalık becerilerime güvenmez.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
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19. Çocuğumuzun ihtiyaçlarını karşılamanın en iyi yolunu bulmak için sık sık fikir alışverişinde bulunuruz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
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21. Üçümüzün birlikte olduğu bazı zamanlarda, eşim çocuğumuzun dikkatini çekmek için benimle yarışır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
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24. Anne-babalık deneyimlerimiz sayesinde birlikte gelişip olgunlaşıyoruz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Eşim, iyi bir baba olmada gösterdiğim çabayı takdir eder.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Bir baba olarak ne yapacağımı bilemediğimde, eşim bana ihtiyacım olan fazladan desteği sağlar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
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29. Eşim, çocuğumuz tarafından rahatsız edilmekten hoşlanmaz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Anne-babalık, geleceğe odaklanmamızı sağladı.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Bu sorular, sizin ve eşinizin çocuğunuzla fiziksel olarak birlikte bulunduğu zamanlarda (örneğin, aynı odada, arabada, gezilerde) yaptığınız şeyleri betimlemenizi istemektedir.

Lütfen, yalnızca üçünüzün birlikte olduğu zamanları (bu haftada sadece birkaç saat olsa bile) sayınız.

Hiç		**Bazen (Haftada bir ya da iki kez)**		**Sık sık (Günde bir kez)**		**Çok sık (Haftada pek çok kez)**
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Sıradan bir haftada, üçünüz birlikteyken ne sıklıkla …

31. Kendinizi eşinizle hafif gergin ya da alaycı bir iletişim içinde bulursunuz?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Çocuğunuz yanınızdayken, eşinizle çocuğunuz hakkında tartışırsınız?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. Çocuğunuz yanınızdayken, çocuğunuzla ilgili olmayan, evliliğinizle ilgili konuları tartışırsınız?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. Çocuğunuzun önünde, biriniz ya da ikiniz, birbirinize acımasız ya da kırıcı şeyler söylersiniz?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.Çocuğun duyabileceği mesafede birbirinize bağırırsınız?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Anket bitmiştir, katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

APPENDIX B: ORIGINAL FORM OF THE COPARENTING RELATIONSHIP SCALE

(Feinberg et al., 2012, pp. 20-21)

For each item, select the response that best describes the way you and your partner work together as parents:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Not true of us		A little bit true of us		Somewhat true of us		Very true of us

1 I believe my partner is a good parent.
2 My relationship with my partner is stronger now than before we had a child.
3 My partner asks my opinion on issues related to parenting.
4 My partner pays a great deal of attention to our child.
5 My partner likes to play with our child and then leave dirty work to me. **(R)**
6 My partner and I have the same goals for our child.
7 My partner still wants to do his or her own thing instead of being a responsible parent. **(R)**
8 It is easier and more fun to play with the child alone than it is when my partner is present too.
9 My partner and I have different ideas about how to raise our child. **(R)**
10 My partner tells me I am doing a good job or otherwise lets me know I am being a good parent.
11 My partner and I have different ideas regarding our child's eating, sleeping, and other routines. **(R)**
12 My partner sometimes makes jokes or sarcastic comments about the way I am as a parent.
13 My partner does not trust my abilities as a parent.
14 My partner is sensitive to our child's feelings and needs.
15 My partner and I have different standards for our child's behavior. **(R)**
16 My partner tries to show that she or he is better than me at caring for our child.
17 I feel close to my partner when I see him or her play with our child.
18 My partner has a lot of patience with our child.
19 We often discuss the best way to meet our child's needs.
20 My partner does not carry his or her fair share of the parenting work. **(R)**
21 When all three of us are together, my partner sometimes competes with me for our child's attention.
22 My partner undermines my parenting.
23 My partner is willing to make personal sacrifices to help take care of our child.
24 We are growing and maturing together through experiences as parents.
25 My partner appreciates how hard I work at being a good parent.
26 When I'm at my wits end as a parent, partner gives me extra support I need.
27 My partner makes me feel like I'm best possible parent for our child.
28 The stress of parenthood has caused my partner and me to grow apart. **(R)**
29 My partner doesn't like to be bothered by our child. **(R)**
30 Parenting has given us a focus for the future.

These questions ask you to describe things you do when both you and your partner are physically present together with your child (i.e., in the same room, in the car, on outings).

Count only times when all three of you are actually within the company of one another (even if this is just a few hours per week).

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never		Sometimes (once or twice a week)		Often (once a day)		Very Often (several times a day)

How often in a **typical week**, **when all 3 of you are together**, do you:

31 Find yourself in a mildly tense or sarcastic interchange with your partner?
32 Argue with your partner about your child, in the child's presence?
33 Argue about your relationship or marital issues unrelated to your child, in the child's presence?
34 One or both of you say cruel or hurtful things to each other in front of the child?
35 Yell at each other within earshot of the child?

(R) = Reverse-score the item

Scale creation:
Coparenting agreement = Items 6, 9, 11, and 15
Coparenting closeness = Items 2, 17, 24, 28, and 30
Exposure to conflict = Items 31–35
Coparenting support = Items 3, 10, 19, 25, 26, and 27
Coparenting undermining = Items 8, 12, 13, 16, 21, and 22
Endorse partner parenting = Items 1, 4, 7, 14, 18, 23, and 29
Division of labor = Items 5 and 20

Brief Measure of Coparenting:
Items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 9, 16, 20, 22, 24, 25, 27, 33, and 34

APPENDIX C: APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE AND PROVINCIAL DIRECTORATE OF NATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE PILOT STUDY

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

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ÇANKAYA ANKARA/TURKEY
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ueam@metu.edu.tr

Sayı: 28620816/414

25 Haziran 2018

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Dr. Öğretim Üyesi Hasibe Özlen DEMİRCAN

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız doktora öğrencisi Mustafa ÇETİN'in **"Aile Katılımı ve Aile Katılımı Nedenleri Arasındaki İlişkileri: Ortak Ebeveynlik ve Ortak Çocuk Bakımının Rolleri"** başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2018-EGT-106** protokol numarası ile **17.09.2018 - 30.09.2019** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN
Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL
Üye

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR
Üye

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI
Üye

Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK
Üye

Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Pınar KAYGAN
Üye

T.C.
ANTALYA VALİLİĞİ
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 98057890-20-E.22177696 20.11.2018
Konu : Anket Uygulaması

İL MİLLİ EĞİTİM MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE
ANTALYA

Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesi Temel Eğitim Anabilim Dalı Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Doktora Programı Öğrencisi Mustafa ÇETİN'in **"Aile Katılımı ve Aile Katılım Nedenleri Arasındaki İlişkileri: Ortak Ebeveynlik ve Ortak Çocuk Bakımının Rolleri"** adlı araştırmasını, Müdürlüğümüze bağlı ekli listede belirtilen okullarda uygulama isteği ile ilgili bila tarih ve 49 sayılı yazısı, İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü Araştırma Değerlendirme ve İnceleme komisyonumuz tarafından, 20/11/2018 tarihinde incelenerek **"Milli Eğitim Bakanlığına Bağlı Okul ve Kurumlarda Yapılacak Araştırma, Yarışma ve Sosyal Etkinlik İzinlerine Yönelik İzin ve Uygulama Genelgesi"** esaslarına uygun olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Komisyonumuzca **"Aile Katılımı ve Aile Katılım Nedenleri Arasındaki İlişkileri: Ortak Ebeveynlik ve Ortak Çocuk Bakımının Rolleri"** isimli araştırmasını, Müdürlüğümüze bağlı ekli listede belirtilen okullarda görev yapmakta olan öğretmenler ve eğitim gören öğrencilerin ebeveynlerine, bahse konu Genelge ve çalışma takvimi doğrultusunda, eğitim-öğretim faaliyetlerini aksatmaksızın yapılması,

Söz konusu araştırmanın bitimine müteakip; sonuç raporunun bir örneğinin CD ortamında Müdürlüğümüz Ar-Ge bürosuna gönderilmesi kaydıyla uygulanması, Komisyonca uygun görülmüştür.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görüldüğü takdirde, Valilik Makamının 23/02/2015 tarih ve 5347 sayılı yetki devrine göre olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Mehmet KARAKAŞ
Müdür a.
Müdür Yardımcısı

OLUR
20.11.2018

Yüksel ARSLAN
Vali a.
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürü

Antalya İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü
Soğuksu Mah. Hamidiye Cad. MERKEZ/ANTALYA
E-posta: projeler07@meb.gov.tr

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Tel: (0 242) 238 60 00
Faks: (0 242) 238 61 11

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APPENDIX D: REVISIONS OF ITEMS CONSIDERED AS PROBLEMATIC

The revisions regarding the items considered as problematic were made in accordance with the suggestions. The revised items were presented below.

CP8

Original: Çocuğumla yalnızken oynamak, eşimin de yanımızda olduğu zamanlarda oynamaktan daha kolay ve eğlencelidir.

Revised: Çocuğumla baş başayken, eşimin de bizimle olduğu zamanlardan daha iyi vakit geçiririz.

CP21

Original: Üçümüzün birlikte olduğu zamanlarda, eşim, çocuğumuzun dikkatini çekmek için bazen benimle yarışır.

Revised: Üçümüzün birlikte olduğu bazı zamanlarda, eşim çocuğumuzun dikkatini çekmek için benimle yarışır.

CP24

Original: Anne-baba olarak deneyimler yoluyla birlikte gelişip olgunlaşıyoruz.

Revised: Anne babalık deneyimlerimiz sayesinde birlikte gelişip olgunlaşıyoruz.

CP28

Original: Anne-babalık stresi, eşimle uzaklaşmamıza neden oldu. **R**

Revised: Anne-baba olmanın yarattığı stres, eşimle uzaklaşmamıza neden oldu. **R**

APPENDIX E: FINAL FORM OF TURKISH VERSION OF THE COPARENTING RELATIONSHIP SCALE

Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkileri Ölçeği

Lütfen, her bir madde için **eşiniz ve sizin** anne-baba olarak beraber çalışmanızı en iyi betimleyen seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Lütfen, kutucuklardan yalnızca bir tanesini ● şeklinde işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

Bizim için hiç doğru değil		**Bizim için biraz doğru**		**Bizim için kısmen doğru**		**Bizim için tamamen doğru**
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. Eşimin iyi bir anne/baba olduğuna inanırım.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Eşim, anne/babalık ile ilgili konularda bana görüşümü sorar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Eşim, çocuğumuza yoğun ilgi gösterir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Eşim çocuğumuzla oynamayı sever, ama daha sonra dağınıklığı bana bırakır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Çocuğumuzu nasıl yetiştireceğimiz konusunda eşimle farklı fikirlerimiz var.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Eşim bana iyi bir anne/baba olduğumu söyler veya fark ettirir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Çocuğumuzun yemek, uyku ve diğer günlük işleriyle ilgili eşimle farklı düşüncelere sahibiz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Eşim, bazen anneliğimle/babalığımla ilgili hoş olmayan şakalar ya da alaycı yorumlar yapar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Eşim, annelik/babalık becerilerime güvenmez.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Eşim, çocuğumuzun duygularına ve ihtiyaçlarına duyarlıdır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Çocuğumuzun davranışları konusunda eşimle farklı ölçütlerimiz/kriterlerimiz var.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Eşim, çocuğumuzun bakımında benden daha iyi olduğunu göstermeye çalışır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Eşim, çocuğumuza karşı çok sabırlıdır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Eşim, anne-babalıkla ilgili işlerde adil bir biçimde üzerine düşeni yapmaz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Üçümüzün birlikte olduğu bazı zamanlarda, eşim çocuğumuzun dikkatini çekmek için benimle yarışır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Eşim, beni kötü bir anne/baba gibi göstermeye çalışır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Eşim, çocuğumuzun bakımına yardımcı olmak için kişisel fedakarlıklar yapmaya isteklidir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Eşim, iyi bir anne/baba olmada gösterdiğim çabayı takdir eder.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Bir anne olarak ne yapacağımı bilemediğimde, eşim bana ihtiyacım olan fazladan desteği sağlar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Eşim, çocuğumuz için olabilecek en iyi annenin/babanın ben olduğumu bana hissettirir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Bu sorular, sizin ve eşinizin çocuğunuzla fiziksel olarak birlikte bulunduğu zamanlarda (örneğin, aynı odada, arabada, gezilerde) yaptığınız şeyleri betimlemenizi istemektedir.

Lütfen, yalnızca üçünüzün birlikte olduğu zamanları (bu haftada sadece birkaç saat olsa bile) sayınız.

Hiç		**Bazen (Haftada bir ya da iki kez)**		**Sık sık (Günde bir kez)**		**Çok sık (Haftada pek çok kez)**
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Sıradan bir haftada, üçünüz birlikteyken ne sıklıkla …

	Anne-babalık,						
21. Kendinizi eşinizle hafif gergin ya da alaycı bir iletişim içinde bulursunuz?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Çocuğunuz yanınızdayken, eşinizle çocuğunuz hakkında tartışırsınız?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Çocuğunuz yanınızdayken, çocuğunuzla ilgili olmayan, evliliğinizle ilgili konuları tartışırsınız?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Çocuğunuzun önünde, biriniz ya da ikiniz, birbirinize acımasız ya da kırıcı şeyler söylersiniz?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Çocuğun duyabileceği mesafede birbirinize bağırırsınız?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Factor structure

Coparenting agreement = Items 5, 7, and 11
Coparenting support = Items 2, 6, 18, 19, and 20
Coparenting undermining = Items 8, 9, 12, 15, and 16
Endorsement of partner's parenting = Items 1, 3, 10, 13, and17
Exposure to conflict = Items 21–25
Division of labor = Items 4 and 14

APPENDIX F: CONSENT FORM

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Bu çalışma, Araştırma Görevlisi Mustafa Çetin tarafından, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Hasibe Özlen Demircan danışmanlığında, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'na bağlı devlet ve özel okul öncesi eğitim kurumlarında "Anne-Babaların Aile Katılımı Motivasyonları ve Aile Katılımı Seviyeleri: Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkilerinin Rolü" isimli tez kapsamında anne ve babaların ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileri, aile katılım durumları ve aile katılımı nedenleri arasındaki ilişkileri ortaya koymak için planlanmıştır. Çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Yanıtlarınınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayınlarda kullanılacaktır.

Çocuğun eğitiminde ve gelişimde en iyisini isteyen ve en iyisini gerçekleştirmeyi kendine görev edinmiş siz değerli anne ve babalarımıza şimdiden çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden sonsuz teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Akdeniz Üniversitesi Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Araştırma Görevlisi Mustafa Çetin (Ofis No: 428; Tel: (0242) 227 44 00 - 4641; E-posta: cetinmustaafcetin@gmail.com) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri gönderiniz).

İsim Soyisim	Tarih	İmza
	----/----/-----	

Lütfen, anket ve formu zarfın içine koyunuz ve zarfı kapatıp geri gönderiniz.

APPENDIX G: APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE AND PROVINCIAL DIRECTORATE OF NATIONAL EDUCATION FOR THE MAIN STUDY

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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www.ueam.metu.edu.tr

Sayı: 28620816 / 687

03 OCAK 2019

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Dr. Öğretim Üyesi Hasibe Özlen DEMİRCAN

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız Mustafa ÇETİN'in **"Anne-Babaların Aile Katılımı Motivasyonları ve Aile Katılımı Seviyeleri: Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkilerinin Rolü"** başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2018-EGT-106** protokol numarası ile araştırma yapması onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımla bilgilerinize sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Tülin GENÇÖZ
Başkan

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL
Üye

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR
Üye

Prof.Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI (4.)
Üye

Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK
Üye

Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT
Üye

T.C.
ANTALYA VALİLİĞİ
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 98057890-20-E.1756262 24.01.2019
Konu : Anket Uygulaması

İL MİLLİ EĞİTİM MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE
ANTALYA

Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesi Temel Eğitim Anabilim Dalı Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Doktora Programı Öğrencisi Mustafa ÇETİN'in **"Anne-Babaların Aile Katılımı Motivasyonları ve Aile Katılımı Seviyeleri: Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkilerinin Rolü"** adlı araştırmasını, Müdürlüğümüze bağlı ekli listede belirtilen okullarda uygulama isteği ile ilgili 17/01/2019 tarih ve 80 sayılı yazısı, İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü Araştırma Değerlendirme ve İnceleme komisyonumuz tarafından, 24/01/2019 tarihinde incelenerek **"Milli Eğitim Bakanlığına Bağlı Okul ve Kurumlarda Yapılacak Araştırma, Yarışma ve Sosyal Etkinlik İzinlerine Yönelik İzin ve Uygulama Genelgesi"** esaslarına uygun olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Komisyonumuzca **"Anne-Babaların Aile Katılımı Motivasyonları ve Aile Katılımı Seviyeleri: Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkilerinin Rolü"** isimli araştırmasını, Müdürlüğümüze bağlı ekli listede belirtilen okullarda eğitim gören öğrencilerin ebeveynlerine, bahse konu Genelge ve çalışma takvimi doğrultusunda, eğitim-öğretim faaliyetlerini aksatmaksızın yapılması,

Söz konusu araştırmanın bitimine müteakip; sonuç raporunun bir örneğinin CD ortamında Müdürlüğümüz Ar-Ge bürosuna gönderilmesi kaydıyla uygulanması, Komisyonca uygun görülmüştür.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görüldüğü takdirde, Valilik Makamının 02/01/2019 tarih ve 149 sayılı yetki devrine göre olurlarınıza arz ederim. .

Mehmet GÜRCAN
Müdür a.
Müdür Yardımcısı

OLUR
24.01.2019

Mehmet KARAKAŞ
Vali a.
İl Milli Eğitim Müdür V.

Antalya İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü
Soğuksu Mah. Hamidiye Cad. MERKEZ/ANTALYA
E-posta: projeler07@meb.gov.tr

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Tel: (0 242) 238 60 00
Faks: (0 242) 238 61 11

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APPENDIX H: DATA COLLECTION GUIDELINES FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Uygulama Yönergesi

Sayın öğretmenimiz,

Araştırmaya verdiğiniz destek için sizlere sonsuz teşekkür ederiz. Araştırmanın uygulaması ile ilgili yönerge, maddeler halinde aşağıda verilmiştir. Herhangi bir sorunuz olursa lütfen aşağıdaki iletişim bilgilerinden bize ulaşınız.

1-Velilere gönderilecek anketler zarfların içindedir. Zarfın içinde Anne Formu veya Baba formu ve bir adet gönüllü katılım formu vardır. Bazı çocuklara anne formu bazı çocuklara baba formu gönderilecektir. Hangi çocuğa anne hangi çocuğa baba formunun gideceğine siz karar verebilir ya da rastlantısal olarak formları gönderebilirsiniz.

2-Baba formlarının sayısı anne formlarından fazladır. Form sayılarındaki bu farklık, dönüş yüzdesini artırmak için bilinçli bir biçimde yapılmıştır.

4- Lütfen, bütün formları anne ya da babalara ulaştırmaya çalışınız.

4-Lütfen, **her bir çocuğa bir adet zarf veriniz.**

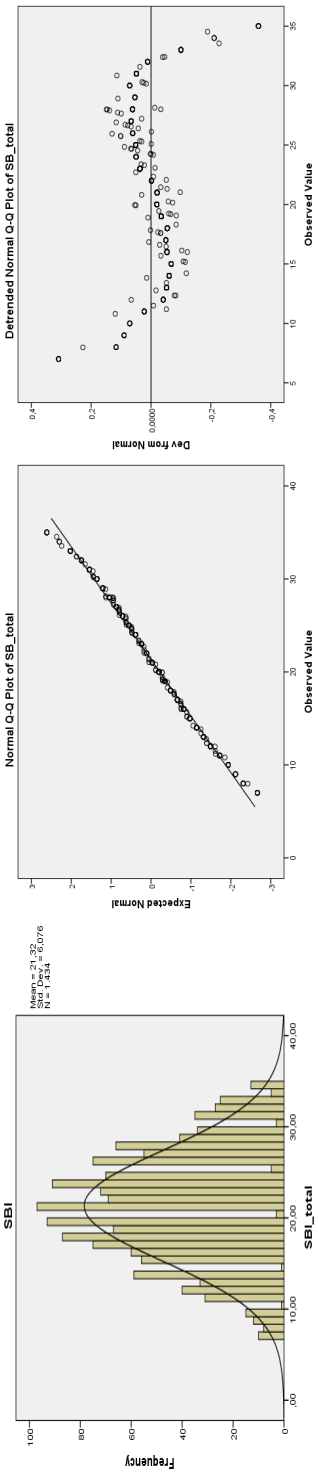
5- Geri dönüş yapan velilerin formları sizlerden geri toplanacaktır.

Katkılarınız için tekrar teşekkür ederiz.

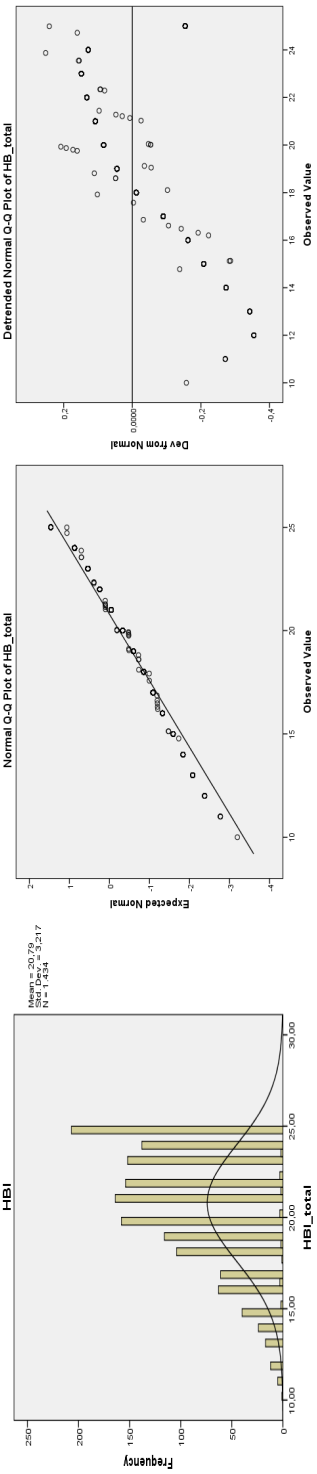
Mustafa Çetin
e-posta: cetinmustafacetin@gmail.com
Tel: …

APPENDIX I: HISTOGRAMS, NORMAL Q-Q PLOTS AND DETRANDED Q-Q PLOTS FOR NORMALITY CHECK

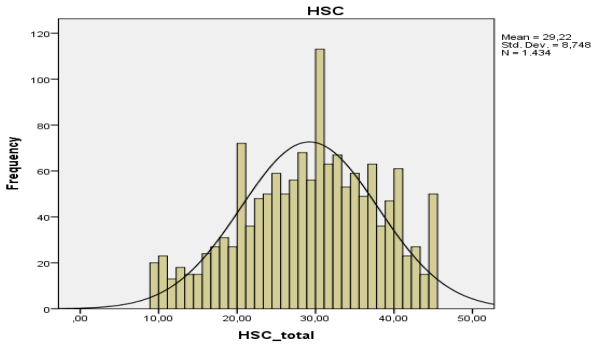
School-based involvement

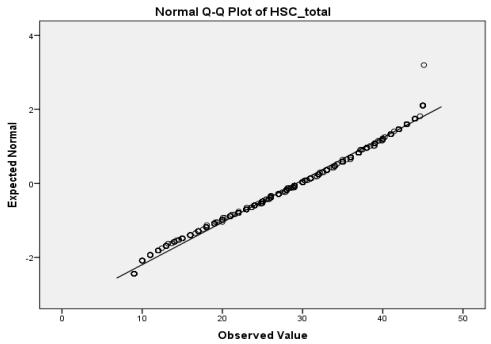


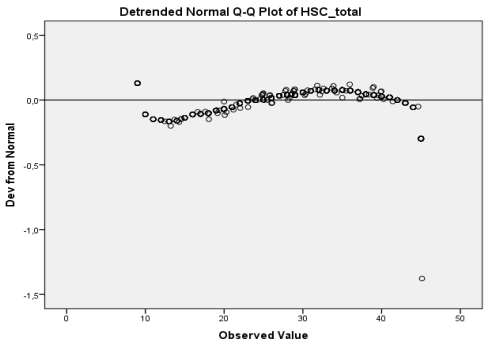
Home-base involvement



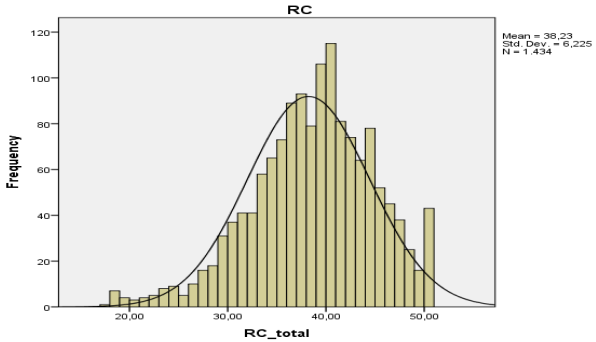
Home-school conferencing

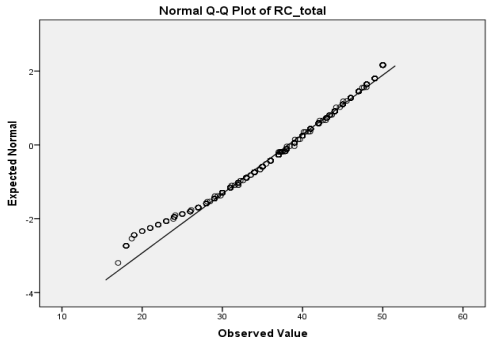


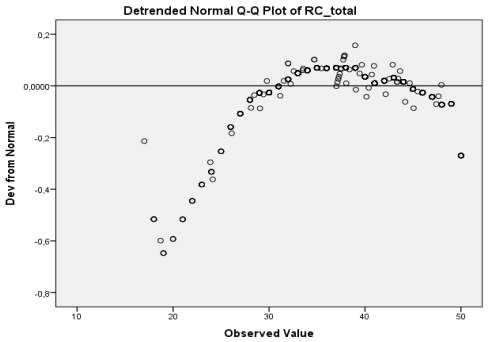




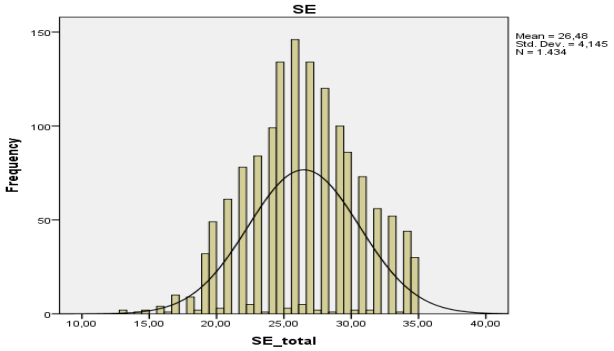
Role activity beliefs

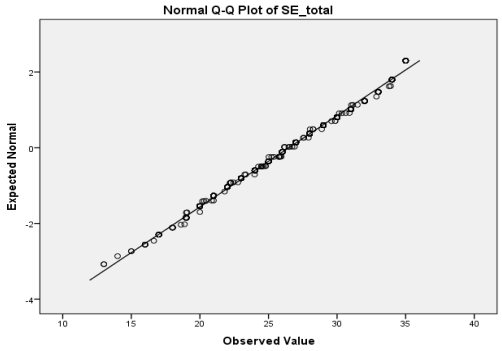


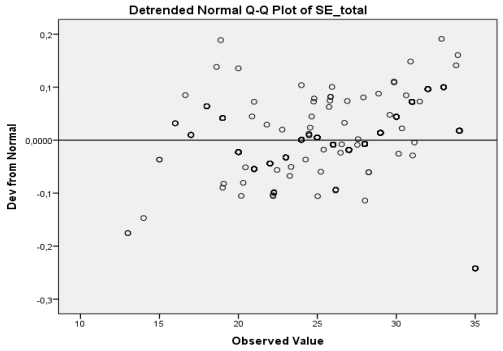




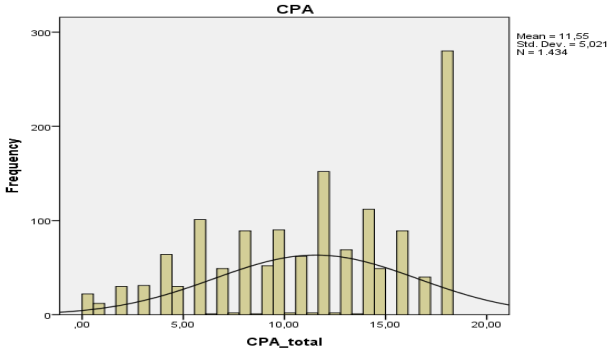
Self- efficacy beliefs

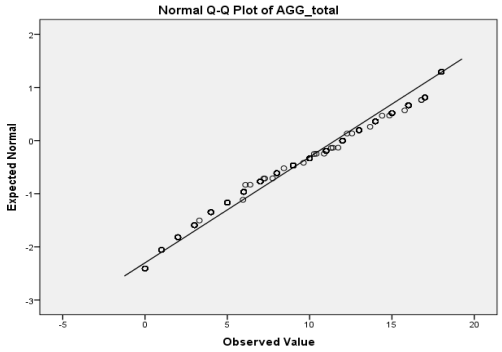


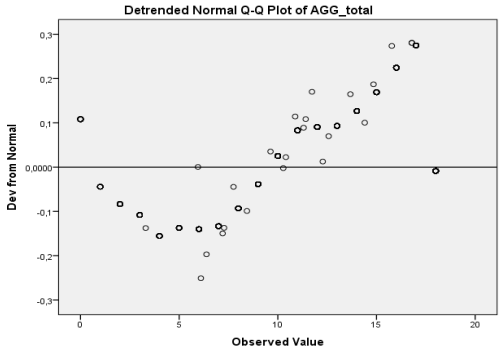




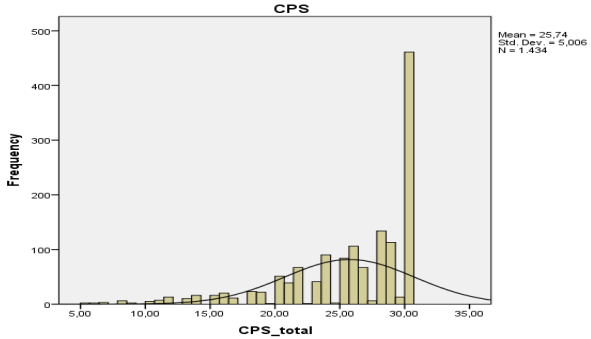
Coparenting agreement

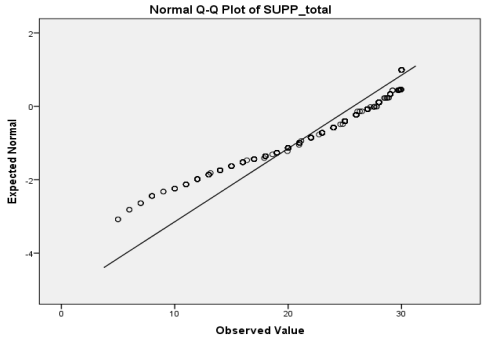


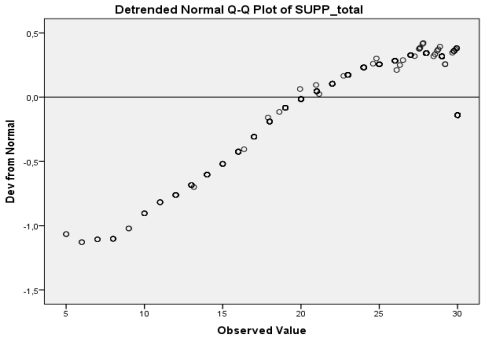




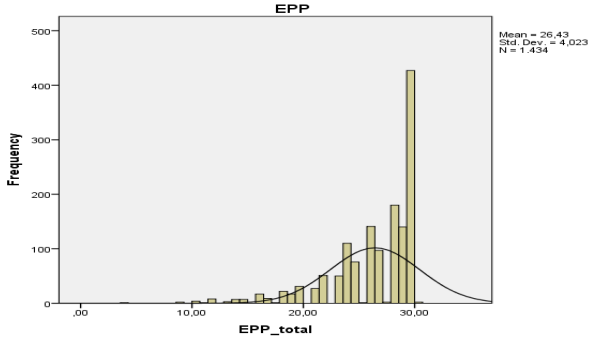
Coparenting support

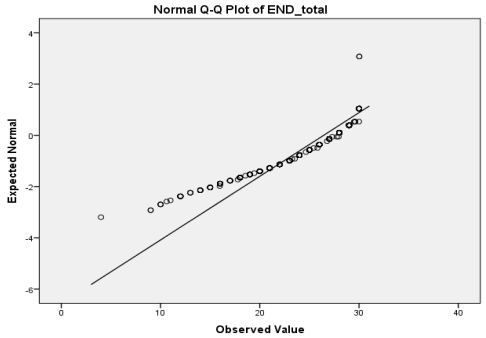


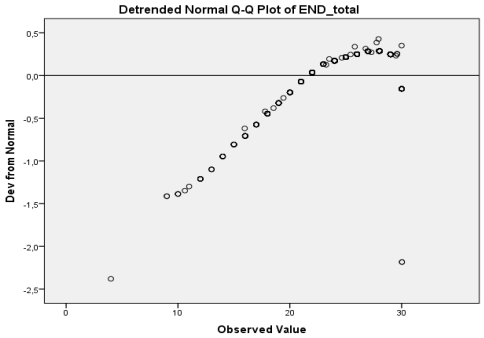




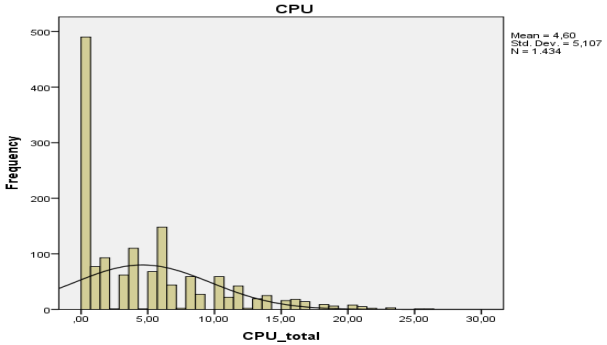
Endorsement of partner's parenting

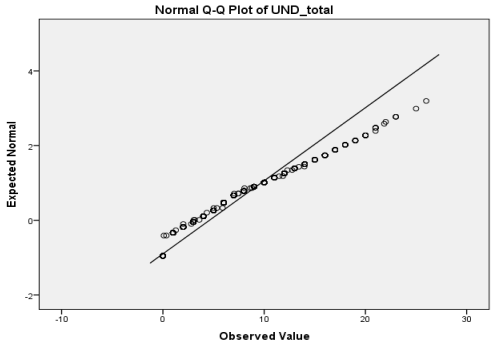


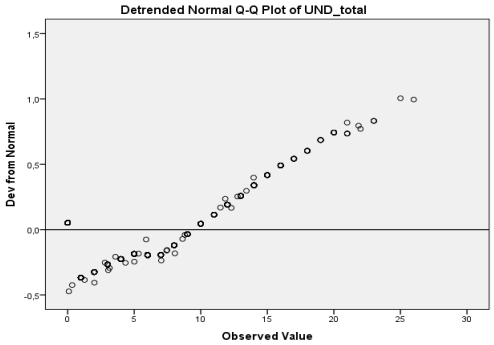




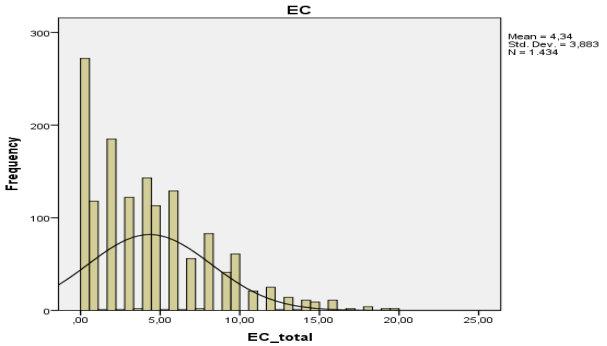
Coparenting undermining

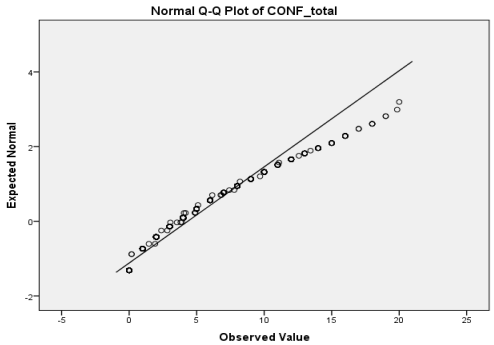


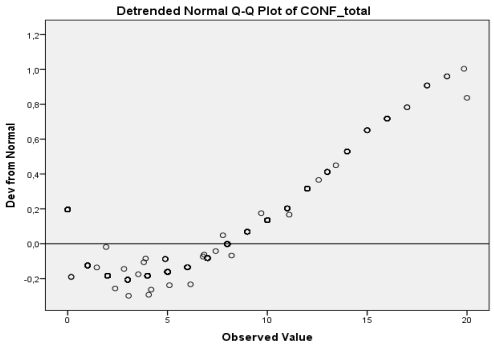




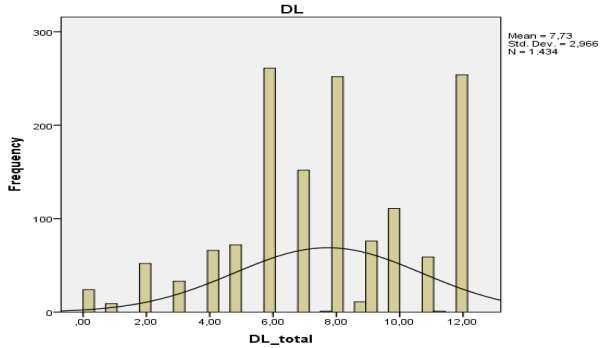
Exposure to conflict

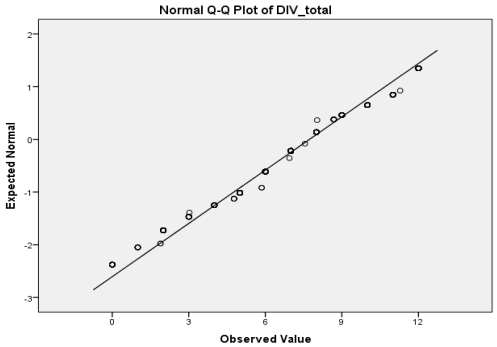


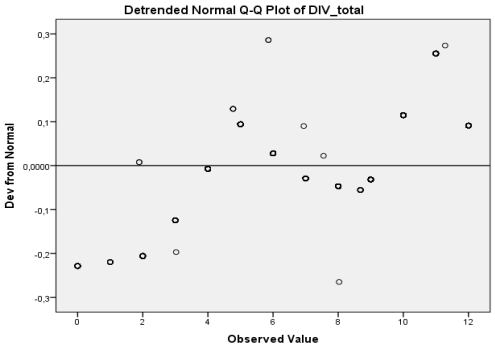




Division of labor







APPENDIX J: RESULTS OF THE MANOVAS AND FOLLOW UP ANOVAS FOR THE LEVELS OF PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Results of the Levene's Test of Equality of Variances regarding the levels of parent involvement

Dependent variable	F	df1	df2	*p*
School-based involvement	1.349	50	1195	.055
Home-based involvement	1.484	50	1195	.017
Home-school conferencing	1.520	50	1195	.002

Results of MANOVA for the levels of parent involvement

Independent variable	Value	F	*p*	η^2_p
Parent gender	.086	38.783***	.000	.086
Parent's level of education	.045	3.153***	.000	.015
Parent's employment status	.021	8.716***	.000	.021
Total income of family	.021	4.441***	.000	.011

***p <. 001

Results of follow-up ANOVAs for the levels of parent involvement

Independent variable	Dependent variable	df	F	*p*	η^2_p
Parent gender	School-based involvement	1	74.176***	.000	.057
	Home-based involvement	1	15.078***	.000	.012
	Home-school conferencing	1	100.554***	.000	.075
Parent's level of education	School-based involvement	6	4.103***	.000	.020
	Home-based involvement	6	5.399***	.000	.026
	Home-school conferencing	6	1.033	.402	.005
Parent's employment status	School-based involvement	1	21.613***	.000	.017
	Home-based involvement	1	0.061	.805	.000
	Home-school conferencing	1	0.946	.331	.001
Total income of family	School-based involvement	9	4.486*	.011	.007
	Home-based involvement	9	5.362*	.005	.019
	Home-school conferencing	9	3.455*	.032	.006

*p <. 05; ***p <. 0

APPENDIX K: RESULTS OF THE MANOVAS AND ANOVAS FOR MOTIVATIONAL BELIEFS REGERDING INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATION

Results of the Levene's Test of Equality of Variances regarding the motivational beliefs

Variable	F	df1	df2	*p*
Role activity beliefs	1.459	50	1195	.022
Self-efficacy beliefs	1.195	50	1195	.169

Results of MANOVA for personal motivations for involvement

Independent variable	Value	F	*p*	η^2_p
Parent gender	.007	4.385*	.013	.007
Parent's level of education	.010	1.000	.447	.005
Parent's employment status	.003	1.922	.147	.003
Total income of family	.013	4.089*	.003	.007

*p <. 05

Results of follow-up ANOVAs for personal motivations for involvement

Independent variable	Dependent variable	df	F	*p*	η^2_p
Parent gender	Role activity beliefs	1	8.612**	.003	.007
	Self-efficacy beliefs	6	1.191	.275	.001
Parent's level of education	Role activity beliefs	6	0.767	.596	.004
	Self-efficacy beliefs	6	1.051	.390	.005
Parent's employment status	Role activity beliefs	1	2.774	.096	.002
	Self-efficacy beliefs	1	0.374	.541	.000
Total income of family	Role activity beliefs	2	3.021*	.049	.005
	Self-efficacy beliefs	2	4.562*	.011	.007

*p <. 05; **p <. 01

APPENDIX L: CURRUCILUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Çetin, Mustafa
Nationality: Turkish (TC)
Date and Place of Birth: 12 June 1987, Konya
Marital Status: Married
Phone: +90 242 227 44 00
email: cetinmustafacetin@gmail.com

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
MS	Akdeniz University Elementary Education	2013
BS	METU Early Childhood Education	2011
High School	İvriz Anatolian Teacher Training High School	2006

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2017-Present	Akdeniz University, Department of Early Childhood Education	Research Assistant
2015-2017	METU, Department of Early Childhood Education	Research Assistant
2013-2015	Akdeniz University, Department of Early Childhood Education	Research Assistant
2011-2013	Çadırlı İlkokulu	Preschool Teacher

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

English

PUBLICATIONS

Journal Papers

Çetin, M. & Demircan, H. Ö. (2018). Empowering technology and engineering for STEM education through programming and robots: A systematic review. *Early Child Development and Care.* doi:10.1080/03004430.2018.1534844

Ata-Aktürk, A., Demircan, H. Ö., Şenyurt, E., & **Çetin, M.** (2017). Turkish early childhood education curriculum from the perspective of STEM education: A document analysis. *Journal of Turkish Science Education, 14*(4), 16-34. doi:10.12973/tused.10210

Gedik, N., **Çetin, M.,** & Koca, C. Examining the Experiences of Preschoolers on Programming via Tablet Computers. *Mediterranean Journal of Humanities, 7*(1), 193-203. doi:10.13114/MJH.2017.330

Conference Papers

Ubuz, B., **Çetin, M**., & Ata-Aktürk, A. Cognitive Levels of the Tasks in Turkish Children Magazine: A Content Analysis. 18th European Conference on Educational Research (ECER) (3-7 September, 2018, Bolzano, Italy).

Gülçiçek T., Demirtaş İlhan S., Güvelioğlu E., Demircan H.Ö., Cengizoğlu S., & **Çetin M.**, Early Childhood Educators' Preferences of Science Content Area Activities and Predictions about Science Content Area Activity Choices of Students at a Science Fair 18th European Conference on Educational Research (ECER) (3-7 September, 2018, Bolzano, Italy).

Çetin M., & Çetin G., "Curricular Integration of 21st Century Skills: A Critical Analysis of Turkish Early Childhood Education Curriculum. 27th International Conference on Educational Sciences (18 April - 22 May 2018, Antalya, Turkey).

Çetin, M., Ata-Aktürk, A., & Demircan, H. Ö. STEM Öğretmen Eğitiminin Okul Öncesi Eğitime Yansımalar: Bir Durum Çalışması. 5th International Eurasian Educational Research Congress (EJER) (2-5 May, 2018, Antalya, Turkey).

Çetin M., Cengizoğlu S., Eryiğit S., Demircan H.Ö., Tonga F.E., & Şenyurt E., "Okul Öncesi Dönem Çocukları Hangi Bilim Etkinliklerini Tercih Ediyor? Bir Bilim Fuarı Deneyimi", 5th International Eurasian Educational Research Congress (EJER) (2-5 May, 2018, Ankara, Turkey).

Çetin M., & Demircan H.Ö. Pre-service early childhood educators' reports of perceived STEM activity implementation barriers. 10th Intrenational Congress of Educational Research (27-30 April, 2018, Nevşehir, Turkey).

Çetin M., & Demircan H.Ö. A systematic review of programming robots in early childhood: integrating technology and engineering to STEM. 10th Intrenational Congress of Educational Research (27-30 April, 2018, Nevşehir, Turkey).

Şenyurt, E., Demircan, H. Ö., **Çetin, M**., & Ata-Aktürk, A. STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics) Education Approaches of Preschool Teachers. 5. International Early Childhood Education Congress (18-21 October, 2017, Ankara, Turkey).

Çetin M., & Bayat N., Sentential Characteristics in Oral Language of Preschool Children ISER- 232nd International Conference on Education and Social Science (ICESS-22-23 August 2017, Venice, Italy).

Çetin, M., Demircan, H. Ö., Şenyurt, E., & Ata-Aktürk, A. STEM Teaching Intentions of Turkish Early Childhood Teachers. 69th OMEP World Assembly and International Conference (19-24 June, 2017, Croatia, Opatija).

Çetin M., Demircan H.Ö., & Şenyurt E., Turkish Pre-service Early Childhood Teachers' Thoughts Regarding Parent Engagement, Involvement and Education69th OMEP World Assembly and International Conference (19-24 June, 2017, Croatia, Opatija).

Demircan, H.Ö., Ata, A., **Çetin, M**., & Senyurt, E. Analysis of Early Childhood Education Curriculum in terms of STEM Education. III. International Eurasian Educational Research Congress (EJER) (31 May-3 June, 2016, Muğla, Turkey).

Çetin M., Tunc C., 5 Yaş Çocuklarının ve Ebeveynlerin Elektronik Oyunlara İlişkin Bakış Açılarının İncelenmesi. International Congress on New Trends in Education, (24-26 April 2015, Antalya, Turkey).

Duman, G. & **Çetin, M.** Prospective teachers' metaphoric perceptions: The concept of multicultural education. 9th International Balkan Education and Science Congress (16-18 October 2014, Edirne, Turkey).

Bayat N., **Çetin M.**, Temizkol Ş., Children's Levels of Comprehending Connectives. 5th World Conference on Learning, Teaching and Educational Leadership, (29-30 October, 2014, Praha, Czechia).

Gedik N., **Çetin M.**, Tunc C., Okul Öncesi Çocuklarının Programlama ile İlgili Deneyimlerinin İncelenmesi", 8. Uluslararası Bilgisayar ve Öğretim Teknolojileri Eğitimi Sempozyumu (17-20 September, 2014, Edirne, Turkey).

Şekercioğlu G., **Çetin M.**, Ayvallı M., Okul Öncesi Öğretmenlerinin Formal ve İnformal Ölçme Yöntem ve Tekniklerini Tanıma ve Uygulama Durumları. Uluslararası Erken Çocuklukta Müdahale Kongresi (3-6 April, 2014, Antalya, Turkey).

Projects

Assistant Researcher, BAP Supported Research Project Science, "Anaokulu Fen, Teknoloji, Mühendislik Sanat ve Matematik (STEAM) Eğitimi: Eğitim kitleri hazırlanması, öğretmen eğitimi, ve yaz okulu uygulaması", 2016-2017.

Assistant Researcher, BAP Supported Research Project "Okul Öncesi Öğretmenlerinin Aile Katılımı, Aile Eğitimi ve Aile Bağlılığına Yönelik Görüşlerinin İncelenmesi", 2018 - …

Assistant Researcher, BAP Supported Research Project, "Okul Öncesi Dönem Çocuk Dergilerinde Yer Alan Etkinliklerde Bilişsel İstem Seviyelerinin Uygulamalı Olarak İncelenmesi", 2018 - …

APPENDIX M: TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

ORTAK EBEVEYNLİK VE EĞİTİMDE AİLE KATILIMI: GÜDÜSEL İNANÇLARIN ARABULUCULUK ROLLERİ

I. GİRİŞ

Bireylerin gelişimi, onları çevreleyen ekolojik sistemlerle olan etkileşimleri yoluyla gerçekleşir. Yani, en yakın çevreleriyle olan doğrudan etkileşimlerinden (örn., aile, akranlar, okul) daha uzak katmanlarla olan dolaylı etkileşimlerine kadar (örn., yasalar ya da kültür) bireylerin çevreleriyle olan bütün etkileşimleri gelişimlerini şekillendirir (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986). Bu bağlamda, bireylerin en yakın çevrelerini oluşturan aile, okul ve aile-okul arasındaki ilişkiler, onların gelişimleriyle ilgili geniş kapsamlı etkiler yaratabilecek önemli etkenlerdir. Başlangıçta, çocuğun gelişimi ve eğitiminde söz sahibi olan etken aileyken, çocuğun eğitim sistemine girişiyle birlikte okul da söz sahibi olmaya başlar (Bronfenbrenner ve Morris, 1998; Hayes, O'Toole ve Halpenny, 2017).

İlk olarak, Aile Sistem Kuramı, her ailenin kendi içinde özgün bir sistem oluşturduğunu; bu sistem içinde aile üyelerinin birbirine bağlı olduğunu ve birbirlerinin düşüncelerini, davranışlarını ve inançlarını etkilediğini savunur (Cox ve Paley, 1997; Miller, Keitner, Bishop ve Epstein, 2000; Minuchin, 1985). Bu ana sistem içinde, ikili, üçlü ya da daha fazla üyenin etkileşimiyle oluşan alt sistemler de ortaya çıkar (örn., anne-baba, anne-çocuk, baba-çocuk, anne-baba-çocuk). Ailenin ana sistemi ve alt sistemleri, çocuk sahibi olma, çocuğun okula başlaması gibi aile yaşamında gerçekleşen değişimlere uyum sağlar ve yeniden şekillenir (Cox ve Paley, 1997).

Evlenmeden önce kendi ebeveynleri tarafından oluşturulmuş olan aile sisteminin parçası olan bireyler, kendi ailelerini kurduklarında yeni alt sistemlerden

oluşan bir aile sistemi oluştururlar. Şöyle ki, evlenen iki bireyin oluşturduğu geleneksel bir çekirdek aile sistemi, eşlerden oluşan bir sistemdir ve bu iki eş arasındaki ilişkileri içerir. Diğer yandan, aileye yeni bir bireyin katılmasıyla, yani çocuk sahibi olunmasıyla birlikte, ailenin yaşamında köklü değişiklikler oluşur (Bakermans-Kranenburg vd., 2019; Deal, Hagan, Bass, Hetherington ve Clingempeel, 1999; Hjälmhult ve Lomborg, 2012; Johnson ve Rodgers, 2006). Eşler artık birer ebeveyndir ve onların çocuklarına karşı bakım sağlama, gelişimini destekleme, güvenli bir çevre sağlama, eğitimini destekleme gibi birçok yeni sorumlulukları vardır (Berger ve Riojas-Cortez, 2015). Dolayısıyla, romantik ilişkiler ve eş ilişkilerine ek olarak, eşler arasında yeni bir ilişki türü ortaya çıkar. Bu yeni ilişki, eşlerin birbirleriyle kurdukları ebeveynlik ilişkileridir. Yaşamlarının bu döneminde, söz konusu ilişki bağlamında, ebeveynler, geleneksel olarak ayrı rolleri olduğunu düşünerek anne ve baba olmayı seçecek ve farklı görev ve sorumlulukları olan ebeveynler olarak mı davranacaklar, yoksa birer ortak olarak mı çocuğun yaşamına katılacaklardır?

Tarih boyunca, anne ve babanın aile içindeki rolleri ataerkil aile yapısı içinde şekillenmiş ve bu doğrultuda, anneye bakım ve ev işleri rolleri verilirken, babaya ailenin koruyucusu ve eve ekmek getirme rolleri biçilmiştir. Ancak, gerek doğu gerekse batı toplumlarındaki sosyal ve ekonomik değişim ve gelişim, anne ve babaya atfedilen rolleri de değiştirmeye başlamıştır (Ataca ve Sunar, 1999; Kagitcibasi ve Ataca, 2005; Kuzucu, 2011). Örneğin, eşlerin aile içindeki rolleri, babaya daha fazla güç veren ataerkil aile rollerinden daha eşitlikçi rollere evrilmiştir (Mercan ve Tezel-Şahin, 2017; Pleck, 1987; Rotundo, 1985); hatta annenin eve ekmek getirme rolünü, babanın ise bakımdan sorumlu olma rolünü oynayabildiği çok daha devrimsel rol dağılımları ortaya çıkmıştır (Barker, Dogruoz ve Rogow, 2009; Fernandez-Lozano, 2019; Jurczyk, Jentsch, Sailer ve Schier, 2019; Kotila, Schoppe-Sullivan ve Dush, 2013). Anneliğin ve babalığın rolüne ilişkin gerçekleşen bu evrim sürecinde, çocukla ilgili görev ve sorumlulukların paylaşılması açısından, eşitsizlikler ortadan kalkmaya başlamıştır. Anneler ya da babalar, geleneksel annelik ya da babalık olarak rollerinden sıyrılarak, kendilerini her birinin eşit şekilde paylaşılan sorumluluk ve görevlere sahip

olduğu bir ortak ebeveynlik sistemi arayışı içinde bulmuştur (Cugmas, 2007; Feinberg, 2003).

Ortak ebeveynlikte önemli olan, anne ya da babanın aile sistemine bireysel katkılarının yanı sıra, birbirlerini destekleyen, uyumlu bir ilişkiye sahip olmalarıdır. Anne ve baba arasındaki bu ortaklık, ebeveynlerin düşünce, tutum ve davranışlarına etki eden önemli bir unsurdur (Feinberg, 2003). Örneğin, ortak ebeveynliğin ebeveynlerin ebeveynlik konusundaki rol algıları ve özyeterlilikleri üzerinde anlamlı etkilerinin olduğunu ortaya koyan araştırmalar vardır (örn., Buckley ve Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Merrifield ve Gamble, 2012; Schoppe-Sullivan vd., 2008; Solmeyer ve Feinberg, 2011). Bu bağlamda, eşler arasındaki ortak ebeveynlik ilişkisinin, çocuğun okul öncesi eğitime başlamasıyla aile sistemi içinde ortaya çıkan eğitime katılıma yönelik rol ve özyeterlilik inançları ve katılım davranışlarını da etkileyebileceği düşünülebilir.

Eğitimin bir parçası oldukları düşünüldüğünde, ebeveynlerden çocuklarının gelişimini ve eğitimini desteklemek için okul ile kurulmuş bir ortaklığa katılmaları beklenir (Epstein, 1995). Ebeveynlerin katılımı bağlamında, ebeveynler ve okullar arasında ortaklık yaratma çabası, ebeveynlerin belirli türdeki aile katılım etkinliklerine katılmasını sağlamakla ilgilidir. Yani, ebeveynlerin çocuklarının eğitimine aktif olarak katılmaları; çocuklarını, evde veya okul temelli etkinliklere katılarak ya da okulla sağlıklı bir iletişim kurarak desteklemeleri anlamına gelmektedir (Pomerantz, Moorman ve Litwack, 2007; Sheldon, 2002). Bu etkinlikler, okulla iletişim kurmak, çocuklara sınıf içi etkinliklerde yardımcı olmak, okulla ilgili işlerde gönüllü olmak, okulla ilgili karar verme süreçlerinde yer almak ve toplumla işbirliği yapmak çerçevesinde oluşturulmuştur (Epstein, 1995).

Bu tür etkinlikler, ebeveynlerin eğitime nasıl katılabileceğiyle ilgili soruyu yanıtlar. Ancak, ailelerin eğitime katılma biçimleriyle birlikte, onların eğitime katılımlarını etkileyen etmenler de üzerinde düşünülmesi gereken bir konudur (Hoover-Dempsey ve Sandler, 1995). Bu konuyla ilgili olarak, ebeveynler ve çocuklarla ilgili demografik özellikler (örn., SES [sosyo-ekonomik durum], çocuğun yaşı ve sınıf düzeyi), aile bağlamı ve davranışları (örn., diğer aile bireylerinden alınan

sosyal destek) ve okulun tutumları (örn., okul iklimi) gibi birçok etmen, ailelerin katılım düzeylerini etkileyen yordayıcılar olarak ön plana çıkmıştır (Griffith, 1998; Grolnick, Benjet, Kurowski ve Apostoleris, 1997; Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow ve Fendrich, 1999; Sheldon, 2002). Bu bağlamda, Hoover-Dempsey ve Sandler (19995), ailelerin katılım kararlarını ve düzeylerini etkileyen psikolojik etmenleri açıklamak için sistematik ve kapsamlı bir model önermiştir. Bu modele göre, ebeveynlerin katılım düzeylerini etkileyen en güçlü iki etmen, eğitime katlıma yönelik rol inançları ve çocuğun başarılı olması için destelemeye yönelik özyeterlilik inançlarıdır (Walker, Wilkins, Dallaire, Sandler ve Hoover-Dempsey, 2005). Ancak, Hoover-Dempsey ve Sandler (1995, 2005), ebeveynlerin eğitime katlıma yönelik rol inançları ve özyeterlilik inançlarını incelerken, onların bireysel özelliklerine odaklanmış ve aile bireyleri arasındaki ilişkileri, göz ardı etmiştir. Bu bağlamda, gerek ebeveynlikle ilgili rol algıları ve özyeterlik algıları üzerinde ekili olan, gerekse ebeveynlerin katılım davranışlarını etkileyen ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileri de, aile katılımın bir yordayıcısı olarak düşünülebilir. Öyle ki, ebeveynler arasındaki ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin niteliğinin, ebeveynlerin çocuklarının eğitime katılım düzeylerini etkilediğini raporlayan araştırmalar bulunmaktadır (Berryhill, 2017; Chen vd., 2017). Bu bağlamda, aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlar (Hoover-Dempsey ve Sandler, 1995, 2005), aile katılımı uygulamaları ve ortak ebeveynlik arasındaki olası anlamlı ilişkilerin, aile katılımının aile ve okul sistemi içinde kavramsallaştırılmasında önemli bir katkı sağlama potansiyeline sahip olduğu ileri sürülebilir.

1.1 Araştırmanın Önemi

Bu araştırma, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileri, ebeveynlerin aile katılımıyla ile ilgili güdüsel inançları ve aile katılım düzeyleri arasındaki olası ilişkileri araştırarak aile katılımı çalışmalarına yeni bir bakış açısı sunmayı amaçlamaktadır. Özellikle, erken çocukluk eğitimi bağlamında, ebeveynlerin eğitim sürecine katılımımın araştırılması ve uygulanması açısından katkılar sağlamaktadır. Bu araştırma, aile katılımı alan yazınında göze çarpan önemli bir boşluğu doldurmaya yönelik adımlar atmaktadır. Yaptığı birçok meta-analiz çalışmasına dayanarak, Jeynes (2002, 2003a, 2003b, 2005,

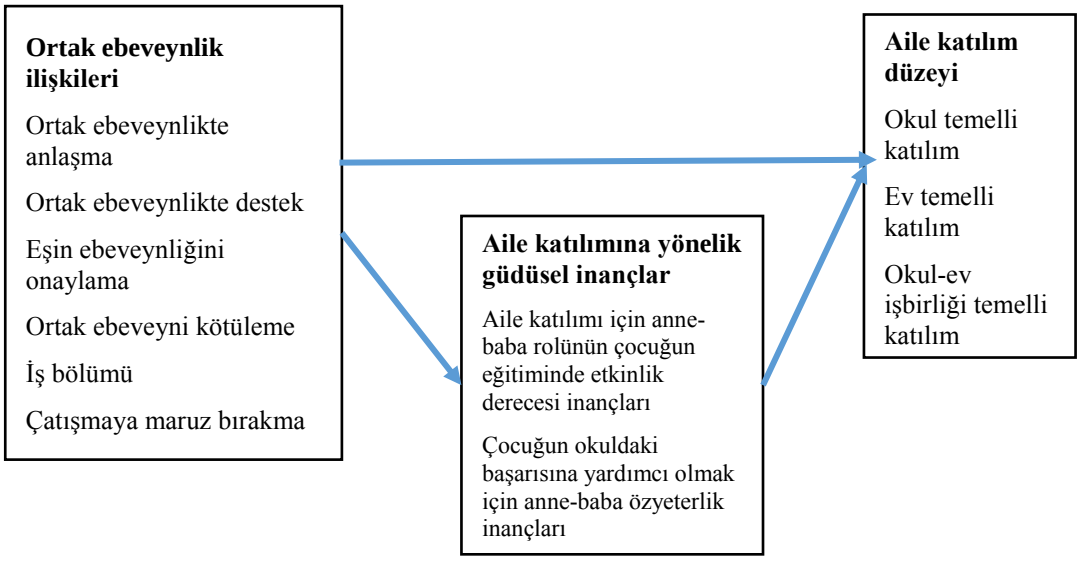
2011, 2012) aile yapısı ve eğitimde aile katılımı arasındaki ilişkinin yeterince ele alınmadığı ve bu ilişkinin yeterince anlaşılmadığını savunmaktadır. Bu bağlamda, eşler arasındaki ilişkilerin onların eğitime katılımları ve bu katılıma yönelik inançlarını, güdülerini ve davranışlarını etkileyebileceğini ele alan araştırmaların sınırlı olduğu ileri sürülmektedir (Powell, 1991). Bu eksiklikten hareketle, araştırmada dış etmenlerin (örn., sosyal destek, okulun tutumları) ve ebeveynlerin demografik özelliklerinin (örn., SED, cinsiyet, çalışma durumu) eğitime katılma olan etkilerine ek olarak (Griffith, 1998; Grolnick vd., 1997; Izzo vd., 1999; Sheldon, 2002), ailenin temel unsurları olan ebeveynler arasındaki ilişkinin eğitimine katılımları üzerindeki olası etkilerine yönelik doğrudan kanıtlar sunmaktadır. Araştırmada, ebeveynlerin eğitime katılım sıklığını etkileyebilecek mevcut etkenlere ek olarak, aile sistemi içindeki alt sistemlerin de ebeveynlerin eğitime katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarını ve katılım düzeylerini etkileyebileceği öne sürülmektedir. Başka bir deyişle, erken çocukluk eğitimi bağlamında aile katılımı ile ilgili olarak, ebeveynlerin bireysel etkilerine ek olarak, aralarındaki ebeveynlik ilişkisinin aile katılımına olan etkisine yönelik kanıtlar sunularak, Hoover-Demspey ve Sandler (1995)'nin aile katılımı süreci modelini genişletilebileceği önerilmektedir.

1.2 Araştırmanın Amacı ve Soruları

Bu araştırmanın amacı üç yönlüdür. Birincisi, eğitim kurumlarına devam etmekte olan çocukların ebeynlerinin ortak ebeveynlik ilişiklerinin niteliğinin, aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarının ve eğitime katılımlarının düzeylerini incelemektir. İkincisi, bu ebeynlerin eğitime katılma düzeylerinin ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileri ve aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarıyla olan ilişkilerini araştırmaktır. Üçüncüsü, anne-babaların ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileri ile çocuklarının eğitimine katılma düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkilerde, aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarının arabuluculuk rollerinin olup olmadığının sorgulanmasıdır. Araştırmanın bu kapsamlı amacı doğrultusunda, betimsel analizler yapılmış ve araştırma değişkenleri arasındaki doğrudan ve dolaylı ilişkileri incelemek amacıyla bir model oluşturulmuştur. Bu

model Şekil 1'de sunulmuştur. Söz konusu modelde, araştırma değişkenleri arasındaki doğrudan ve dolaylı ilişkilere yönelik aşağıdaki sorular ele alınmıştır:

1. Ebeveynlerin ortak ebeveynlik ilişiklerinin niteliği, aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançları ve aile katılımları ne düzeydedir?
2. Ebeveynlerin ortak ebeveynlik ilişiklerinin niteliği, aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançları ve aile katılım düzeyleri arasındaki doğrudan ve dolaylı ilişkiler nelerdir?
   2.1. Ebeveynlerin ortak ebeveynlik ilişiklerinin niteliği ve aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançları arasındaki doğrudan ilişkiler nelerdir?
   2.2. Ebeveynlerin ortak ebeveynlik ilişiklerinin niteliği ve aile katılım düzeyleri arasındaki doğrudan ilişkiler nelerdir?
   2.3. Ebeveynlerin aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançları ve aile katılım düzeyleri arasındaki doğrudan ilişkiler nelerdir?
   2.4. Ebeveynlerin aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançları, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin niteliği ve aile katılım düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkilerde arabuluculuk rolleri oynamakta mıdır?



Şekil 1 Önerilen model

II. YÖNTEM

2.1 Araştırmanın Deseni

Araştırmanın temel amacı, özel ya da devlet okul öncesi eğitim kurumlarına devam etmekte olan çocukların ebeveynlerinin eğitime katılımlarının, ortak ebeveynlik ilişiklileri ve aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarıyla olan ilişkilerini incelemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, araştırma, açıklayıcı ilişkisel araştırma deseni bağlamında gerçekleştirilmiş ve değişkenlere herhangi bir müdahalede bulunmadan iki veya daha fazla değişken arasındaki ilişkilerin bulunma derecesi araştırılmıştır (Creswell, 2012; Fraenkel, Wallen ve Hyun, 2012; Gay, Mills ve Airasian, 2014; Lodico, Spaulding ve Voegtle, 2006).

2.2 Evren ve Örneklem

Araştırmanın hedef evrenini, Antalya'da bir devlet okulu ya da özel okula kayıtlı olan ve 36-72 ay aralığındaki çocukların ebeveynleri (anneler ve babalar) oluşturmaktadır. Örneklemini ise, hedeflenen evren bağlamında, Antalya ilinin dört merkez ilçesinden (Muratpaşa, Konyaaltı, Kepez ve Döşemealtı) 1.434 ebeveyn oluşturmaktadır. Örneklemin tamamı, çocuklarının biyolojik anne babası olan, birlikte yaşayan ve evli ebeveynlerdir. Katılımcıların demografik özellikleri Tablo 1'de özetlenmiştir.

Tablo 1

Ana çalışma örnekleminin demografik özellikleri

	Anne		Baba		Toplam	
Özellikler	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Cinsiyet						
Kadın					715	49.9
Erkek					719	50.1
Kayıp veri					0	0
Toplam					1434	100
Ebeveyn yaş grubu						
21-30	146	20.4	34	4.7	180	12.6
31-35	233	32.6	185	25.7	418	29.1
36-40	233	32.6	294	40.9	527	36.8
41-45	84	11.7	133	18.5	217	15.1
46-61	11	1.5	66	9.2	77	5.4
Kayıp veri	8	1.1	7	1.0	15	1.0
Ebeveyn öğrenim düzeyi						
İlkokul	43	6.0	39	5.4	82	5.7
Ortaokul	61	8.5	58	8.1	119	8.3
Lise	211	29.5	237	33.0	448	31.2
Yüksekokul	6	.8	7	1.0	13	.9
Lisans	325	45.5	308	42.8	633	44.1
Yüksek lisans	59	8.3	52	7.2	111	7.7
Doktora	5	0.7	13	1.8	18	1.3
Kayıp veri	5	0.7	5	0.7	10	0.7
Çalışma durumu						
Çalışmıyor	257	35.9	7	1.0	264	18.4
Çalışıyor	395	55.2	643	89.4	1038	72.4
Kayıp veri	63	8.8	69	9.6	132	9.2
Gelir						
2000₺ ve altı	52	7.3	32	4.5	84	5.9
2001₺ - 3000₺	139	19.4	142	19.7	281	19.6
3001₺ - 4000₺	107	15.0	128	17.8	235	16.4
4001₺ - 6000₺	170	23.8	177	24.6	347	24.2
6001₺ - 8000₺	83	11.6	75	10.4	158	11.0
8001₺ - 10.000₺	69	9.7	80	11.1	149	10.4
10.001₺ - 12.000₺	30	4.2	21	2.9	51	3.6
12.001₺ - 15.000₺	14	2.0	17	2.4	31	2.2
15.001₺ - 20.000₺	5	0.7	11	1.5	16	1.1
20.001₺ ve üstü	5	0.7	15	2.1	20	1.4
Kayıp veri	41	5.7	21	2.9	62	4.3

Tablo 1 (Devamı)

Özellikler	Anne		Baba		Toplam	
	f	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Gelir (gruplanmış)						
Düşük	191	26.7	174	24.2	365	25.5
Orta	429	60.0	460	64.0	889	62.0
Yüksek	54	7.6	64	8.9	118	8.2
Kayıp veri	41	5.7	21	2.9	62	4.3
Çocuğun yaşı[3]						
36-41 ay	41	5.7	18	2.5	59	4.1
42-53 ay	190	26.6	167	23.2	357	24.9
54-65 ay	251	35.1	283	39.4	534	37.2
66-72 ay	188	26.3	193	26.8	381	26.6
Kayıp veri	45	6.3	58	8.1	103	7.2
Çocuğun cinsiyeti						
Kız	365	51.0	346	48.1	711	49.6
Oğlan	315	44.1	336	46.7	651	45.4
Kayıp veri	35	4.9	37	5.1	72	5.0
Çocuk sayısı						
1	237	33.1	213	29.6	450	31.4
2	361	50.5	393	54.7	754	52.6
3+	93	13.0	75	15.7	178	12.4
Kayıp veri	24	3.4	28	3.9	52	3.6
Okul türü						
Devlet	128	17.9	137	19.1	265	18.5
Özel	587	82.1	582	80.9	1169	81.5
Kayıp veri						

2.3 Veri Toplama Araçları

Araştırmanın verileri; demografik bilgi formu, Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkileri Ölçeği (Feinberg, Brown ve Kan, 2012), aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlar ölçekleri (Rol Etkinlik İnançları Ölçeği ve Ebeveyn Özyeterlilik Ölçeği; Walker vd., 2005) ve Aile Katılım Ölçeği (Fantuzzo, Tighe ve Childs, 2000) aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Bu ölçme araçlarından Aile Katılım Ölçeği (Gürşimşek, 2003) ve Rol

[3] Çocukların yaş grupları, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (MEB) tarafından okula kayıt için kullanılan ay gruplarına göre oluşturulmuştur.

Etkinlik İnançları ve Ebeveyn Özyeterlilik Ölçeklerinin (Ertan, 2017) daha önceden Türk dili ve kültürüne uyarlanmış biçimleri kullanılmıştır. Diğer yandan, Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkileri Ölçeğinin daha önceden Türk dili ve kültürü için uyarlanmış bir formu bulunmamaktadır. Bu nedenle, bu araştırma kapsamında, söz konusu ölçme aracının Türkçe formu, araştırmacı tarafından uyarlanmıştır. Benzer biçimde, demografik bilgi formu da araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilmiştir. Ölçme araçlarıyla ilgili temel bilgiler Tablo 2'de sunulmuştur.

2.4 Veri Toplama Süreci

Araştırmanın verileri, ölçme araçlarının bir araya getirilmesiyle oluşturulan anne ve baba formları aracılığıyla 2018-2019 akademik yılının sonbahar döneminde toplanmıştır. Anne ve baba formları arasındaki tek fark, bazı maddelerde "anne" ve "baba" sözcüklerinin birbiri yerine kullanılmasıdır. Anne ya da baba formları ve gönüllü katılım formları, katılımcı gizliliğini korumak adına zarf içinde öğretmenler aracılığıyla ailelere gönderilmiş ve kapalı zarfların içinde geri toplanmıştır. Anne-baba arasındaki etkileşimi kontrol etmek için her bir aileye bir anne ya da bir baba formu gönderilmiştir. Örneklemin büyüklüğü nedeniyle araştırmacının ebeveynlere ulaşması ve veri toplama araçlarını iletmesi gerek zaman gerekse maddi açıdan ekonomik olmayacağından; zarflar ailelere araştırmanın verilerinin toplandığı okullardaki okul öncesi öğretmenleri tarafından iletilmiş ve geri toplanmıştır.

Tablo 2

Ölçme araçları

Ölçme aracı	Amaç	Değişkenler	Madde sayısı	Yanıtlama biçimi	Özgün biçimi	Uyarlama
Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişikleri Ölçeği *	Çocuğu ebeveynleri arasındaki ebeveyn ilişkisinin ortaklık açısından değerlendirilmesi	Ortak ebeveynlikte anlaşma	3	0=Bizim için hiç doğru değil 1 2=Bizim için biraz doğru 3 4=Bizim için kısmen doğru 5 6=Bizim için tamamen doğru	Feinberg vd., 2012	Bu çalışma
		Ortak ebeveynlikte destek	5			
		Eşin ebeveynliğini kötüleme	5			
		Eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama	5			
		İş bölümü	2			
		Çatışmaya maruz bırakma	5	0=Hiç 1 2=Bazen (Haftada bir ya da iki kez) 3 4=Sık sık (Günde bir kez) 5 6 =Çok sık (Haftada pek çok kez)		

* Not: Ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileri ölçeğinin özgün formu yedi faktörden oluşmaktadır. Ancak, bu çalışmada altı faktörlü yapı doğrulanmış, ortak ebeveynlikte yakınlık boyutu geçerlilik ve güvenirlik kaygısı ile ölçme aracından çıkarılmıştır.

Tablo 2 (Devamı)

Ölçme aracı	Amaç	Değişkenler	Madde sayısı	Yanıtlama biçimi	Özgün biçimi	Uyarlama
Demografik bilgi formu	Ebeveynlerin demografik özelliklerini belirlemek	Yaş Eğitim düzeyi Gelir Çocuğun yaşı Çocuğun cinsiyeti Çocuk sayısı	7	Çoktan seçmeli ve boşluk doldurmalı maddeler	-	Bu çalışma
Aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlar ölçekleri	Ebeveynlerin aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarının değerlendirilmesi	Rol etkinlik inançları ölçeği Özyeterlilik inançları ölçeği	10 7	1=Kesinlikle katılmıyorum 2=Katılmıyorum 3=Kararsızım 4=Katılıyorum 5=Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Wallker vd., 2005	Ertan, 2017
Aile katılımı ölçeği	Ebeveynlerin ev, okul ve okul ev işbirliği temelli aile katılım etkinliklerine katılım düzeylerinin belirlenmesi	Okul temelli katılım Ev temelli katılım Oku ev işbirliği temelli katılım	7 5 9	1=Hiçbir zaman 2=Nadiren 3=Bazen 4 =Sık sık 5= Her zaman	Fantuzzo vd., 2000	Gürşimşek, 2003

2.5 Veri Analizi

Araştırmanın veri analiz süreci, dört aşamada gerçekleştirilmiştir. İlk olarak; veriler, uç değerler ve kayıp veriler açısından taranmış ve sonraki analizler için karşılanması gereken varsayımlar açısından sınanmıştır. Daha sonra, demografik değişkenlerin aracı ve bağımlı değişkenler üzerindeki olası etkileri, anlamlı ve dikkate değer etkisi olan değişkenlerin sonraki analizlerde kontrol edilip edilmeyeceği kararının verilmesi amacıyla incelenmiştir. Nitekim bu analizin sonucunda, ebeveyn cinsiyetinin okul temelli katılım ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım üzerinde anlamlı ve önemli bir etkisinin olduğu saptanmış ve ebeveyn cinsiyetinin söz konusu değişkenler üzerindeki etkileri sonraki analizlerde kontrol edilmiştir. Bu aşamadan sonra, araştırmanın birinci sorusunun yanıtlanması için betimleyici istatistikleri belirlemeye yönelik analizler yapılmış ve ortalama puanların ölçeklerin orta noktalarından anlamlı derecede farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığını belirlenmesi için tek örneklem *t* testi yapılmıştır. Son olarak, araştırma değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkileri belirlemeye yönelik araştırma sorularının yanıtlanması amacıyla oluşturulan model, yol analizleri aracılığıyla test edilmiştir (bkz. Şekil 1). Modelin araştırmanın verileriyle sağladığı uyum derecesinin güvenilir bir yaklaşımla incelenmesi amacıyla kullanılan uyum indeksleri Tablo 3'te belirtilmiştir.

Tablo 3

Uyum indeksleri için eşik değerleri

Uyum indeksi		Eşik değeri
χ^2	Chi-square	Olabildiğince düşük
df	Degrees of freedom	-
χ^2/df	Normed Chi-square Fit Index	$\leq$ 2 to 5
CFI	Comparative fit index	$\geq$ .90
TLI	Tucker-Lewis index	$\geq$ .90
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	$\leq$ .05 to. 10
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual	$\leq$ 08 to .10

(Arbuckle, 2012; Hu ve Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2016; Sümer, 2000; Schumacker ve Lomax, 2010, Tabachnick ve Fidell, 2007; Yadama ve Pandey, 1995)

2.6 Araştırmanın Sayıltıları ve Sınırlılıkları

Katılımcıların veri toplama araçlarındaki maddelerle ilgili görüşlerini, doğru ve dürüst bir biçimde ve diğer ebeveynle herhangi bir etkileşime girmeden yanıtladıkları varsayılmıştır.

Araştırma, 2018-2019 akademik yılının sonbahar döneminde, Antalya ilinde özel veya devlet okuluna kayıtlı 36-72 aylık çocukların evli ve birlikte yaşayan ebeveynleriyle sınırlıdır. Araştırma, çocukların yalnızca biyolojik anneleri ve babalarının ilişkilerini belirlemeyi amaçladığından diğer ebeveyn figürleri (örn., büyükanne ve büyükbabalar) veya farklı aile yapılarındaki ebeveynler (örn., boşanmış, ya da tek ebeveynli ailelerdeki ebeveynler) araştırmaya dahil edilmemiştir.

Araştırmanın bir diğer sınırlılığı, veri toplama yöntemi ile ilgilidir. Araştırmacı, ebeveynlerle doğrudan iletişime geçerek veri toplamak yerine, veri toplama sürecini öğretmeler aracılığıyla gerçekleştirmiştir. Bu nedenle, gönderilen ölçme araçlarının yaklaşık yarısı geri dönmüştür. Son olarak, araştırmanın verileri, ebeveynlerin ortak ilişkisinin niteliği, aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançları ve aile katılım düzeyleri ile ilgili öz-bildirimleriyle sınırlıdır. Veri toplamak amacıyla görüşme veya gözlem gibi alternatif veri toplama teknikleri kullanılmamıştır.

III. BULGULAR VE TARTIŞMA

Araştırmanın bulguları, iki ana başlık altında raporlanmış, yorumlanmış ve tartışılmıştır. İlk olarak, betimsel analizlerden elde edilen bulgular, daha sonra ise yol analizlerine ilişkin bulgular sunulmuştur.

Araştırma sorularının yanıtlamasına yönelik analizlere geçilmeden önce, veri setinin hazırlanması için veri girişinde yapılan hatalar saptanıp ve düzeltilmiş, kayıp veriler tamamlanmış ve uç veriler veri setinden çıkarılmıştır. Daha sonra, veri analizleri için karşılanması gereken varsayımlar test edilmiş ve veri analizinde yeniden örnekleme yönteminin kullanılmasına karar verilmiştir. Son olarak, ebeveynlerle ilgili bazı demografik değişkenlerin arabulucu ve bağımlı değişkenler üzerindeki olası etkileri incelenmiş; ebeveynin cinsiyetinin okul temelli katılım ve ev-okul işbirliği

temelli katılım üzerinde anlamlı etkileri olduğu saptanmıştır. Bu nedenle, ebeveyn cinsiyeti bu iki değişken için kontrol edilmiştir.

3.1 Araştırma Sorusu 1: Betimsel Analizlere Yönelik Bulgular ve Tartışma

Ebeveynlerin ortak ebeveynlik ilişiklerinin niteliği, aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançları ve aile katılımı ne düzeydedir?

3.1.1 Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkileri

Tablo 4'te belirtildiği üzere, ebeveynliğin onaylanmasının ortalama puanı, ebeveynlerin eşlerinin ebeveynliğini onaylama konusunda oldukça olumlu bir görüşe sahip olduğunu ortaya koymuştur ($\overline{X}$ = 5.29, *SS* = 0.81). Benzer bir biçimde, ortak ebeveynlikte desteğe ait ortalama puan, ebeveynlerin eşleriyle ilişkilerini oldukça destekleyici bulduklarını göstermiştir ($\overline{X}$ = 5.15, *SS* = 1.00). Bu bulguların aksine, eşin ebeveynliğini kötüleme puanlarının ortalaması son derece düşük bir görünüm sergilemektedir ($\overline{X}$ = 0.92, *SS* = 1.02). Bu ortalama puanların orta noktadan anlamlı derecede farklılaştığı bulunmuştur (bkz. Tablo 4). Dolayısıyla, eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama, eşin ebeveynliğini kötüleme ve ortak ebeveynlikte destek boyutlarından alınan puanlar, ebeveynlerin ilişkilerinde destekleyici davranışlar, ifadeler ve düşüncelere sahip olduklarını göstermektedir (Feinberg, 2003).

Ortak ebeveynlikte destekleyici ilişkilerle ilgili bulgular, farklı kültürlerde (örn., Avrupa, Afrika ve Asya kökenli Amerikalı) ve farklı bağlamlarda gerçekleştirilen diğer araştırmalarla benzerlik göstermektedir. Örneğin, Song ve Volling (2015), Birleşik Devletler' deki farklı etnik gruplardan gelen ebeveynlerin, doğum öncesi dönemdeki ebeveynlik ilişkilerinde destekleyici davranışlar sergilemeye başladığını bulmuşlardır. Benzer sonuçlar, 6 aylıktan 9 yaşına kadar değişik yaş grubundaki çocuklara sahip ebeveynler için de raporlanmıştır (bkz., Buckley ve Schoppe-Sullivan, 2010; Dopkins vd., 2009; Feinberg vd., 2012, Solmeyer ve Feinberg, 2011; Le, McDaniel, Leavitt ve Feinberg, 2016; Schoppe-Sullivan, Settle, Lee ve Kamp-Dush, 2016). Bu araştırmadan elde edilen bulgular da, erken çocukluk eğitim sisteminde 36-72 ay arasında çocukları olan ebeveynlerin, ortak

ebeveynlik ilişkileri açısından destekleyici ilişkiler içinde bulunduklarını ortaya koymuştur.

Tablo 4

Ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerine yönelik betimleyici istatistikler

Değişken	$\overline{X}$	*SS*	*Min.*	*Maks.*	*t* *sd*=1433
Ortak ebeveynlikte anlaşma	3.85	1.67	.00	6.00	19.22**
Ortak ebeveynlikte destek	3.85	1.00	1.00	6.00	81.24**
Eşin ebeveynliğini kötüleme	3.85	1.02	.00	5.20	-77.15**
Eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama	5.29	.81	.80	6.00	107.63**
Çatışmaya maruz bırakma	.87	.78	.00	4.00	-103.96**
İş bölümü	3.87	1.48	.00	6.00	22.09**

**$p < .01$

Ayrıca, ortak ebeveynlikte anlaşma puanlarının ortalaması, orta düzeyde bir görünüm sergilemektedir ($\overline{X}$ = 3.85, SS = 1.67). Benzer biçimde, ebeveynlik açısından diğer ebeveynle işbölümünden alınan puanların ortalaması da orta düzeydedir ($\overline{X}$ = 3.87, SS = 1.48). Yapılan analizler, bu ortalama puanların her ne kadar orta düzeye yakın olsa da, orta noktadan anlamlı derecede farklılaştığını göstermiştir (bkz. Tablo 4). Diğer yandan, Feinberg ve diğerleri (2012), bu araştırmaya kıyasla, bebeklerin anne babalarının aralarında ebeveynlik uygulamaları açısından yüksek düzeyde anlaşma ve işbölümü bulunduğunu rapor etmişlerdir. Bu farklı sonuç, bebeklerin ebeveynlerinin ve okul öncesi çocukların ebeveynlerinin ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin bağlamsal farklılıklarına dayandığına işaret etmektedir. Daha açık bir ifadeyle, ebeveynler arasındaki ilişkiler, çocuğun okul öncesi eğitime başlamasıyla değişiklik gösterebilir (Docket ve Perry, 2004; McHale ve Irace, 2011). Nitekim çocuğun yaşamındaki bu değişim, ebeveynlerin daha fazla fikir ayrılığına düşebilecekleri ve iş bölümü konusunda sorun yaşayabilecekleri yeni sorumluluklar ve işler ortaya çıkarabilir.

Ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin iki negatif boyutu olan eşin ebeveynliğini kötüleme ($\overline{X}$ = .87, *SS* = 0.78) ve çatışmaya maruz bırakma ($\overline{X}$ = .92, *SS* = 1.02) oldukça düşük puan ortalamalarına sahiptir. Bu sonuç, eşlerinini bu ebeveynlerin ebeveynliklerine ilişkin çok az olumsuz davranış sergiledikleri ve ifadede bulundukları; nadiren çocuklarını ebeveynlikleriyle ilgili konulardaki tartışma ve çatışmalarına maruz bıraktıklarını göstermektedir. Araştırmanın bu bulguları, farklı kültürlerde ve farklı yaş grubundaki çocukların ebeveynleriyle yapılan araştırmalarla da benzerlik göstermektedir (örn., Favez, Tissot, Frascarolo, Stiefel ve Despland, 2016., 2016; Feinberg vd., 2012).

Görünüşe göre, ebeveynlerin, aralarındaki çatışmanın aile üyeleri, özellikle de çocuklar üzerindeki olumsuz etkileriyle ilgili farkındalığı, bu çatışmaları çocuklarına yansıtmamaya çalışmalarının nedeni olabilir. Çeşitli toplumlarda olduğu gibi, Türk toplumunda da çocuklar eskiye oranla daha fazla değer görmektedir (Aslan, 2002; Tezel-Şahin ve Cevher, 2007). Sonuç olarak, çoğu aile çocuklarının ruh sağlığını korumak için, hararetli tartışmaları çocuklarına yansıtmak yerin, sorunları daha barışçıl bir biçimde tartışarak çözmeye çalışmaktadırlar.

Genel olarak bakıldığında, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin olumlu boyutlarından alınan ortalama puanlar, olumsuz boyutlara göre oldukça yüksektir. Bu durum, farklı kültürlerde yapılan diğer araştırmalarca da ortaya konmuştur (örn., McDaniel vd., 2017; Reader, Teti ve Cleveland, 2017). Olumlu ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin yüksek düzeyde olması, aile bireylerinin aile içi ilişkilerle ilgili algılarındaki umut verici değişikliklerin bir sonucu olabilir. Şöyle ki, diğer birçok toplumda olduğu gibi, Türk aile sisteminde de aile ve aile içindeki roller açısında göze çarpan değişiklikler meydana gelmektedir (Kavas ve Thornton, 2013). Daha açık bir ifadeyle, anne ve babanın aile içindeki rolleri, cinsiyetlerine bağlı olarak anne ve babaya atfedilen farklı roller yerine, daha eşitlikçi rollere doğru bir değişim göstermektedir (Barker, Dogruoz, ve Rogow, 2009; Fernandez-Lozano, 2019; Jurczyk, Jentsch, Sailer, ve Schier, 2019; Kotila, Schoppe-Sullivan, ve Dush, 2013; Mercan ve Tezel-Şahin, 2017; Pleck, 1987; Rotundo, 1985; Salman-Engin, 2014). Araştırmadan elde edilen bulgular, toplumda yaşanan bu değişiminin bir yansıması olabilir.

3.1.2 Aile Katılımına Yönelik Güdüsel İnançlar

Tablo 5'te, ebeveynlerin aile katılımı açısından yüksek düzeyde rol etkinlik ($\overline{X}$ = 3.82, *SS* = 0.62) ve özyeterlik inançları ($\overline{X}$ = 3.78, *SS* = 0.59) olduğu görülmektedir. Ayrıca, bu ortalama puanlar orta noktadan anlamlı derecede farklılaşmaktadır (bkz. Tablo 5). Bu bulgu, ebeveynlerin eğitime katılma konusunda sorumluluk duydukları ve katılım konusunda kendilerini yetkin bulma eğiliminde olduklarını anlamına gelir.

Tablo 5

Aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançlarla ilgili betimleyici istatistikler

Değişken	$\overline{X}$	*SS*	*Min.*	*Maks.*	*t* *sd*=1433
Rol etkinlik inançları	3.82	0.62	1.70	5	50.04**
Özyeterlilik inançları	3.78	0.59	1.86	5	50.08**

Yüksek düzeyde rol ve özyeterlik inançları, diğer araştırmalarca daha büyük yaş grubunda çocuğu bulunana ebeveynler içinde de raporlanmıştır (ör., Anderson ve Minke, 2007; Drummond ve Stipek, 2004; Freund vd., 2018, Lavenda, 2011). Bu araştırmalara ek olarak, bu çalışmada da anne babaların güdüsel inançları üzerine okul öncesi eğitim bağlamında daha büyük ve anne baba sayısı açısından dengeli bir örneklemden elde edilen bulgular sunulmaktadır.

Ebeveynlerin güdüsel inançlarıyla ilgili dikkat çekici bulgularından biri, rol etkinlik inançlarından aldıkları puanlarla, özyeterlilik inançlarından aldıkları puanların birbirine çok yakın olmasıdır. Ancak, bu konuda yapılan diğer birçok araştırmada, ebeveynlerin rol etkinlik inançlarından aldıkları puanların, özyeterlilik inançlarından aldıkları puanlara göre daha yüksek olduğunu raporlamıştır (örn., Tekin, 2011; Wilder, 2017). Bu durum, çocukların hangi eğitim basamağında bulunduklarıyla ilgili olabilir. Şöyle ki, daha üst sınıflardaki çocukların ebeveynleri, çocuğun eğitimini destekleme konusunda daha üst düzey bilgi ve beceri gerektiren konular nedeniyle, kendilerini

daha az yeterli hissedebilirler. Ancak bu durum, bu araştırmanın ve okul öncesi dönemde çocuğun bulunan ebeveynlerle gerçekleştirilmiş diğer araştırmalarda da raporladığı gibi, daha küçük çocukların ebeveynleri için geçerli olmayabilir (Ertan, 2017; Filik, 2018).

3.1.3 Aile Katılım Düzeyi

Tablo 6'da görüldüğü gibi, ev temelli katılımın ortalama puanı, ebeveynlerin yüksek düzeyde ev temelli katılımı tercih ettiğini ortaya koymuştur ($\overline{X}$ = 4.17, *SS* = 0.64). Buna ek olarak, ebeveynler orta düzeyde okul temelli ($\overline{X}$ = 3.05, *SS* = 0.87) ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli ($\overline{X}$ = 3.25, *SS* = 0.97) katılımı tercih ettikleri bulgulanmıştır. Eve temelli ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım orta noktadan anlamlı düzeyde farklılaşırken, okul temelli katılım anlamlı farklılık göstermemektedir (bkz. Tablo 6).

Tablo 6

Aile katılım düzeylerine yönelik betimleyici istatistikler

Değişken	$\overline{X}$	*SS*	*Min.*	*Maks.*	*t* *df*=1433
Okul temelli katılım	3.05	0.87	1.00	5.00	2.02
Ev temelli katılım	4.17	0.64	2.00	5.00	68.14**
Okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım	3.25	0.97	1.00	5.00	9.61**

Araştırmanın bulguları, ebeveynlerin okul ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılıma kıyasla, ev temelli aile katılım etkinliklerine daha çok katıldıklarını göstermiştir. Benzer bulgular, eğitimin çeşitli basamakları için de raporlanmıştır (ör., Deslandes ve Bertrand, 2005; Durand, 2011; Freund, Schaedelb Azaiza, Boehmd ve Lazarowitz., 2018; Green, Walker, Hoover-Dempsey ve Sandler, 2007; Ritblatt, Beatty, Cronan ve Ochoa, 2002; Xia, Hackett ve Webster, 2019; Sheldon, 2002). Ev temelli katılımın diğerlerine göre daha çok tercih edilmesinin birden fazla nedeni olabilir. İlk neden, ebeveynlerin kendilerince, çocuğun eğitimi açısından öğretmenle aralarında işbölümü yaparak; ev temelli etkinliklerin kendi sorumluluklarında, okul temelli etkinliklerin ise

öğretmenlerin sorumluluğunda olduğunu düşünebilirler. Diğer bir neden ise, ebeveynlerin okulda etkinliklere katılma ya da okulla iletişim kurma açasından kendilerini rahat hissetmemeleriyle birlikte, ev etkinliklerine yönelmeleri olabilir (Hornby ve Lafaele, 2011; Gürşimşek, Kefi ve Girgin, 2007). Ayrıca, okul temelli katılımın ev temelli katılıma göre düşük olmasının diğer bir nedeni, ebeveynlerin iş ya da diğer çocukların sorumluluğu nedeniyle zaman bulamama gibi yaşam şartlarından kaynaklanıyor olabilir (Hornby ve Lafaele, 2011; Lamb-Parker vd., 2001; Williams ve Sánchez, 2011). Son olarak, okulun ebeveynlere karşı tutumu, onların okul temelli etkinlikleri ve okulla iletişim kurmayı tercih etmemelerine neden olabilir (Kim, 2009; Nichols-Solomon, 2001; Şimşek ve Tanaydın, 2002; Tadesse, 2014; Turney ve Kao, 2009; Yıldırım ve Dönmez, 2008).

3.2 Araştırma Sorusu 2: Yol Analizlerine Yönelik Bulgular ve Tartışma

Ortak ebeveynlik ilişiklerinin niteliği, aile katılımına yönelik güdüsel inançları ve aile katılım düzeyi arasındaki doğrudan ve dolaylı ilişkiler nelerdir?

Değişkenler arasındaki doğrudan ve dolaylı ilişkileri incelemek amacıyla iki model test edilmiştir. İlk olarak, kuramsal çerçeve ve alan yazın göz önünde bulundurularak önerilen başlangıç modeli, yol analizi aracılığıyla test edilmiştir. Analiz sonuçları, başlangıç modelinin araştırmanın verileriyle iyi bir uyum sergilediğini göstermiştir ($\chi2$ /df = 7.32, RMSEA = .066, SRMR = .016, TLI = 90, CFI = .99). Ancak, bu modelde bazı ilişkilerin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmadığı saptanmıştır. Daha sade bir model ortaya çıkarmak için, istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmayan ilişkiler modelden çıkarılmıştır. Bu işlem sonrasında, nihai bir modele ulaşılmış ve bu model başlangıç modeline kıyasla daha iyi bir uyum sergilemiştir ($\chi2$ /df = 2.45, RMSEA = .032, SRMR = .021, TLI = .98, CFI = .99). Nihai modele dayanarak elde edilen değişkenler arasındaki doğrudan ilişkiler Tablo 7, dolaylı ilişkiler ise Tablo 8'de sunulmuştur.

3.2.1 Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişiklerinin Niteliği, Aile Katılımına Yönelik Güdüsel İnançlar ve Aile Katılım Düzeyleri Arasındaki Doğrudan İlişkiler

Ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin ebeveynlerin güdüsel inançları üzerindeki etkileriyle ilgili bulgular, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin farklı boyutlarının ebeveynlerinin eğitime katılıma yönelik rol ve özyeterlik inançları üzerinde anlamlı etkileri olduğunu göstermiştir (bkz. Tablo 7). Bu bulgular, ebeveynlerin ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin, anne-babaların çocuk bakımı gibi ebeveynliğin farklı yöneylerine odaklanan diğer araştırmalarla benzerlik göstermekte ve bu araştırmalara ek olarak ebeveynliğin farklı bir boyutu olan, eğitime katılımla ilgili rol etkinlik inançları ve özyeterlilik inançları açısından anlamlı kanıtlar sunmaktadır (örn., Favez vd., 2016; Feinberg vd., 2012; Indrasari ve Dewi, 2018; Merrifield ve Gamble, 2010; Schoppe-Sullivan, Brown, Cannon, Mangelsdorf ve Szewczyk-Sokolowski, 2008; Schoppe-Sullivan vd., 2016; Solmeyer ve Feinberg, 2011). Başka bir deyişle, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin genel ebeveynlik uygulamalarına yönelik rol ve özyeterlilik inançları üzerindeki etkisine ek olarak, özellikle ebeveynlerin eğitimle ilgili rol ve özyeterlik inançları üzerinde de etkisi olduğunu göstermektedir.

Yol analizinin sonuçları, ortak ebeveynlikte anlaşmanın anlamlı ve olumlu bir biçimde yalnızca özyeterlilik inançlarını yordadığını göstermiştir. Bu bulgu, ebeveynlerin eşleriyle ebeveynlikle ilgili konularda hemfikir olmalarının, eğitime katılmada kendilerini yetkin hissetmelerine yol açtığını göstermektedir. Ebeveynler eşleriyle, ebeveynlik ile ilgili hedefler, fikirler veya standartlar konusunda bir anlaşmaya vardıklarında, fikirlerinin ve inançlarının uygun olduğunu düşünebilir ve daha yetkin hissedebilirler. Diğer yandan, ebeveynler arasındaki süreğen anlaşmazlıklar, ebeveynlerin sıklıkla eşin ebeveynliğinin kötülendiği ve olumsuz eleştirilerle karşı karşıya kalınan bir ortam yaratabilir (Grych ve Fincham, 1993). Bu da ebeveynlerin çocuklarının eğitimlerine katılmada yetersiz hissetmelerine yol açabilir.

Araştırma, ortak ebeveynlikte desteğin, güdüsel inançlar ve ebeveynlerin eğitime katılım düzeyleri üzerindeki etkileri açısından dikkat çekici sonuçlar ortaya koymuştur. Daha açık bir ifadeyle, ortak ebeveynlikte destek, ebeveynlerin eğitime

katılıma yönelik güdüsel inançlarının (role etkinlik ve özyeterlilik inançları) ve aile katılımı düzeylerinin (okul, ev ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım) bütün boyutlarını anlamlı ve olumlu bir biçimde yordamıştır. Bu sonuçlar, eşlerinden ebeveynlik anlamında daha fazla destek alan anne ya da babaların, eğitime katılımda daha fazla sorumlu hissettikleri, katılımın aile içindeki rollerinin bir parçası olduğuna daha fazla inandıkları ve kendilerini daha yeterli hissettikleri anlamına gelir. Ayrıca, eşin desteğini alan ebeveynler, farklı bağlamlardaki aile katılım etikliklerine (okul, ev ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım) daha fazla katılmaktadırlar. Diğer yandan, eşin ebeveynliğini kötülemenin, özyeterlik inançları, okul temelli katılım ve ev temelli katılımı olumsuz yönde yordadığı bulgulanmıştır. Eşleri tarafından ebeveynlikleriyle ilgili olumsuz yorumlar yapılan ve kimin daha iyi bir ebeveyn olduğuna yönelik bir yarışın işçinde kendilerini bulan ebeveynler, kendilerini yetersiz hissetmeye ve okul ve ev temelli etkinliklere daha az katılmaya meyilli olmaktadırlar. Diğer birçok araştırmada da belirtildiği gibi, ebeveynler için özellikle yaşamlarında önemli bir yere sahip olan kişilerin destekleyici yorumları ve değerlendirmeleri, onların yeterlilikleriyle ilgili olumlu inançlar geliştirmelerine ve ev, okul ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli aile katılım etkinliklerine daha fazla katılmalarına yol açtığı ifade edilmektedir (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1989a, 1989b; Berryhill, 2017; Chen vd., 2017; Feinberg vd., 2013; Hoover-Dempsey ve Sandler, 1995).

İlginç bir biçimde, eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama, rol etkinlik inançlarını olumlu yönde yordarken, okul temelli katılımı olumsuz yönde yordamıştır. Bu, eşlerinin iyi bir ebeveyn olduğunu düşünenlerin, eğitime katılımda daha fazla sorumluk almaya meyilli olduklarını, ancak okul temelli katılım düzeylerinin daha düşük olduğunu göstermektedir. İyi bir ebeveyn olduğu düşünülen bir eşe sahip olma, ebeveynler üzerinde farklı etkiler yaratabilir. Örneğin, LeRoy ve diğerlerine (2012) göre, ebeveynler kurdukları ilişkiler yoluyla, ebeveynlik rollerini birlikte oluştururlar. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları, bu bağlamda değerlendirildiğinde, bir ebeveynin eğitimine katılımda etkin rol alması diğer ebeveyne model olarak onun da bu konuda daha çok sorumluluk almasına yol açabilir. Diğer yandan, eşin iyi özellikleri, ebeveynin katılımı açısından olumsuz etkiler de yaratabilir. Şöyle ki, eşin iyi bir ebeveyn olmasının

verdiği güven, diğer ebeveynin nasıl olsa eşi tarafından yapılacağına duyulan inanç nedenliyle katılım konusunda geri durmasına neden olabilir. Tersine, eşin gereksiz derecede aşırı iyi tavırları diğer ebeveynin tepkisine de yol açabilir (LeRoy vd., 2013).

Araştırmanın bulguları, işbölümü boyutunun rol etkinlik inançları ve ev temelli katılımı olumsuz yönde yordadığını göstermiştir. Bu sonuç, ebeveynlikle ilgili işlerde üzerine düşen görevi adil bir biçimde yerine getirmeyen bir eşe sahip ebeveynlerin, eğitime katılım konunda daha fazla sorumlu hissetme ve bunun kendi rolleri olduğunu düşünme eğilimine girmelerine yol açabilmektedir. Ebeveynliğin, her iki ebeveyn tarafından ortak bir deneyim olduğu düşünüldüğünde, bir ebeveynin duyguları veya davranışları diğerinin duygularını ve davranışlarını etkilediği söylenebilir (Biehle ve Mickelson, 2011). Dolayısıyla, eğer bir ebeveyn üzerine düşen görevi yapmıyorsa, bunu diğer ebeveyn yapmak zorunda kalabilir. Bu nedenle, bu duruma maruz kalan ebeveynin aile katılımı etkinliklerine daha fazla katılmasına yol açabilir. Bununla ilişkili olarak, bir ebeveynin bazı sorumlulukları alması diğer ebeveynin geri durmasına da neden olabilir (Mendonça, Bussab ve Kärtner, 2019; Szabó, 2011).

Tablo 7

Doğrudan etkilere yönelik yol analizi sonuçları

Bağımsız değişken	Bağımlı değişken	*B*	SH	*β*	Alt değer	Üst değer
Ortak ebeveynlikte anlaşma	Özyeterlilik inançları	.10	.02	.12**	.06	.17
Ortak ebeveynlikte destek	Rol etkinlik inançları	.13	.04	.11**	.04	.16
	Özyeterlilik inançları	.15	.02	.18**	.13	.23
	Okul temelli katılım	.09	.04	.07*	.02	.13
	Ev temelli katılım	.08	.02	.12**	.07	.17
	Okul-ev işbirliği temelli kat.	.19	.04	.11**	.06	.15
Eşin ebeveynliğini kötüleme	Özyeterlilik inançları	-.11	.02	-.13**	-.19	-.08
	Okul temelli katılım	-.08	.03	-.07**	-.11	-.02
	Ev temelli katılım	-.06	.02	-.10**	-.15	-.05
Eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama	Rol etkinlik inançları	.14	.05	.09**	.03	.15
	Okul temelli katılım	-.10	.04	-.06*	-.12	-.01
İş bölümü	Rol etkinlik inançları	-.18	.06	-.08**	-.14	-.03
	Okul temelli katılım	-.08	.05	-.04	-.09	.01
	Ev temelli katılım	-.08	.03	-.08**	-.12	-.03
Rol etkinlik inançları	Okul temelli katılım	.23	.02	.24**	.19	.30
	Ev temelli katılım	.09	.01	.18**	.13	.23
	Okul-ev işbirliği temelli kat.	.36	.03	.26**	.21	.31
Özyeterlilik inançları	Okul temelli katılım	.13	.04	.09**	.04	.15
	Ev temelli katılım	.19	.02	.25**	.20	.30
	Okul-ev işbirliği temelli kat.	.27	.05	.13**	.08	.18

**$p < .01$

Son olarak, araştırmada, rol etkinlik ve özyeterlik inançlarının, ebeveynlerin aile katılım düzeylerine ilişkin boyutların tamamını olumlu bir biçimde yordadığı bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlar, çocuklarının eğitimine katılma konusunda daha fazla rol ve özyeterlilik inançları olan ebeveynlerin, katılım türlerine bakılmaksızın aile katılım etkinliklerine daha fazla katılma eğiliminde olduklarını göstermektedir. Araştırmanın

bu bulguları, aile katılım süreçleri modeli ve ilgili araştırmalardan elde edilen bulgularla tutarlılık göstermektedir (Deslandes ve Bertrand, 2005; Freund vd., 2018; Green vd., 2007; Kaya ve Bacanlı, 2016; Lavenda, 2011; Park ve Holloway, 2018; Reed, Jones, Walker, ve Hoover-Dempsey, 2000; Sheldon, 2002; Yamamoto, Holloway, ve Suzuki, 2006). Bu araştırmalara ek olarak, okul temelli ve ev temelli katılımın yanında, okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılıma yönelik de bu iki güdüsel inanç değişkeninin yordayıcı etkisi olduğu bu araştırmada bulunmuştur.

3.2.2 Aile Katılımına Yönelik Güdüsel İnançların, Ortak Ebeveynlik İlişkilerinin Niteliği ve Aile Katılım Düzeyi Arasındaki İlişki Açısından Arabuluculuk Rolü

Tablo 8'de görüldüğü gibi, yol analizi sonuçları, ebeveynlerin rol etkinlik inançlarının eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama ve ev, okul-ev işbirliği ve okul temelli katılım, arasındaki ilişkilerde tam arabuluculuk rolleri oynadığını göstermiştir. Bu bulgu, yalnızca ebeveynler kendilerini sorumlu hissettiklerinde, eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama ve işbirliğinin farklı katılım düzeyleri üzerinde etkisi olduğu anlamına gelir.

Bununla beraber, ebeveyn rol etkinlik inançları, ortak ebeveynlikte destek ve okul, ev ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım; eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama ve okul temelli katılım ve ev temelli katılım arasındaki ilişkilerde kısmi arabuluculuk rolleri oynadığı bulunmuştur. Bunun anlamı, ortak ebeveynlikte destek, eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama ve işbirliğinin aile katılım değişkenleri üzerindeki etkileri kısmen de olsa, ebeveynlerin rol etkinlik inançlarına bağlıdır. Başka bir ifadeyle, ortak ebeveynliğin bu boyutları, ebeveynlerin rol etkinlik algılarıyla birlikte daha güçlü etkiler yaratabilir.

Araştırmada, rol etkinlik inançlarının arabuluculuk rolleri açsısından ilginç bir sonuçla karşılaşılmıştır. Şöyle ki, her ne kadar eşin ebeveynliğini onaylamanın okul temelli katılım üzerindeki doğrudan etkisi negatif yönlü olsa da, rol etkinlik inançlarının arabulucu olarak devreye girmesiyle, bu etki pozitif yönlü etkiye dönüşmektedir. Bu sonuç, rol etkinlik inançlarının, eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama ve okul temelli katılım arasındaki ilişkisinin yönünü değiştiren altta yatan bir mekanizma olarak önemli bir rol oynadığını gösterebilir. Bu sonuç, daha önceden de vurgulandığı

gibi rol inançlarının, aile katılımı için güçlü bir belirleyici faktör olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır (Hoover-Dempsey ve Sandler, 1997; LeRoy vd., 2013; Feinberg, 2003).

Yol analizi sonuçları ayrıca ebeveynlerin özyeterlik inançlarının ortak ebeveynlikte destek ve okul, ev ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım; eşin ebeveynliğini kötüleme, ve okul ve ev temelli katılım arasındaki ilişkiler için kısmı arabuluculuk rolleri oynadığını göstermiştir. Bunun anlamı, ortak ebeveynlikte desteğin aile katılım değişkenleri üzerindeki etkileri kısmen de olsa, ebeveynlerin özyeterlik inançlarına bağlı olmasıdır. Başka bir deyişle, ortak ebeveynlikte destek, aile katılımı üzerinde ebeveynlerin özyeterlik algılarıyla birlikte daha güçlü etkiler yaratabilir.

Diğer yandan, ebeveynlerin özyeterlik inançları eşin ebeveynliğini kötüleme ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım, ortak ebeveynlikte anlaşma ve okul, ev ve okul-ev işbirliği temelli katılım arasındaki ilişkiler arasında tam arabuluculuk rolleri oynamaktadır. Bunun anlamı, ortak ebeveynlikte destek ve eşin ebeveynliğini kötülemenin, aile katılım değişkenleri üzerindeki etkilerinin tamamen ebeveynlerin özyeterlik inançlarına bağlı olduğudur.

Hoover-Dempsey ve Sandler'ın (1995) modeline dayanan önceki çalışmalar, ebeveynlerin rol etkinliklerinin ve özyeterlik inançlarının katılım düzeyleri üzerindeki önemli etkilerini göstermiştir. Bunu bir adım daha ileriye götürerek, bu araştırma, ebeveynlerin rol etkinlik ve özyeterlik inançlarının, daha önce başka araştırmalar tarafından da bulunan, ebeveynlerin eğitime katılımı ile ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerini açıklayan bir mekanizma olabileceğini ortaya koymaktadır (ör., Berryhill, 2017; Chen vd., 2017). Araştırmanın rol ve özyeterlik inançlarının arabuluculuk rolleriyle ilgili bulguları, aile sistemindeki ebeveynler arasındaki ilişkinin, onların katılımlarına olan etkilerini açıklamada bir adım olarak görülebilir.

Tablo 8

Doğrudan ve dolaylı etkilere ilişkin sonuçlar

Bağımsız değişken	Bağımlı değişken	Toplam etki	Doğrudan etki	Dolaylı etki
Ortak ebeveynlikte anlaşma	Okul temelli katılım	.01**	-	.01**
	Ev temelli katılım	.03**	-	.03**
	Okul-ev işbirliği temelli kat.	.02**	-	.02**
Ortak ebeveynlikte destek	Okul temelli katılım	.12**	.07*	.05**
	Ev temelli katılım	.18**	.12**	.06**
	Okul-ev işbirliği temelli kat.	.16**	.11**	.04**
Eşin ebeveynliğini kötüleme	Okul temelli katılım	-.08**	-.07**	-.01**
	Ev temelli katılım	-.13**	-.10**	-.03**
	Okul-ev işbirliği temelli kat.	-02**	-	-.02**
Eşin ebeveynliğini onaylama	Okul temelli katılım	-.04	-.06*	.02**
	Ev temelli katılım	.02**	-	.02**
	Okul-ev işbirliği temelli kat.	.02**	-	.02**
İş bölümü	Okul temelli katılım	-.06*	-04	-.02**
	Ev temelli katılım	-.09**	-.08*	-.02**
	Okul-ev işbirliği temelli kat.	-.02**	-	-.02**

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

3.3 Kuram, Araştırma ve Uygulamaya Yönelik Öneriler

Bu araştırma, özellikle erken çocukluk eğitiminde ebeveynlerin eğitime katılımına yönelik, gerek ulusal gerekse uluslararası bağlamda kuram ve araştırmalara yönelik önemli katkılar sunmaktadır. En net ifadeyle, bu araştırma aile katılımı alanında gerçekleştirilmiş araştırmalar tarafından şimdiye kadar ihmal edildiği belirtilen aile sistemiyle (Jeynes, 2011) katılım arasındaki ilişkilerin anlaşılması açısından önemli bulgular sunmaktadır. Araştırmada elde edilen, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin eğitime ebeveyn katılımı üzerindeki dolaylı ve doğrudan etkilerine yönelik

kanıtlar Aile Sistem Kuramının temel varsayımlarından olan aile üyelerinin davranış ve inançlarının birbirlerine bağlı olması ve ailedeki bireylerin inanç ve davranışlarının diğer üyeleri etkilemesi varsayımını desteklemektedir (Minuchin, 1985). Bu bağlamda, bu araştırma eşler arasındaki ilişkilerin olası yordayıcı rollerini ortaya çıkararak, aile katılım araştırmalarına yeni bir pencere açmaktadır. Özellikle, ulusal alan yazınındaki aile katılımı çalışmaları için, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin tanıtılması, ailenin eğitime katılımında aile içi ilişkilerin de etkili olabileceği seçeneğinin de değerlendirilmesi gerekliliğini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu, aile katılımının aile içi ilişkileri de düşünerek yeniden tanımlanabileceği ve aile ile okulu daha sağlam bir birlikteliğin gerçekleştirilebileceği seçeneklere zemin hazırlamaktadır (Demircan, 2018). Ayrıca, araştırmanın bir parçası olarak, eşler arasındaki bu ilişkinin değerlendirilmesi için daha sonraki araştırmalarda kullanılabilecek geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı olan Ortak Ebeveynlik ilişkileri Ölçeği (Feinberg vd., 2013) ulusal alan yazına kazandırılmıştır.

Bu araştırmada, ebeveynler arasındaki ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileri, gerek doğrudan gerekse ebeveynlerin eğitime katılımına ilişkin güdüsel inançları yoluyla ebeveynlerin eğitime katılım düzeylerini etkilediği bulunmuştur. Bu sonuç, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerin, özellikle ortak ebeveynlikte destek boyutunun geliştirilmesinin, ebeveynlerin eğitime katılım düzeylerini arttırabileceğini göstermektedir. Eğitim kurumlarında, bu ortaklığın önemine dikkat çekmek ve ebeveynlere nasıl "ortak ebeveyn" olabileceklerine dair bilgilerin paylaşmak için ortamlar yaratılabilir. Bu konuda, aile eğitimleri ya da etkinlikler düzenlenebilir. Ayrıca, öğretmenler ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerini düşünerek aile katılım etkinliklerini planlayabilirler. Öğretmelere yol göstermesi için hazırlanan OBADER'e ortak ebeveynlik konusu eklenebilir.

Araştırmadan elde edilen çarpıcı sonuçlardan biri, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin okul temelli katılımı yordamada, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerinin daha fazla katıldığı görülmüştür. Bu, eğitime katılımda daha az tercih edildiği bilinen okul temelli katılımın desteklenmesi için bu tür ilişkilerin iyileştirilmesinin bir fırsat olabileceğini

anlamına gelir. Daha önce de değinildiği üzere, ortak ebeveynlik ilişkilerine yönelik eğitim programlarıyla ailelerin bu tür ilişkilerde kendilerini geliştirmeleri sağlanabilir.

3.4 Gelecekteki Araştırmalar için Öneriler

Bu araştırma, aile içindeki belirli bir sistemi, eğitimde aile katılımı ile bütünleştiren bir araştırma alanına giriş olarak düşünülebilir. Ön analizlerde, demografik değişkenlerin araştırma değişkenleri üzerindeki olası etkileri incelenmekle birlikte bu değişkenler araştırmanın ana odağında değildir. Dolayısıyla, bundan sonraki araştırmalar, cinsiyet farklılıkları, çalışma durumu, gelir ve eğitim düzeyi gibi aile sistemine ilişkin demografik değişkenlerin araştırmada ele alınan ilişkilere olan etkileri incelenerek bu alandaki alan yazın genişletilebilir.

Araştırmada, örneklem okul öncesi eğitim kurumlarına kayıtlı 36-72 ay arası çocukların ebeveynleriyle sınırlandırılmıştır. Araştırmada ele alınan değişkenler ve ilişkiler, daha küçük yaş grubu çocuklarda, okul öncesi eğitime katılım bağlamında incelenebilir. Yine, boşanmış eşlerden, üvey anne ve/veya babadan oluşan farklı aile yapılarında ya da büyükanne ve büyükbabanın ebeveyn rolünde olduğu aileler için de bu ilişkiler incelenebilir. Bununla birlikte, güncel araştırmalarca da ortaya atılan, ebeveynlerin katılımlarını etkileyebilecek okul ve eğitimle ilişkili inançlarının (ör., program inançları; Antony-Newman, 2019); ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileri, güdüsel inançlar ve katılım düzeyleriyle olan doğrudan ve dolaylı ilişkileri incelenebilir.

Araştırmanın verileri, geçerlilik ve güvenirlik kaygısıyla, bir ailedeki sadece anne ya da babadan toplanmıştır. Gelecekteki araştırmalarda, uygun ortamlar sağlanarak, aynı ailedeki hem anne hem de babadan veriler toplanıp, nesnelliğin sağlanması ve yanlılığı en aza indirmek için "aktör-ortak bağımlılık modeli" (actor-partner interdependence model [APIM]) aracılığıyla analizler gerçekleştirilebilir (Cook ve Kenny, 2005). Araştırmada, yine daha geçerli ve güvenilir sonuçlara ulaşmak adına, gözlemlenen değişkenler aracılığıyla yol analizleri gerçekleştirilmiştir. Gelecekteki araştırmalarda yapısal eşitlik modellemesi (YEM) ile gizil değişkenler aracılığıyla ilişkileri test edilebilir.

Ayrıca, araştırmada ebeveynlerin eğitime katılım ve ortak ebeveynlik ilişkileriyle ilgili görüşleri, öz bildirime dayanan ölçme araçlarıyla elde edilmiştir. Gelecekte yapılacak araştırmalarda, ilgili değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler daha derinlemesine incelenmesi için gözlem ve görüşme gibi nitel veri toplama yöntemlerine de başvurulabilir.

Son olarak, araştırma ilişkisel desen bağlamında yürütülmüş; bun sebeple, saptanan ilişkiler neden sonuç ilişkisi bağlamında değerlendirilemez. Dolayısıyla, değişkenler arasında neden sonuç ilişkisine yönelik kanıtlar sunabilecek deneysel araştırmaların yapılması önerilir. Ayrıca, boylamsal araştırmalarla, ilişkilerin süre içerisinde değişip değişmediği de incelenebilir.

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TEZİN ADI / TITLE OF THE THESIS (**İngilizce** / English): COPARENTING AND PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATION: THE MEDIATING ROLES OF MOTIVATIONAL BELIEFS

TEZİN TÜRÜ / DEGREE**:** **Yüksek Lisans** / Master ☐ **Doktora** / PhD ■

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