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South-Asian American and Asian-Indian Americans Parents: Children's Education and Parental Participation

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Abstract

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MS, Touro College, 2007

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Parental participation supports students' academic success and increases positive peer interactions. Prior to the 1980s, parental participation was viewed as a unidimensional construct; however, it has since been understood as a multidimensional one. Studies from Epstein have demonstrated that culture, community, and family structures are some of the many factors that affect parental participation. In addition, Huntsinger and Jose have demonstrated that Asian-American parents participate in their children's education differently than do European Americans, yet research has not examined the specificities of South-Asian Americans' (SAAs) and Asian-Indian Americans' (AIAs) parental involvement. There are 6 recognized methods that parents can use to participate in their child's education. Assuming that the methods of participation used by parents can affect their children's academic performance and social development, the purpose of this study was to examine these methods of parental participation with respect to AIAs and SAAs. Using Epstein's questionnaire, 308 AIA/SAA parents were recruited who had a child born in the United States and who was attending a U.S. school between kindergarten and Grade 2 at the time of the study. MANOVA and ANOVA tests were used to calculate whether a significant difference existed amongst the 6 methods of parental participation, based on the gender of the parent or the gender of the child. There was no significant preference among the 6 methods of parental participation, nor was any difference found that related to the gender of the child. However, the results indicated that mothers were more involved than fathers in their child's education, although there was no preference among the 6 methods. Given the lack of clear direction emergent in these findings, implications for future research to further the understanding of parental participation of SAA/AIA are discussed.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my son, Aarush Sahil Shah, who is my Number 1 hero.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

President Franklin D. Roosevelt once said, "We may not be able to prepare the future for our children, but we can at least prepare our children for the future." Schools, families (particularly parents or guardians), and the community all play major roles in preparing and shaping children's futures. They teach children to be successful adults by instilling values, providing discipline, and surrounding them with positive supporters such as friends, role models, and teachers (McGraw, 2012). Family, community, and school personnel all positively or negatively affect children's behaviors. When all parties work toward similar goals, students' academic performance, attendance, and homework completion improve (Dauber & Epstein, 1989; Sheldon & Epstein, 2004; Sheldon, Epstein, & Galindo, 2010). Administrators and school staff have an obligation to communicate and cooperate with parents in order to maximize parental participation in children's education. Regardless of students' race, religion, or ethnicity, when teachers are determined to help and teach their students, parents are more willing to cooperate with teachers, develop more positive attitudes toward the school, and consequently help to improve the students' academic and social performances (Cole, 1985; Comer, 1984; Lenka & Kant, 2012; Sheppard, 2010).

In the United States, schools must educate diverse populations. Many students have been born in other countries and come from diverse cultural, religious, and ethnic backgrounds. This diversity presents additional challenges to public education, such as inadequate teaching materials and crowded classrooms (Han, 2008). Nevertheless, the school remains responsible for educating its students and for communicating with and involving parents. Since parents' level of

involvement, attitudes toward the school, and expectations for their children affect the students' social behaviors and academics (e.g. Epstein, 1987, 2011; Huntsinger & Jose, 2009b), developing strategies to enhance communication and cooperation between teachers and parents is important, particularly among different ethnic groups (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009c). This need is reflected in state and federal laws as well as in research-based education policy, which not only provides educational access to ethnic and gender minorities but also encourages parental participation and positive relationship development between families and schools (Epstein & Sheldon, 2006). The Department of Education, for example, gives students the right to a Free Appropriate Public Education (ED Pubs, 2010). Moreover, the Department of Education states that public schools are obligated to teach students from different socioeconomic statuses (SESs), different cultural groups, and different religions (Epstein, 1987). Teachers, administrators, and other school officials are encouraged to communicate with their students' parents in order to increase parental participation (e.g. Epstein, 1982, 1986a, 1986b, 1987, 2011; Lenka & Kant, 2012; Parker et al., 1997).

Prior to the 1980s, parental involvement was defined as a "unidimensional" construct. Researchers tended to correlate one method of involvement (i.e., parents communicating with school employees) with students' academic performance (i.e., students' grades) (Parker et al., 1997; Stevenson & Baker, 1987). Epstein (1982), however, suggested that parental involvement does not necessarily consist of only one method. Instead, Epstein proposed a multidimensional framework that included parents attending parent/teacher conferences, assigning additional work to the child, and serving as chaperones at school functions. Epstein (1982, 2011) suggested that schools should develop plans to encourage multiple forms of parental involvement.

Research has indicated that effective cooperation and communication between parents and teachers positively enhances students' academic performance and social development. Those students who receive parental support at the elementary and secondary levels demonstrate higher levels of achievement and more frequently pursue higher education long after their parents have ceased their direct involvement. In addition, parental involvement correlates with lower levels of grade retention throughout elementary and secondary school (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Huntsinger & Jose, 2009b; Huntsinger, Jose, Larson, Krieg, & Shaligram, 2000). These results confirm the positive effects of parental involvment and suggest that schools should consider multiple methods for continuously improving parental participation.

Cultural and traditional differences between minority ethnic groups in today's public schools may affect students' methods of participation. These methods may differ from those of typical Caucasians (or European Americans [EAs]), which presents a growing challenge for schools--especially if such cultural differences are unacknowledged or misunderstood (e.g., Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). The methods of participation of Asian-American (particularly Chinese-American [CA]) students are distinct from those of EA students. To examine these differences, Huntsinger and colleagues (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c; Huntsinger, Jose, Krieg, & Luo, 2011; Huntsinger, Jose, & Larson, 1998) conducted a longitudinal study comparing the methods of participation among EAs and CAs. The study assessed 40 second-generation CAs (20 boys and 20 girls) and 40 EAs (20 boys and 20 girls) from well-educated, two-parent, middle-class suburban families. All of the children assessed in the study were born in the United States. The EA children's parents were also born and raised in the United States (with the exception of two fathers), and the CA children's parents were born in Taiwan, China, Hong Kong, or the Philippines. At the beginning of the study, the participants' children were in either

preschool or kindergarten. The parents were reassessed when their child was in first or second grade, and once more when their child was in third or fourth grade. The results showed that in the case of emergencies, both EA and CA parents were willing to go to their child's school or participate in meetings. The CA parents spent more time assisting their children with academics (e.g., assigning additional work) and problem solving. They were also open to learning new techniques. The EA parents, on the other hand, spent more time participating in parent/teacher conferences. Jose, Huntsinger, Huntsinger, and Liaw (2000) expanded on Huntsinger et al.'s original study to examine Taiwanese-American parents' methods of participation. Jose et al. concluded that the tendencies of the Taiwanese-American parents were similar to those of CA parents.

Proper parental involvement does not only improve students' academic performance, it also improves their social and cognitive development. When parents and teachers work together, it helps to address behavioral problems and social functioning (Catterfeld, 2003; El Nokali, Bachman, & Votruba-Drzal, 2010). Parents are responsible for teaching their children proper social behaviors and basic values. As children get older, they learn new values through their interaction with and positive reinforcement from peers and other adults such as teachers (Acat & Aslan, 2012; Hultsman, 1993; Rimm, 2012). Finally, parental involvement decreases the child's predisposition for engaging in risky behaviors (Heritage Foundation, 2013). As children get older, especially when they enter high school, the frequency of parental participation decreases (Ma, 1999). According to Hayden (2010), in 2007, 89% of parents of elementary students reported attending PTO or general school meetings, but only 83% of parents of high school students attended these meetings.

Although Huntsinger and Jose (2009a, 2009b, 2009c) and Huntsinger et al. (2011) have consistently demonstrated that cultural differences exist among Asian-American and EA groups, these studies have been limited to students whose parents were born in Far East Asian countries (i.e., China and Taiwan). Parents from South Asian countries (or the Indian subcontinent, i.e., India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh) have not been represented in the body of their research. It is important that schools understand how other Asian parents participate in their child's education, as their culture, behaviors, and attitudes toward U.S. education may differ from those of CAs.

Background

Parents, family members, school board members, and residents of the community are responsible for a child's development. As an old African proverb attests, "It takes a village to raise a child." This idea is even more important when working with children from different cultural backgrounds who may practice different rituals and traditions. Today, it is likely that a teacher or a school official will enter a school or classroom without knowing the cultural backgrounds of their students—including, but not limited to, their race, religion, SES, and family type (e.g., extended, blended, foster, and nuclear). These cultural attributes can affect parents' views, attitudes, and methods of participation as well as students' academic performance (Epstein, 2011a).

Parents and school employees need to work as a team, rather than as individuals, to improve students' academic performance. Epstein (2011a) argued that, in most instances, schools view a student's school life and home life as two separate entities, whereas it would be more productive to combine these two aspects and view the student's life in its entirety. Proper partnerships between schools, communities, and families can encourage this and ensure that the child is viewed as an individual.

Schools are responsible for introducing formal education to students, involving parents (or other community and/or family members) in children's education, and assisting families in making decisions that will help their children's education. Huntsinger and Jose (2009b, 2009c) demonstrated that individuals from various cultures perform differently when it comes to academics. Specifically, studies have reported that CAs perform better in academics than EAs. However, relatively little is known about the parental involvement of other Asian parents, such as Asian Indian Americans (AIAs) and how their methods of involvement may differ. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct further research on AIAs' methods of parental participation in order to enhance the knowledge in this field and to discover ways of increasing parental participation among other ethnic minorities. In the remaining parts of this chapter, I will discuss the purpose of this study, its research questions, and the overall conceptual framework of parental involvement. In addition, I will define certain key terms in order to clarify the study and prevent confusion throughout the discussion. This chapter will lead to the subsequent expansion of the literature review and methodology in Chapters 2 and 3, respectively.

Need for the Study

The term "Asians" is often misinterpreted as individuals from Far East Asia (i.e., China and Japan). These individuals, however, only account for a portion of the total Asian population—Asians from other parts of the continent, including Southern Asia (i.e., India and Pakistan), are often overlooked as Asians. Because they speak different languages and observe different traditions, rituals, and religious practices, South Asians are distinct from other Asian groups (Government of India, 2011a). As a result, South Asians may participate in their children's education in a manner unfamiliar to American educators, because educators might expect these parents to behave similarly to Far East Asian parents. Researchers have done only

limited research on the childhood development and parental participation of South Asians (i.e., Asian Indians [AIs]). Therefore, researching and understanding parental involvement is important for helping schools to develop additional methods of parental participation; to foster positive communication skills between schools, teachers, and parents; and to develop relevant interventions and programs for Asian families that have not been considered in the research to date. Teachers and other school staff need to understand how South Asian cultures differ from other Asian cultures in order to better understand the methods of parental involvement of other ethnic groups in the United States.

The AIA population grew from 1.6 million in 2000 to 2.6 million in 2009, surpassing the Filipino population and making AIAs the second-largest Asian group in the United States (El Nasser & Overberg, 2011). Nagra, Skeel, and Sbraga (2007) estimated that there are more than 3.5 million South Asian Americans (SAAs, or people from India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka) residing in the United States, and 90% of those are AIs or AIAs. Today, South Asians, specifically AIAs, are increasingly represented in U.S. business and government (e.g., Nimrata "Nikki" Haley, Governor of South Carolina; Preetinder "Preet" Bharara, U.S. Attorney for the Southern District of New York; and Piyush "Bobby" Jindal, Governor of Louisiana), television programs (e.g., Kunal Nayyar from "The Big Bang Theory" and Dr. Sanjay Gupta from CNN), music and entertainment (e.g., Norah Jones and Manoj "M. Night" Shyamalan), and science (e.g., Sunita Williams) (El Nasser & Overberg, 2011). Similar to Asian Americans, AIs or AIAs are also considered "model minorities;" however, AIs tend to retain a stronger ethnic identity than CAs, which could influence their methods of participation (El Nasser & Overberg, 2011). The culture, traditions, behaviors, and relationships among schools, families, and the various communities of South Asians (i.e., AIs, Pakistanis, and Bangladeshis) are worth understanding

so that researchers can develop more well-rounded methods of parental participation with respect to this ethnic group. Regardless of the individual's social or ethnic group, increased communication and parental participation foster trust and bring teachers, family members, and members of the community closer together, helping to build more successful partnerships. As Epstein (2011a) argued, "trust and respect cannot be legislated or mandated but must be developed over time within school communities" (p. 599). When teachers work with AIA students, it is important that they understand how parents prefer to participate in their children's education so that they can foster positive communication and develop positive relationships among schools, families, and communities. Failing to do so could result in negative relationships and alienation for both parents and students.

Research Design

To measure the outcome of parental participation of SAA/AIAs, I collected the data using a quantitative statistical study. The descriptive design measured which methods of participation were significant among a sample of Asian Indian parents in order to gain a better understanding of their methods of participation in their children's education.

Research Questions

Researching and studying the methods of parental participation used by SAA/AIAs will assist schools in developing additional approaches to communicating with the parents and family members of AIA students. This study addressed the following questions:

- Is there a preferred parental participation style for SAA/AIA parents whose children attend a school in the United States?

- Is there a difference between the preferred parental participation styles of SAA/AIA mothers and AIA fathers whose children attend a school in the United States?
- Does the method of parental participation differ based on the gender of the children that attend a school in the United States?

Problem Statement

Parental participation is important for improving students' social and academic performance. Low parental participation could negatively impact children's performance, leading to chronic absences, experiments with drugs and alcohol, and risky sexual behaviors (e.g., Sheldon & Epstein, 2004; Vevea, Iritani, Cho, Khatapoush, & Saxe, 2002). Epstein and Becker (1982); Dauber and Epstein (1989); and Epstein, Galindo, and Sheldon (2011) identified and categorized multiple methods that parents use when participating in their children's education (i.e., parenting, communication, and learning at home). They drew their research and conclusions primarily from participants from one- and two-parent homes in several regions of Maryland. To date, however, researchers have not sufficiently included parents from various ethnic or cultural groups, nor answered the question of which methods of participation SAA/AIA parents prefer when assisting their children in academics.

Huntsinger et al. (1998), Huntsinger et al. (2000), and Huntsinger and Jose (2009a) compared the cultural differences in parental participation between CAs and EAs and their relationships with their children. Their results demonstrated that CA children performed better in school than their EA counterparts. Furthermore, CA parents focused primarily on their child's grades and academics, while EA parents preferred to communicate with their child's teachers. Researchers should observe the methods of other ethnic groups that succeed academically and

economically because this information could assist teachers and administrators in applying additional methods of participation to other ethnic groups. Huntsinger et al. (1998), Huntsinger et al. (2000), and Huntsinger and Jose (2009a) suggested that further research is needed to address how family structure (e.g., single parents) impacts parents' methods of participation. Portes (2011) studied the barriers to parental involvement for Latinos, EAs, and African Americans of two-parent families. He suggested that it might be beneficial to consider whether these barriers also apply to members of one-parent household. As a result, for my study, I will consider the existence of certain barriers along with the methods of SAAs/AIA's participation.

Parents influence their children not only during their elementary years but also during their early childhood education, such as preschool. Chuo (2012) observed that Asian American parents of preschool students participated most in home-based situations, as compared to school-based or home-school conferences. Furthermore, Asian-American children were more advanced in early literacy skills when it came to alphabetic principles, but less so in comprehension skills. Children (both Asian and non-Asian Americans) had higher early literacy comprehension skills and concepts when parents participated more in home-based involvement. Jeffries (2012) developed an intervention to study the effect on early literacy of active parental participation among Head Start parents and their preschool children through home-based and school-based involvement and home-school conferencing. Participants in the intervention group first participated in a 75 to 90 minute training session in methods to implement early literacy intervention and home-based involvement; parents of the control group received informational brochures and a 30-minute presentation discussing the importance of reading. The results of Jeffries' study suggested that implementing a learning-at-home strategy (home-based involvement) might be effective at increasing literacy in early childhood. Jeffries suggested,

however, that it might be beneficial to observe whether intervention for learning at home differs among individuals from other SESs and grade levels. Chuo also argued that researchers should continue to study Asian children's literacy at kindergarten and first-grade levels.

There has been little research demonstrating how parents from other ethnic groups, such as SAA/AIAs, participate in their child's education as well as how their methods could differ from those of EA and CA parents. Huntsinger et al. (2000) demonstrated some cultural differences among CAs and EAs in terms of their methods of parental participation. Huntsinger et al. asserted that it is important to understand the cultural differences and methods of CAs' parental involvement because CA children outperform other ethnic groups in academics in the United States. Understanding the factors influencing the academic success rate of these minorities can assist schools and researchers in teaching other ethnic minorities the best parental participation methods. Since, as Kumar and Nevid (2010) pointed out, SAA/AIAs are another successful minority group both academically and economically, my study addresses the need to learn more about the methods of participation of SAA/AIAs.

Han (2008) estimated that 17% of children in the United States live in households with at least one foreign-born parent. When immigrants settle in another country, they may have difficulty adjusting to their new surroundings. This can be even more difficult if they are unfamiliar with the new customs, educational systems, and cultural norms. Kumar and Nevid (2010) argued, however, that due to India's previous status as a British colony, AIs have had greater exposure to Western culture and, as such, tend to have fewer difficulties adjusting. They estimated that more than 75% of AIAs are proficient in English, more than 60% have completed a bachelor's degree (or higher), and more than 70% participate in the workforce. Among this 70%, 56% hold managerial or professional positions. Today, AIA students are populating U.S.

schools. As such, U.S. schools need to be more competent in addressing these cultural changes. If research and subsequent school policy focus only on EA paradigms of parental involvement, then schools could fail to recognize the important contributions of other stakeholder groups.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to determine the methods that SAA/AIAs prefer to use when participating in their children's education. Compared to other American minorities, SAA/AIAs have the highest educational qualifications and number of professional careers (e.g., engineer, doctor) in the United States (Kumar & Nevid, 2010). The ways in which SAA/AIA parents participate in their child's education could be one of the key factors contributing to their child's academic success. The results of this study will assist school programs and districts in understanding SAA/AIA parents' methods of participation and attitudes toward education, allowing for the development of more cohesive programs designed to enhance parental participation. Huntsinger and Jose (2009a) explained that studying the methods of parental participation employed by ethnic groups that are economically and academically successful could be of benefit to schools. This information could encourage them to develop alternative or additional methods to increase parental participation among disadvantaged groups and to increase positive relationships among parents, teachers, family members, and members of the community.

The studies of Huntsinger and Jose (2009a, 2009b, 2009c) and Huntsinger et al. (1998, 2011) were limited to Far Eastern Asians and did not study other ethnic Asians. Today, AIA cultures are a demonstrably important part of American culture. American media have demonstrated both positive and negative attitudes toward AIs and AIAs. Sitcoms (e.g., *The Good Wife*) and films (e.g., *The Namesake* and *Monsoon Wedding*) have enriched AI and AIA culture,

portraying AIs and AIAs in a realistic, sympathetic manner; other sitcoms, however, (e.g., *The Simpsons* and *The Big Bang Theory*) and movies (e.g., *The Harold and Kumar Trilogy*) have parodied, misrepresented, and/or stereotyped SAA/AIA behaviors. Recognizing these rapid changes in our media is important because certain media contribute to and sometimes define certain stereotypical behaviors associated with minority groups. The influence of AIs and AIAs in American culture (i.e., in media, business, and government.) is yet another reason that teachers, students, and other school professionals can benefit from the findings of this study, as it will help schools to understand and improve parental participation among other minority groups.

SAA/AIAs differ from other groups not only in terms of their behaviors, but also in terms of their treatment of their sons and daughters. Such differences could affect the methods of participation used by AI mothers and fathers. Even though many parents once feared that if their daughters completed school, they would have more difficulty finding spouses, Anandalakshmy (1998) argued that it is easier for young women to find spouses if they complete school. This liberation could affect the methods of parental participation used by SAA/AIA mothers and fathers with respect to their sons and daughters. The results of this study will not only give school administrators a better understanding of how SAA/AIA parents participate in their child's education but also specify the ways in which mothers and fathers prefer to participate in their sons' and daughters' education. This knowledge could, in turn, enhance more positive parent-school and student-school communication.

Conceptual Framework

Schools, home, and the community are the three settings where children learn, grow, and develop. Regardless of the location of the school (i.e. rural or urban), school employees, teachers, and administrators will encounter parents who may participate in their children's

education differently from the "norm" due to cultural and traditional differences (Epstein, 2006). Parents should cooperate with their schools and other members of the community and develop multidimensional approaches to increase parents' participation in their child's education. Epstein et al. (1995, 2011a) conducted several studies among elementary and secondary school students between 1981 and 1991 in order to generate a framework of six types of parental involvement: parenting, communication, volunteering, learning at home, decision making, and collaborating with the community (discussed in detail in Chapter 2). The development of this framework has led to the implementation of different methods of teaching and has been useful for policy-making in schools and diverse communities (Epstein, 2009; Epstein & Sheldon, 2006).

Epstein and Sheldon (2006, p. 122) adapted the six types of parental involvement by the National PTA and the No Child Left Behind Act as "its 'standards' for all schools to inform and involve parents and community partners in schools and in children's education" (further explained in Chapter 2). School administrators may select several practices from the six types of involvement in order to encourage positive relationships among teachers, parents, students, and members of the community—that is, using technology as a form of communication (Type 2) or volunteering at school (Type 3; Epstein 1995, 2009, 2011a).

The results of Epstein and Sheldon (2006) showed the importance of parental participation. To expand the study of parental participation, researchers may adopt Epstein's six types of involvement as their framework. The results of such studies should help families feel welcome and assist parents in supporting their child at school. For example, it is important for schools in more diverse areas to develop methods to increase communication among parents and teachers. This framework should help researchers to focus their studies on increasing the

understanding of what schools could do differently to involve families and on providing parents with productive options for their involvement (Epstein & Sheldon, 2006).

Definitions

Several terms used in this research have subjective meanings in the context of discussions on behaviors and specific groups. For the sake of clarity, I define the following relevant terms thusly:

Asian Indian Americans: Asian Indian Americans (AIAs) are people who reside in the United States but who originated in India (or the Indian subcontinent) either by birth or through ancestry.

Eastern Asians: Eastern Asians are those individuals who originated from Far Eastern countries (i.e., China, Japan, and Korea).

European Americans: For the purpose of this study, European Americans (EAs) are defined as white Americans who were born and raised in the United States but whose ancestors came from European countries (e.g., Spain, England).

Parents: Parents are the male and female caregivers, biological parents, or legal guardians of a child (or children).

Raised: For the purpose of this study, when an individual is said to have been raised in a country, it implies that he or she completed all formal schooling in his or her country of birth (i.e., primary, secondary, and, if applicable, undergraduate) and came to the United States when he or she was at least 22 years old or after marriage.

South Asian Americans: For the purpose of this research, South Asian Americans (SAAs) are defined as individuals who originated in Southern Asian countries that were once part of India (i.e., Pakistan, Bangladesh, India, and Sri Lanka), either first- or second-generation.

Assumptions

The study is based on the assumption that providing knowledge of the social behaviors of other cultural groups can improve relationships between schools, families, and communities, and that it can give teachers a better understanding of the preferred methods for developing relationships with parents from other cultural groups. Understanding and appreciating the cultural differences among SAA/AIAs will improve the relationships between the community, families, and schools, and give schools additional methods to enhance the parental participation among other Asian groups.

Limitations

The findings from this study may not be generalizable to all AIs or AIAs. India is a diverse country with more than 15 different languages and thousands of different dialects; it is also the home of four major religions (Hinduism, Jainism, Buddhism, and Sikhism), with other religions practiced as well (e.g., Islam and Christianity; Government of India, 2011). Some Indians have called their native country "a continent within a country" because of the vast cultural differences among its citizens (Arnett, 2006, p. 3). Religious practices, foods, culture, and rituals differ not only between states but also between villages. These differences may not only affect family practices but also parental methods of participating in a child's education. While there were limited studies conducted among Asian-Indians in the United States, Kiassen (2004) demonstrated that Asian-Indians residing in Canada (primarily Panjabi Sheiks) have outperformed Anglo Canadians in mathematics. Additional studies are needed to further understand the academic success of Asian-Indians residing in the United States.

Delimitations

Delimitations of the experimental boundaries of the study included the following: (a) All participants had to have at least one child born in the United States (or who immigrated to the United States before beginning prekindergarten); (b) in each participating couple, at least one of the partners had to have been born and raised in South Asia; and (c) each participating couple had to have at least one child between kindergarten and second grade who was attending an American public elementary school. The survey was administered in English because more than 75% of AIAs are proficient in English (Kuman & Nevid, 2010). Since Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka were once part of India, not becoming independent nations until 1947, 1971, and 1972, respectively, and since there is a small percentage of these minorities residing in the United States, they have been included as part of the study.

Significance

Culture, behaviors, traditions, and families have led psychologists and sociologists to study the differences among human behaviors and rituals. Psychologists and sociologists have developed different theories and approaches to explain the cultural differences that have led schools to develop different methods and organizations to increase parental participation and involvement in children's education. For my study, I collected educational and demographic information on the parents and questionnaires completed by both parents indicating their methods of participation in their child's education. The results of this study increase the body of knowledge on the parental involvement of AIs and offer additional methods that teachers and other school officials can use to encourage parental involvement.

Chapter 1 has outlined the importance of families, communities, and schools working together to promote parental involvement. The involvement of parents in their child's education

is important because it improves the child's social, educational, and cognitive development, not only at school, but at home as well. At the same time, the cultural and traditional background of the child can influence the nature of parental involvement. The purpose of this quantitative study is to examine the methods of parental participation among SAA/AIAs. This study employed a quantitative methodology approach that included demographic data and a Likert-scaled survey originally developed by Epstein et al. (2007).

Chapter 2, the literature review, stresses the effects of parental involvement. The literature also emphasizes how different movements and laws came into effect in the early 20th century, aimed at promoting parental involvement; how families, communities, and schools must work together to properly educate students; and how parenting can be affected by the parents' culture, expectations, methods of participation, and the student's overall achievement. The works discussed in the literature review examine how parents from different ethnic groups participate in their child's education, whether parental participation is home- or school-based, and how these methods differ from one another. Finally, the literature review concludes with a discussion of the differences between Chinese, Indians, and Anglo Americans in terms of parenting, education, and parental participation. Chapter 3 is a discussion of the methodology of this study, including the surveys, population, research design, and the methods used to analyze the data. Chapter 4 is the collection of data of the dissertational study, including the timeframe and the results of the three research questions. Chapter 5 concludes the dissertation with the interpretation of the three research questions, limitations of the study, recommendations, and implications for social change.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of the literature review is to outline the definition of parental participation and the methods of parental involvement. The chapter is an exploration of the benefits of parental involvement as well as the ways in which parents from different ethnic groups participate in their children's education. As such, it will include a brief review of how culture can influence parental involvement.

I began my literature review by conducting Internet searches on parental involvement using EBSLO, books from universal libraries, and different search topics. Those secondary sources led me to primary sources, which included reviews of different books and journal articles. Locating the original references gave me a foundation with which to understand the various studies and methods of parental involvement, the cultural practices in Asian countries, and the theoretical framework of the study.

Theoretical Perspective

Effective school leadership and action relies on the involvement of families and communities. This argument influenced Epstein's theories of overlapping spheres of influence and the six types of parental involvement. Epstein et al. (2011) found that community members' opinions regarding the role of school district leaders in improving schools tend to be on opposite ends of the spectrum; some community members label their district leaders as "irrelevant, peripheral or inadequate managers of school reform, whereas others report that district leaders are essential for improving schools" (p. 463). The attitude of a community as a whole toward the district can influence the methods of involvement that parents use in their children's education. If the community and families label their schools as irrelevant, then their level of involvement and

the ways in which they are involved may differ from those who view their district's role as an essential element for improvement.

Overlapping Spheres of Influence

The theory of schools, communities, and families (SCF) working together to assist their students is known as overlapping spheres of influence (Epstein, 1987, 2006). This theory originated with Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological framework. SCF suggests that community representatives, family members, and teachers (or school officials) must work together in order to develop methods and approaches to improve student performance (Epstein, 1987, 2006). SCF first began to improve the academic performance of students in the 1980s (Epstein & Sanders, 2006).

External spheres of influence, such as the experiences of the families, the experience of the school, and the students' age, grades, and personal characteristics, can either bring schools, families, and communities closer together or pull them further apart (Epstein, 1987; Smith-Bonahue, Larmore, Harman, & Castillo, 2009; Tahhan, Pierre, Stewart, Leschied, & Cook, 2010). If the child demonstrates some form of disability, whether emotional, mental, or physical, these spheres might be pulled closer together into highly structured programs. Other factors that could influence the greater cohesion or separation of the three spheres are the age of the child and the culture of the family (Epstein, 1987).

The internal relationships within each sphere can also influence the method and degree of parental participation. The roles of mother, father, and children influence one another, either directly or indirectly, and can affect the quality and quantity of time parents spend with their sons or daughters (Parke, 2002). The relationships that parents have with other family members (i.e., the internal relationships within a family unit) and the interpersonal relationships that exist

between school administrators and teachers (i.e., the internal relationships within schools) can influence the relationship between the three spheres. Chao and Tseng (2002) demonstrated that Asian parents maintain close relationships with other family members, even if they do not live in the same community. Asian children view the family as the center of all relationships (i.e., they are interdependent), including education, religion, and economics. EAs, however, make their decisions more independently. Nevertheless, the child is at the center of these interpersonal relationships, which can affect the child's social and academic development (Epstein, 1987). The spheres of closeness (i.e., family bonds) might be tighter among Asian-American children from India and other South Asian countries (e.g., Pakistan), because they treasure their family and relationships and respect the guidance and advice of their elders (Anandalakshmy, 1998; Sharma, Khosla, Tulsky, & Carrese, 2012).

The internal and external relationships between community, schools, and families can affect the outcome of the students' academic and social performance as well as the attitudes and methods of parental participation. Epstein et al. (2011) concluded that districts and school leaders need to work together to improve their schools' policies and practices, to develop programs to identify and evaluate the students, and to allocate the necessary financial and physical resources to enable schools to implement different methods.

Perspectives on parental involvement. The different perspectives on family and school relationships have guided researchers and practitioners when developing theories of parental participation. Understanding the different methods of parental involvement has assisted teachers in developing methods to increase positive communication between parents and teachers. Epstein (1987) defined three different domains of parental participation according to the closeness of the connection between schools, families, and communities: (a) separate responsibilities of families

and schools, (b) shared responsibilities of families and schools, and (c) sequential responsibilities of families and schools. These three domains can either strengthen or weaken the bonds among the three spheres. Epstein suggested that such shifts, in turn, affect the child's academic performance, the parents' methods of participation, and the positive relationship among the three. These perspectives are important to understand because the bonds among the three spheres can affect the cooperation, trust, and outcome of the students. These bonds can also affect the behaviors or attitudes of the parents as they relate to their child's education.

Weber (1947) suggested that families and schools should have separate responsibilities. Weber posited that a school district can best achieve its goals when teachers (and school officials) maintain their professional conduct and methods of teaching in the classroom, while parents (and other family members) direct their personal attention and judgments about their child at home, including discipline and standards. Bronfenbrenner (1979) discussed the concept of shared responsibilities, emphasizing that schools and families should cooperate and coordinate with one another to increase communication and collaboration. The idea of shared responsibilities assumes that teachers and parents have common goals for a child and should be encouraged to work together to achieve these goals. Finally, the idea of sequential responsibilities, based on the theories of Freud (1937), Erikson (1964), and Piaget and Inhelder (1969), emphasizes the critical stages of child development for which parents and teachers are responsible. These ideas and theories influenced Epstein's (1987) development of the spheres of influence model.

Six Types of Parental Involvement

The six types of parental involvement, originally developed by Epstein (1983, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1995), suggests that parents can participate in their child's education by parenting,

communicating, volunteering, enhancing learning at home, making decisions, and collaborating with the community. School administrators and members of the central office must cooperate with parents in order to develop and understand the various methods parents can employ to participate in their child's education. Furthermore, school administrators should help parents to learn how to collaborate with teachers in order to improve children's methods of learning (Honig, 2008). When parents cooperate with school employees, administrators, and members of special services, it is necessary to emphasize interpersonal actions in order to increase the level of expertise among teachers and parents (Finnigan & O'Day, 2003).

When promoting parental involvement and increasing positive relationships among parents, teachers, and schools, school employees must understand parents' and students' cultural backgrounds as well as parents' attitudes toward school and expectations for their child, because a school's teachings are strongest when schools, parents, and communities work contemporaneously (Epstein et al., 2011). The National Network of Partnership Schools suggests that parents are more likely to be highly involved in their children's education when schools have an Action Team for Partnership (i.e., support from principals and superintendents) and positive ratings from district leaders (Epstein et al., 2011). Poor supervision and distance between parents and schools (or teachers) may occur if districts operate according to a "hierarchy" or "command and control directives" (Finnigan & O'Day, 2003). Districts need to organize programs and structures that will encourage schools, parents, communities, and family members to collaborate in improving students' performance. Parents from different cultures or ethnic groups may have different approaches toward their child's education, which could strengthen or weaken the links among schools, communities, and families.

Effects of Parental Participation

Parental participation is known to be an important factor in students' academic and social success, but views on parental participation have changed over the past 50 to 60 years. In the 1950s, parental involvement was assessed in terms of the mother's behavior. The focus shifted to examine the involvement of both parents in the 1960s and 1970s, and then the family environment in the 1990s. The emphasis on parental and family involvement continues to be important for developing partnerships amongst families and schools, but the changing nature of families might influence this involvement (Berger, 2004). Today, it is common for students to have both parents working outside the home; to have young, single parents; to be homeless or poverty-stricken; to live in foster care; to continuously change locations; or to be immigrants to the United States, either legal or illegal (Epstein, 2011a; Epstein & Sanders, 2006). While the number of single-parent families continues to increase, the gaps between one- and two-parent families are narrowing, particularly in countries where community (i.e., public and governmental) economic assistance is offered to single parents (Pong, Dronkers, & Hampden-Thompson, 2003).

Culture can also influence relationships among members of the community, methods of parental involvement, and parental (or familial) roles. Some Asian cultures believe that the mother is responsible for childcare and the father provides for the family financially. However, many Asian mothers are now working professionally and spending less time in their homes. At the same time, more fathers are participating in home chores and spending time with their children, which could affect methods of participating in children's education (Arnett, 2006).

Parental involvement is one of the most important components in a student's academic success; one of the major goals of educational reform is to increase this success (Marshall &

Swan, 2010; Michael, Dittus, & Epstein, 2007; Sy & Schulenberg, 2005). Researchers have found that there is a strong link between family involvement and students' academic performance, classroom participation, and attendance; the improvement of school programs; and the appreciation and understanding of the importance of education. In addition, parental involvement has been found to positively influence children's behavior, competence, and performance both at school and at home (Beck, 2007; Cheung & Pomerantz, 2012; Hill & Craft, 2003; Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow, & Frendrich, 1999). These positive outcomes are important to consider when increasing parental participation in school and personal situations.

Definitions of Parental Involvement

The 20th century saw many revolutions in parental involvement and the American educational system (i.e., revolution of both). In the 1920s, parents began to participate in their children's education more actively, and the idea of cooperation between parents and schools spread. As more immigrants continued to move to the United States, schools slowly developed different programs and organizations to improve their students' academic success (Berger, 2004). Dewey (2001) believed that education is a "social life… [that] consists primarily in transmission through communication, [in which communication] is a process of sharing experience till it becomes a common possession" (para. 23).

The term "parental participation" is subjective and has been defined in multiple ways. As such, the lack of a single, clear, and consistent definition makes it difficult to draw a general conclusion from the different studies (Fan & Chen, 2001; Porter, 2011). Some parents view themselves as being advocates for their child and so attend different council meetings (e.g., PTA and committee board meetings). Other parents, on the other hand, participate at home by reading to their child (Ascher, 1987). Fan and Chen (2001) saw parental participation as consisting of

communication with their child's teacher (or school employees), aspirations for their child, participation in school activities, and supervision. Mau (1997) described parental participation as helping, controlling, supporting, and participating in a child's education. Epstein (1983, 1986, 1990) agreed that parental participation is based on proper communication, but added that it is a link between students' communities, schools, and family members. Grolnick et al. (1994, 1997) took the idea of communication further, suggesting that parental participation should cover three primary factors: behavior (i.e., helping children at school and at home), personal involvement (i.e., staying informed of what happens at school), and cognitive intelligence (i.e., encouraging children to participate in stimulating activities). Wong (2008) defined parental participation as the "extent to which parents are interested in, knowledgeable about, and willing to take an active role in the day-to-day activities of their children" (p. 497). Lenka and Kant (2012) observed that parents in India participate by "assisting their child with their schoolwork, understanding proper interaction between parenting skills and student success in schooling, and committing themselves to consistently communicating with their child's educators about their child's progress" (p. 518). Regardless of the definition, they all have one thing in common: Different types of parental participation have different outcomes (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994).

Parental participation can take the form of home-based, school-based, or teacher-based activities. Home-based activities are those in which parents monitor their child's academic progress at home by assisting with homework or by assigning additional work. School-based activities are those in which parents monitor their child's education by attending or participating in school events or PTA meetings. Teacher-based activities involve parents speaking frequently to their child's teachers (Hill & Craft, 2003; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Shumow, Lyutykh, & Schmidt, 2011). These different methods of participation influence the communication among

the community, schools, and families, and the success of children's social behaviors and academics.

Parental Expectations

The various methods of parental participation may also be related to the expectations that parents have of their children. Exam results, behavior among peers and teachers, and cultural norms can influence, either directly or indirectly, parents' expectations for their child's success and academic achievement (Raty & Kasanen, 2010). A family's cultural background is also a significant factor in parental expectations, but this can change as the child grows (Rosenthal & Bornholt, 1988). At first, parents' expectations reflect their personal expectations, but as the child gets older, their expectations change to account for the child's academic performance (Kirk, Lewis-Moss, Nilsen, & Colvin, 2011; Rubie-Davies, Peterson, Irving, Widdowson, & Dixon, 2010).

Studies have shown that Asian Americans expect their child to complete school and pursue higher education (i.e., undergraduate and graduate studies) more often than EAs. The National Center for Educational Statistics (cited in Goyette & Xie, 1999; cited in Child Trends, 2012) has estimated that the percentage of Asian American parents expecting their child to earn a bachelor's degree increased from 61.5% in 1984 to 89% in 2007, while the number among EAs increased from 37.7% to 72% over the same period. Parents who expect their child to do better in school and who have strong beliefs about their child's academic achievements are more likely to support academics at home (Sy & Schulenberg, 2005).

Schools, Communities, and Families

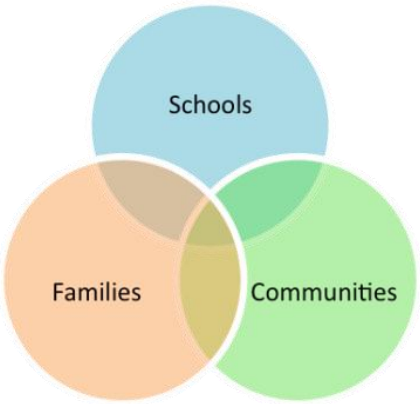
Piaget and Inhelder's (1969) early studies suggested that first school and then community influence children. As cited in Epstein and Sanders (2006), studies by Morisset (1993), Wasik

and Karweit (1994), and Young and Marx (1992) indicated that infants' and toddlers' learning, development, and growth are influenced by multiple factors. Meltzoff, Waismeyer, and Gopnik (2012) argued that children learn from observational causal learning, whereby they learn everyday skills and tools through observation—first through patterns of behavior, then by action toward the world, and finally, by understanding the reason for the action. Prior to the mid-twentieth century, schools and families acted independently when teaching and raising children. Schools believed that it was their responsibility to teach academics, while families were responsible for teaching their children religion, culture, and morals. Hill and Taylor (2004a) stated that it is crucial for parents and teachers to work together to properly assist students in their academics.

Epstein and colleagues (e.g., 1983, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1995) demonstrated the positive influence of the cooperation between family, schools, and communities on a child's education (see Figure 1). Parents and schools desire strong partnerships, but in many cases, parents have difficulty telling school administrators and teachers about their wants and needs; meanwhile, school administrators and teachers have difficulty sustaining productive relationships with parents (Elish-Piper & Lelko, 2013). Cultures and traditions can also affect the partnerships between parents and schools. Larger schools, in particular, may face this challenge, as they usually include more individuals from different cultures and traditions (Finn & Voelkl, 1993).

Schools. Schools and teachers have high expectations placed on them by students and their parents. Teachers expect parents to contact them if they have concerns or questions about their child or the materials. Unfortunately, merely waiting for communication from parents is an ineffective method of developing proper relationships with parents and families. Instead, students should be the central focus for schools, communities, and families. Families, students,

and teachers should all have an opportunity to voice opinions and share methods of assisting the student (Epstein, 2011). Furthermore, cultural differences should be taken into account when it comes to parental participation in the schools. For instance, even though Asian American parents contact their children's schools and teachers less often, they spend more time on academics with their children at home (Huntsinger & Jose, 2011).



Family and community. Regardless of the location of the school, the age of the teacher, or the school environment, every teacher teaches his or her students. At the same time, regardless of location or family structure, all students live in some type of family and community, with their biological parents or with other family members, in foster care, or in juvenile correctional facilities. Regardless of the type of family or community structure the child is a part of, the cooperation of parents, teachers, and the community is important to properly assist students. Parental involvement also assists schools in developing proper communication with the community (Epstein & Sanders, 2006).

Figure 1. Schools–communities–families: Epstein's (1986) model of overlapping spheres of influence.

Although SCF is an important and effective support system for students, schools rarely implement it. Moreover, research, policies, and practices often ignore it. SCF is useful for designing different methods and activities that may assist students' cognitive and social development, strengthen family ties, and improve a school's relationships with individuals (Epstein & Sanders, 2006). Schools can influence their connections to or separation from communities and families; they can encourage parent participation or fail to inform parents or family members about upcoming events. These various actions can either draw the three spheres closer together or allow them to drift apart. Students and parents appreciate and understand the importance of education when schools, families, and the community work closely together (Epstein, Galindo, & Sheldon, 2011; Sanders & Epstein, 1998).

Chile, Australia, and Cyprus are some of the countries that have effectively researched and implemented the SCF theory when studying different cultures, age groups, and nationalities. Some of these studies found that, generally, schools do not always understand parents' expectations, interests, or wants for their children. At the same time, parents either do not know about or do not understand programs, nor do they approach schools about better educating or assisting their children (Epstein & Sanders, 2006).

The Positive Effects of Parental Participation

Parental participation and involvement has resulted in the promotion of healthier foods for student lunches, increased physical activity, and the prevention of school violence. It has also influenced certain school, state, and federal policies (see Table 1) (Michael, Dittus, & Epstein, 2007). Table 1 consists of a brief description of how different organizations and legal bodies can collaborate with schools and communities in order to increase and support parental participation (Bourland, 2011; Coalition for Community Schools, 2012; Michael, Dittus, & Epstein, 2007; National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2012; National Parent Teacher Association, 2013; No Child Left Behind Act, 2002). Today, the demands of parents and the community are key to improving student learning and teaching methods by developing additional methods to promote high-quality teaching and learning, and providing guidance for schools and administrators to make certain decisions (i.e., methods to establish learning organizations) (Honig, 2008).

Table 1

Purposes for Organizations

Organizations available for school and community collaboration	Purpose of organization
Elementary and Secondary Act (originally called No Child Left Behind Act, or NCLBA)	❖Requires local school districts to develop specific strategies and programs to involve parents in schools
National Coalition for Parental Involvement in Education (NCPIE)	❖ Fosters relationships between home, school, and the community to enhance student learning
Coalition for Community Schools	❖ Promotes the integration of social services,

Organizations available for school and community collaboration	Purpose of organization
	youth, and the community to improve learning and strengthen families in order to sustain a healthier community
National Parent Teacher Association (NPTA)	❖ Relates directly to the framework for "Six Types of Involvement," urging parents and members of the community to advocate for all children
National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS)	❖ Promotes competencies in family and community partnerships for specialists to advise school educators at the state, district, and school levels in order to promote school health policies and programs
School Health Policies and Program Study (SHPPS) of 2000	❖ The first national study to measure school health policies and programs involving family and community members to assess policies and practices for school health at the state, district, school, and classroom level

Attendance. Classroom attendance is also important for students' academic success. Children who attend school have a greater chance of succeeding. School administrators and teachers take absenteeism seriously because there is a strong correlation between truancy and school drop-out rates, tobacco, alcohol, experimental drug use, and risky sexual behaviors (Hallfors et al., 2002; Sheldon & Epstein, 2004). Students who have a better attendance record and arrive at school on time score higher on standardized achievement tests and receive higher passing grades (Sheldon & Epstein, 2004).

Even though many schools do not collaborate with families and the community to reduce absenteeism, the connection between home and school is recognized as an important element in

increasing student attendance (Sheldon & Epstein, 2004). The attitudes and relationships that parents and students have with respect to teachers and other school officials are also associated with students' attendance records. Even in areas with higher levels of poverty, students attend school more often if the school offers extracurricular activities and the courses are taught in a structured way that holds their interest and appreciation (Eskenazi, Eddins, & Beam, 2003).

Conclusion. Teachers and administrators cannot encourage school participation by themselves; they need the assistance of families and communities. Families must monitor their children's attendance and performance, contribute to decisions that affect their children, volunteer at the school, or become active members of the PTA/PTO (Helm & Burkett, 1989; Licht, Gard, & Guardino, 1991). Positive relationships among schools, communities, and families improve attendance, classroom performance, and the promotion of organizations and policies. The impact of the six types of parental involvement suggested by Epstein (1991, 1995, 2011b) on students' academic success is discussed in the next section.

Types of Parental Involvement

When a child is born, parents tend to and care for that child as much and as well as they can. Once the child enters preschool, the parents begin to allow others to assist in the child's learning and growth. Many times, parents and teachers work as a team to assist the child. Parents may participate in their child's education in multiple ways. Some parents prefer to participate by chaperoning at their child's school, while others prefer to assist their child with homework and test and exam preparation. Cultures, attitudes, and expectations can also affect the parents' chosen methods of participation. Regardless of the method of participation, students are more likely to succeed when their parents take an interest in their academics. Bleed (2002, as cited in Garcia, 2002) stated that in schools, as in businesses, it is important that people have effective

dialogue in order to develop a productive organization that benefits everyone. Without understanding the wants and needs of other ethnic groups, teachers and administrators will have difficulty implementing the programs that their students need, which could obstruct proper forms of communication between schools, communities, and families.

Parenting

Parenting, the first type of parental participation, is defined as the methods that teachers, schools, and family members utilize to establish a desirable environment in which to assist their children as students (e.g., Epstein et al., 1991, 1995, 2011a). Involving parents and family members has always been the goal for schools and teachers wishing to improve students' academic and social performances. The parents' responsibilities are to prepare children to be functioning adults and responsible citizens capable of finding life satisfaction (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001; Comar, 1984; Kiff, Lengua & Zalewski, 2011; Mathis & Bierman, 2012). When children are young, parents learn about child rearing from reading articles or books, from family members, or from the community (Epstein, 1987). Schools must understand families' cultural differences, expectations, methods of participation, unique personalities, and differing family roles in order to enhance their partnerships with parents and communities (Elish-Piper & Lelko, 2013).

Parents are their child's first role models for proper behaviors, attitudes, and etiquette. Proper parenting leads to positive outcomes for the child's behavior in homes and schools, and increases social, emotional, psychological, and linguistic skills, especially during the first years of the child's life (Carr & Pike; Comar, 1984; Cole, 1985; Lenka & Kant, 2012). Parents assist children with completing tasks within their "proximal zone," or completing them without assistance (Vygotsky, 1997). If the child finds the task too difficult to complete independently,

the parents are responsible for modifying the task so that the child can complete the task to his or her full potential with only minimal assistance (Wood, 1980; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). Furthermore, the development of morals through informal teaching is guided by demonstrations of love on the part of the parents (usually the mother) (Sawalha, 2012; Taylor, 1981, as cited in Berger, 2004; Yin, Li, & Su, 2012).

A child's development is influenced by many different factors, including (but not limited to) interactions with parents, the environment, and family process (i.e., culture) (Lengua, 2002). Parents' emotions and behaviors can affect their parenting style and the child's wellbeing. Parents play an important role in teaching preschool students how to regulate emotions and control their attention (Mathis & Bierman, 2012). Certain emotional stressors, such as marital status and family income, can affect the mother's parenting, self-esteem, and relationships with her children. These stressors can lead to maladjusted emotions and behaviors in preadolescent and/or adolescent children (Simons et al., 2008). The methods parents use to shape their child's temperament and self-regulatory characteristics are key to child adjustment (Kiff, Lengua, & Zalewski, 2011). Regardless, parents are responsible for satisfying their child's emotional and physical needs (Comar, 1984; Hammond, Müller, Carpendale, Bibok, & Liebermann-Finestone, 2012).

Parenting roles. Parenthood is a crucial role that requires adults to adapt to unpredictable changes. They must ensure a safe and secure atmosphere and provide "cognitive and emotional nurturance for [the] child" (Aunos, Feldman, & Goupil, 2008, p. 320). The culture that the child is raised in, and the parents' or caregivers' approach, attitude, and behavior toward education, can affect the child's self-esteem, behavior, academic performance, and attitude towards and relationships with others (Coll & Pachter, 2002).

Fostering a child's self-confidence is extremely important during the early, middle, and adolescent years of social development and direction (Slagt, Maja, de Haan, van den Akker, & Prinzie, 2012). Mothers and fathers can influence one another in their children's development. Respective levels of confidence and attitudes can affect their methods of parenting and their relationships with their children (Verhoeven, Bögels, & van der Bruggen, 2012). The importance of mothers and fathers in a child's development is further explained in this section.

Mothers. Freud and Burlingame (1944) and Provence and Lipton (1962) demonstrated the importance of the mother–child relationship in child development. Regardless of the gender of the child, there seems to be more emphasis on the role of the mother than on that of the father; the mother is usually responsible for teaching her children proper social and emotional skills. This is probably because mothers traditionally spent more time with their children than fathers (Verhoeven, Bögels, & van der Bruggen, 2012). Statistically, mothers who are more educated and have a higher SES are more knowledgeable about child development and have better relationships with their children than mothers with less education (Bornstein, Cote, Haynes, Hahn, & Park, 2010). Without adequate support from their mother, a child can become extremely dysfunctional, or even at risk. The word "mother" is a powerful term in many cultures and traditions; it evokes the strong feelings one has toward one's maternal caregiver. Furthermore, it is believed that mothers can either give life and love to their children or abandon and neglect them (Barnard & Solchany, 2002; Jung, 1969).

Fathers. When discussing child rearing, researchers have questioned whether the role of the mother is more important than that of the father (Overbeek, ten Have, Vollebergh, & de Graaf, 2007; Yin, Li, & Su, 2012). Biller (1993) stated that fathers play an important role in a "child's intellectual, emotional, and social development" (p. 1) during the first few years of life.

Jain, Belsky, and Crnic (1996) demonstrated that there are four types of fathering: caretakers, playmates-teachers, disciplinarians, and disengaged fathers. Over the past few decades, researchers may have been taking more interest in the roles of fathers because of the increasing numbers of mothers working outside the home and fathers caring for their children. The number of fathers tending to their children while the mother's work has increased from 15% in 1977 to 20% in 1991 and 70.6% in 2011; these estimates may continue to rise as the number of women in the work force increases (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012; O'Connell, 1993, as cited in Parke, 2002). These statistics, however, can fluctuate based on the mother's marital status and the father's income (Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, 2011). Research has found that fathers' salaries and work hours negatively correlate with their involvement with their children on weekdays, though they are more involved on the weekend. A father's ethnicity could also be a factor in his involvement in his child's life; research has suggested that Caucasian (or European) American fathers are more involved in their children's lives than are African-American or Latino fathers (D'Angelo, Palacios, & Chase-Lansdale, 2012; Yeung, Sandberg, Davis-Kean, & Hofferth, 2001).

Summary. Parents (or caregivers) are responsible for raising their children and fostering academic growth. Children achieve more when parents discuss and take an interest in their academics and accomplishments. This involvement eventually leads to positive relationships between schools, teachers, and parents. Sometimes, parental involvement is related to parental expectations. Involvement is related to the methods parents use to participate in their child's education, while expectations are what parents want their children and the schools to accomplish. Parents who are highly educated or have more experience in the work force generally have higher expectations of their children (Englund, Luckner, Whaley, & Egeland, 2004).

Regardless of the child's gender, the roles of mothers and fathers are both important in childhood development. Mothers' and fathers' behaviors and attitudes can greatly contribute to their children's performance and influence their methods of participation. The role of the father has been demonstrated to be important to a child's emotional, social, and intellectual development. Fathers are starting to participate more in their children's lives, probably because the increase in the number of mothers completing school and working outside the home or the overall income of the father. Latino fathers were more involved than their African American counterparts, but EAs were more involved as fathers than either African Americans or Latinos (Englund, Luckner, Whaley, & Egeland, 2004).

Communication

Becker and Epstein (1982) defined communication as an effective two-way conversation between parents (or other family members) and school employees (e.g., teachers). Some universal practices in teachers' communication with parents include speaking with parents at parent–teacher conferences, sending notes home, and asking parents to sign their children's homework. Unfortunately, many teachers are discouraged from attempting to communicate with parents due to the constant lack of response from parents (Epstein, Galindo, & Sheldon, 2011). Mutual communication maintains positive relationships and trust among schools, communities, and families. Indeed, many parents want to communicate with their child's teacher or other school officials in order to establish and maintain a strong relationship with their child's school. Therefore, it is important for schools (and teachers) to allow parents to freely express their thoughts and ideas and to maintain positive communication (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001; Elish-Piper & Lelko, 2013; Epstein, Galindo, & Sheldon, 2011; Hickman, 1999).

Students perform better in their academics when teachers and parents (or other family members) communicate with each other (de Carvalho, 2001; Thompson, 2008). Epstein and Dauber (1991) found that there was no significant difference between elementary and middle school teachers when it comes to communicating with parents, but communicating by means of notes, telephone calls, and parent-teacher conferences is more common among elementary teachers than secondary (middle and high-school) teachers.

Electronic communication. In today's fast-paced society, parents and teachers now use electronic means of communication (e.g., email, Internet, texting). Electronic devices, such as computers and mobile phones, have made communication between parents, teachers, and students more convenient (Branzburg, 2001; Mazer, Murphy, & Simonds, 2007). Communication between parents and teachers is usually infrequent, occurring only during meetings or emergencies or when discipline problems arise (Thompson, 2008). With electronic devices, however, parents, students, and teachers can communicate with each other from the first day of school onwards. One significant drawback to electronic communication is that certain nonverbal cues that are necessary in conversations cannot be transmitted. This could cause misunderstandings to arise (Thompson, 2008).

Volunteering

Volunteering is an important aspect of parental participation. Many schools and parents have adopted volunteering as a type of involvement, because it is one of the most visible and direct forms of participation (Elish-Piper & Lelko, 2013). Volunteering is defined as family members (usually the mother) participating in different school programs or student support training exercises/organizations on a paid or unpaid basis (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001; Diorio,

2008). Teachers agree that when parents volunteer in their child's school, they are also likely to be more involved with their child's learning at home (Becker & Epstein, 1982).

Troisi (1998) emphasized that schools should be open to receiving help from both parents, rather than stereotyping the behaviors of mothers and fathers. Parental volunteering is not restricted to participating in school fundraising activities (e.g., bake-sales, book fairs, etc.); it may also consist of taking part in school activities, chaperoning field trips, and assisting teachers and staff in school (Diorio, 2008). Troisi (1998) listed 105 different ways parents can volunteer in their children's schools. She categorized these into nine areas: computers (e.g., training other parents to use technology or monitoring their children in using the Internet); audiovisual technology (e.g., taking photos that are important for school websites and reports); reading programs (e.g., maintaining classroom reading logs or conducting afterschool reading clubs); students (e.g., editing students' work or chaperoning field trips); special needs (e.g., tutoring students or assisting with hands-on performance tasks); clerical tasks (e.g., putting book covers on books or conducting inventories); arts and crafts (e.g., making book displays or murals); parent representation (e.g., mentoring parents of new students or developing a staff homework hotline); and community (e.g., arranging author visits or conducting petition drives). Even though several of Troisi's methods have since been superseded by new technologies (e.g., using 8 mm videos), many of the activities she suggested could be helpful to parents wishing to volunteer at their child's school.

Parents enjoy actively participating in their child's education. School officials have recognized great benefits in their community when they ask their students' parents to take part in certain programs and events (Elish-Piper & Lelko, 2013). Volunteering in their child's school allows parents to observe different teaching strategies, methods of answering questions, and

methods of analyzing errors (Becker & Epstein, 1982). Finally, students appreciate their education when they observe the willingness of their parents, administrators, and teachers to cooperate with one another in order to improve the school. This level of cooperation consequently "[reinforces] the concept of…connected relationships at home" (Elish-Piper & Lelko, 2013, p. 56). Teachers should resist becoming uncomfortable or insecure when parents observe their teaching methods so that they are not intimidated when parents volunteer or visit the classroom (Wurst, 2005).

Fathers volunteering. Methods of volunteering and participation differ between mothers and fathers. Mothers may have different reasons for volunteering, but they generally agree that it benefits both themselves and their children. Over the past 40 years, participation and volunteering among fathers has nearly doubled, and schools have welcomed fathers' participation (Graham, 2011). Institutions such as the National Center for Fathering have developed programs such as Watch Dads of Great Students (Watch DOGS), which encourages fathers to spend one day a year as a school volunteer. Almost 500 schools in 38 states now participate in Watch DOGS, helping fathers to feel comfortable volunteering (Diorio, 2008).

Learning at Home

Children often ask their parents for assistance with homework when they come home from school. Families and schools can work together to effectively assist children with their homework and schoolwork. This can improve students' attitudes toward school, readiness for the next lesson, and test scores (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001). The phrase "learning at home" is often misinterpreted as teachers being responsible for teaching both parents and students; instead, it suggests that parents and teachers must strengthen students' skills by interacting and communicating with each other about the lessons. Teachers agree that they want parents to

support children in their academics and monitor their homework (Epstein, 2011a). Programs such as Teachers Involving Parents in Schoolwork (TIPS) encourage teachers and parents to collaborate in order to assist children with their academics (Epstein, 2011a).

Mathematics. Epstein (1985, 1986, 2010) and Ma (1999) demonstrated the importance of parental involvement in improving students' academic performances. Children do better when parents discuss schooling with their child or participate in PTA or PTO meetings. Unfortunately, parents often feel uncomfortable participating in math classes because of the different methods of teaching. Mathematics is one of the core subjects in the American education; however, average math scores in the United States are significantly lower than international averages. According to the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983), Asian Americans outperformed EAs in mathematics. Moreover, they found that a large number of students drop out of elective math classes, and in general, only half of high school graduates take math classes beyond Grade 10. Geary (1994, as cited in Luo, Jose, Huntsinger, & Pigott, 2007) and Sue and Okazaki (1990, as cited in Luo et al., 2007) demonstrated similar results to the National Commission of Excellence in Education, reporting that Asian Americans scored higher on the math portion of their SATs and had the highest scores on the Graduate Record Examination. Goel (2006) stated that half of all Ph.D. graduates in statistics are Asians, a little less than 8% of Asians earned a doctorate in mathematics, and Asians continue to outperform others on the math portion of the SATs (Kao & Thompson, 2003; Ma, 1999). These gaps between Asian and EAs continue today. Sieff (2011) noted that more Asian Americans take higher math classes, and their performance continues to improve relative to EAs. These performance gaps also exist between different ethnic and SES groups. Asian Americans also perform better in mathematics when compared to African Americans and Latin Americans, and students from higher SESs performed

better than students from lower SESs (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009a, 2009c; Huntsinger et al., 2000; Sheldon, Epstein, & Galindo, 2010).

Language arts. Language arts is another core subject in the American education system. Language arts promotes interaction between families and schools because it allows families to read together, allows parents to view their child's creative writing, and allows children to practice their speech and share their ideas. Epstein (2011a) studies stated that when compared to elementary grades, teachers at the middle- and high-school levels find it more difficult to guide family involvement in their students' reading, writing, and spelling. Secondary language arts teachers can interact with their students' parents by having students interview their parents, gather ideas, and share their work. Epstein, Simon, and Salinar (1997, as cited in Epstein, 2011a) discovered that students who interacted more with their parents and families improved their reading and writing. Nearly all parents agreed that TIPS gave better information about teaching their children at home and useful methods to become more involved in their child's education.

Homework. Teachers assign homework to their students for many different reasons so that students can (a) gain additional practice on assignments, (b) prepare for the next lesson, (c) be more involved in their learning, (d) build their responsibilities, (e) build positive communication with their parents, (f) encourage their family members to be involved in the school curriculum, (g) work together and learn from one another, and (h) fulfill school and district policies regarding the amount of homework they need to complete each day or week (Epstein & Van Voorhis, 2001). Researchers have suggested that good schools give homework, good students do homework, and good teachers assign more homework (Coleman, Hoffer, & Kilgore, 1982, as cited in Epstein & Van Voorhis, 2001; Corno, 1996; Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, & Ouston, 1979, as cited in Epstein & Van Voorhis, 2001).

Parents are inclined to assist their elementary school children with their homework and academics. As children advance to higher grades, however, parents have difficulty monitoring their child's work, possibly because the assignments become more difficult or because the secondary teachers do not emphasize the importance of parental participation (Desimone, Finn-Stevenson, & Henrich, 2000; Goddard, 2003). Schools must continue to stress the importance of parental participation in homework in order to improve students' school achievement. Eastern Asians, for example, assign additional work to their children in order to further expand their knowledge in specific subjects. However, little is known about whether South Asians have similar approaches to and attitudes toward homework (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c; Huntsinger, Jose, & Larson, 1998; Huntsinger, Jose, Krieg, & Luo, 2011).

Decision Making

Sometimes parents have concerns about or do not agree with certain issues or situations in the school. Board and PTA/PTO meetings give parents (or family members) the opportunity to voice their opinions and to assist the schools in making decisions aimed at improving the academic system. Members of the community and family from different cultural backgrounds have the opportunity to influence these decisions and to take part in advisory councils or committees on school curricula, safety, and personnel (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001; Epstein, 2011a; Epstein, Coates, Salinas, Sanders, & Simon, n.d.; Epstein & Sheldon, 2006; Sanstead, n.d.). In the late 1990s, the National PTA published their national standards and developed programs detailing how parents and teachers should be involved in children's education (Michael, Dittus, & Epstein, 2007; National Parent Teacher Association, 2013). Many times, parents are unfamiliar with the schools' curricula or topics that are being discussed in the PTA meetings. Furthermore, school officials are not familiar with the different cultural groups that

exist in their district and may not understand the opinions and ideas of all of the groups of people involved (Epstein, 2011a; Sanstead, n.d.). These "challenges" could hinder the development of positive relationships between teachers and parents who voice their opinions. Asian parents tend to participate less in conferences than EA parents do, although this may not be true of South Asian parents (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009a, 2009b, 2011; Huntsinger, Jose, & Larson, 1998).

Collaborating With the Community

School employees, community members, and families can work together to enhance children's academic performance (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001; Epstein & Sheldon, 2006). When schools collaborate with the community, students can learn about the professions and responsibilities of family members. Small and large businesses, government agencies, and local colleges and universities can all collaborate with schools to benefit everyone involved. For example, a school could ask the local fire or police department to speak with students about fire safety; ask a nurse or paramedic to speak with students about first aid, CPR, and the Heimlich maneuver; or invite a dentist to talk about taking care of teeth. These volunteers could be members of the community or parents of children who attend that particular school. Bringing members of the community together with families and schools enhances the knowledge and understanding of the cultural differences among individuals living in the same area (Epstein, 2011a).

Summary

Table 2 presents the six methods of parental involvement: parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision making, and collaborating with the community, and how each is important for parental participation (Epstein, 1986; Epstein, Galindo, & Sheldon, 2011; Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Michael, Dittus, & Epstein, 2007; Sanders & Epstein, 1998).

Epstein's (e.g. 1986, 2011) six types of parental participation enhance students' learning; reduce chronic absences; improve students' academic, social, and cognitive development; enable students to complete homework and classroom assignments; and encourage them to complete high school and pursue higher education. Asian American students outperform EAs in several academic areas, but this is not representative of all Asians, as SAAs (i.e., Indian and Pakistanis) are rarely represented in such studies.

Table 2

Epstein's Six Types of Involvement That Families, Schools, and Communities Can Adopt to Participate in Children's Education

Type of involvement	Examples
Parenting	Teaching parents childrearing skills.
Communicating	Parents speaking to teachers or school officials.
Volunteering	Volunteering as a chaperone for school fieldtrips.
Learning at home	Parents giving additional work or assignments for their child to practice at home.
Decision making	Parents participating in PTA/PTO meetings and helping the school make decisions regarding children's education.
Collaborating with the community	Having individuals from the community (e.g., firefighters, doctors) teach students about fire safety or basic CPR.

Note. Adapted from Epstein, J. (1983). Longitudinal effects of family-school-person interactions on student outcomes. In A. Kerckhoff (Ed.), *Research in sociology of education and socialization* (Vol. 4, pp. 101–128). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press

Barriers to Parental Participation

Parental participation (especially on the part of the mother) is important for the child's social, cognitive, and academic development. Certain behaviors from parents, however, could affect parents' involvement in and relationships with their children's school (or teachers). The behavior or mood of the mother can affect the social and cognitive development of the child. Mothers who suffer from depression or social isolation tend to be less involved and have difficulty parenting (Aunos, Feldman, & Goupil, 2008). Women who have children from multiple relationships have a greater chance of developing depression, having poorer parenting skills, and having less support from the children's biological fathers, especially if the mother is

in another relationship (Kamp-Dush, Kotila, & Schoppe-Sullivan, 2011; Kotila & Kamp-Dush, 2012).

Additionally, language can be a barrier to parental involvement in schools. Even though the United States does not have an official language, English is the most widely used language in the country. Nevertheless, there are many people living in the United States who are unable to speak English, which makes it more difficult for parents (or family members) and teachers to communicate with one another (Cheatham & Ro, 2009). Though most SAAs living in the United States are proficient in English, 25% of them are not (Kumar & Nevid, 2010). Communicating with SAAs can be difficult because of the various languages spoken in the different regions of India; today, there are more than 15 different languages spoken in India alone, with many variations. This linguistic diversity could prevent parental participation and keep schools, communities, and families from working together (Government of India, 2011; El Nasser & Overberg, 2011).

SES is another barrier that can affect parents' methods of participation. Today, many Americans are struggling financially and have difficulty making ends meet. These challenges could affect how they participate in their child's education. As indicated in Yen's (2010) research, as of 2010, 16% of Americans were living at or below the poverty line. While the number of children living below the poverty line in the United States has decreased, the percentage of Asians (in all Asian groups) in this category has increased from 12% to 16.7% (Yen, 2011). Even though more than 80% of AIAs complete college and have a national average income of $65,000, 20% of South Asians do not have health insurance, 33% of Bangladeshis in New York live below the poverty line, and 9% of AIAs earn less than $19,000 a year (Sohrabji, 2012). Parents (and families) who live in poverty may earn a shift-based (i.e., hourly) income

rather than a salary, which could affect their methods of participation. They may have difficulty participating or attending meetings because they cannot rearrange their schedule, miss work, get childcare, or arrange transportation (Garcia, 2002; Hill & Taylor, 2004b). Lower SES families may attempt to participate in their child's education differently, however, some parents may participate through unscheduled visits and conversations with the teachers and other school administrators; unfortunately, this burdens school employees and teachers because they may not be prepared to meet with parents while they are teaching (Freeman, 2010; Field-Smith, 2007, as cited in Bower & Griffin, 2011). The increasing number of Asians living in poverty makes it important to consider how their SES affects their relationships with their child's school.

Another barrier that could prevent parental participation is parents' levels of education; parents with less education may feel intimidated and uncomfortable communicating with the school or with their child's teacher (Garcia, 2002). Education is important to South Asians, and only 20% of South Asians residing in the United States have not completed college.

Discrimination (i.e. racial, social, etc.) also affects behaviors, attitudes, and the manner in which people communicate with one another. In turn, such discrimination may affect parents' relationships with their children and members of the community, shape their attitudes toward their children's schools, and determine their methods of participation in the community and in education. Parents try to teach their children the importance of working hard and prospering in the future, but at the same time, they must teach their children methods of dealing with discrimination and prejudice (Coll & Pachter, 2002; Jordan-Zachery, 2007). Many South Asians in the United States (especially Muslims and Sikhs from India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh) have experienced harassment and discrimination, particularly since September 11, 2001. This

discrimination may affect South Asian Americans' relationships with their family and children, and inadvertently affect their methods of parental participation (Armour, 2005).

A child's age, learning abilities or disabilities, and behavioral problems can also affect his or her parents' methods of participation. If a student has a learning disability that requires additional support (i.e., special education) or is advanced (i.e., gifted), then the parents are likely to be more involved (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011). Garcia (2002) stated that other barriers affecting parents' involvement include the relationship that parents have with the schools, the parents' physical conditions, and the parents' professions. Little is known about how these barriers affect the involvement of SAA/AIA parents in their children's education.

Diversity in Parenting

Today, U.S. schools often include students from many different parts of the world. Even though these individuals are different, staff need to understand the similarities between these groups in order to develop productive relationships with parents (Thomas, 1996, as cited in Garcia, 2002). These cultural differences can affect the ways in which parents, teachers, and communities view one another.

Culture

Family members are the most crucial aspect of child development because they are the primary role models of culture and ethnicity for their children. Family members teach children cultural norms, beliefs, and values through family socialization, which includes child-rearing (Rosenthal & Bornholt, 1988). These values may vary from one culture to another (Choi, Kim, Pekelnicky, & Kim, 2012). The term "culture" itself is subjective. Indeed, definitions of the term differ among psychologists, anthropologists, and sociologists. Tylor (1871) defined culture as a "complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, law, morals, custom, and any other

capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (p. 1). American society encompasses many cultures, brought over by immigrants from all over the world. Understanding students' varied cultural backgrounds is important for increasing parental participation.

Non-family members (e.g., teachers and neighbors) also heavily influence children's behavior and development. Researchers have long debated whether parenting differs from one family to another, and whether parenting itself has a culture. Culture can influence how parents care for their children, including "the extent to which parents permit children freedom to explore, how [nurturing] or restrictive parents [are, and] which behaviors parents emphasize" (Bornstein & Cheah, 2006, p. 7). Parents and teachers could have difficulty communicating with each other due to linguistic and cultural differences, but developing constructive partnerships is important for assisting children effectively and improving their development (Cheatham & Ro, 2009; Division for Early Childhood, 2007).

When working with students, parents, and other family members, it is important for school officals to understand and respect the cultural differences among these groups. These cultural differences define the student's communication with others (e.g., peers, teachers) and his or her attitudes towards education. The differences can include the parents' method of participation.

Ethnic groups. The three largest minority groups in the United States are African Americans, Latino Americans, and Asian Americans. When attempting to understand cultural differences specifically in the United States, researchers often treat middle-class EAs as the "primary ethnic group" and consider ethnic minorities to be the "other group" (Coll & Pachter, 2002). Culture has a demonstrable effect on parenting approaches and methods of participation in children's education. For example, in most races, cultures, and traditions, males are viewed as

the sole providers for the family, which affects their participation in their children's education. Parental involvement has a positive influence on children from all different ethnic groups (Jeynes, 2007). The next few sections will explore how ethnic and cultural differences can affect methods of parenting and parental participation.

African Americans. Males of all races are traditionally viewed as the sole providers for their family (Rasheed & Rasheed, 1999, as cited in Greif et al., 2011). Unemployment is higher among African American men than among the general population; they have a higher chance of being incarcerated in their 20s; they often depend on welfare and cannot earn enough to support their families. Being unable to support their family can inadvertently affect their self-esteem and relationships with others (e.g., significant others, spouses, and children) (Greif et al., 2011). Studies have also shown that African American mothers and fathers have conflicting methods of parenting, which can affect how they care for their children (Riina & McHale, 2012).

Compared to other ethnic groups, African American fathers from two-parent families are more involved in child-rearing, whereas African- American mothers are more involved in the workforce and less involved at home (Riina & McHale, 2012). The role of fathers has improved with positive behaviors, stronger cognitive skills, enhanced child development, and teaching children to demonstrate responsible sexual behaviors (Greif et al., 2011). Even though more than 70% of African-American babies are born out of wedlock, and 80% of these children live in a single-parent home before the age of 16, their mothers are not adolescents as the stereotype suggests (McAdoo, 2002; Washington, 2010). Regardless of their family's SES, research has suggested that African Americans are more likely to use authoritative methods of discipline (e.g., corporal punishment) and focus more on a child's behavior (Bradley, 1998; Portes, Dunham, & Williams, 1986; Riina & McHale, 2012).

Latinos. Latino Americans are the largest minority group in the United States, having emigrated to the United States from Mexico, the Caribbean, and South and Central America (or descended from immigrants) (Harwood, Leyendecker, Carlson, Asencio, & Miller, 2002). Similar to African Americans, Latinos often face discrimination, which affects their methods of parental participation (Coll & Pachter, 2002). Latinos rarely participate actively in their children's school lives, but are more involved in their home lives (Niemeyer, Wong, & Westerhaus, 2009). Latinos emphasize parent–child interaction with respect to behavior and household responsibilities, discourage their children's autonomous and exploratory behaviors, stress parental authority, and believe that physical restriction is a necessary form of discipline (Calzada, Fernandez, & Cortes, 2010; Delgado-Gaitan, 1993, as cited in Harwood et al., 2002). Latino parents expect their children to become more independent and complete self-care tasks at an earlier age, placing less emphasis on autonomy as it relates to their child's self-esteem (Azmitia, Cooper, García, & Dunbar, 1996; Harwood et al., 2002; Schulze, Harwood, Schoelmerich, & Leyendecker, 2002).

Latinos view *respeto* (respect) and *familismo* (family) as the two most important aspects of the family structure (Harwood et al., 2002). *Respeto* encourages the child to develop a sense of independence and obedience toward adults, to not interrupt or argue with them, and to maintain harmony with extended family members; it is a way of demonstrating specific boundaries and designating appropriate and inappropriate child behaviors (Bulcroft, Carmody, & Bulcroft, 1996; Fuligni, 1998). Some studies characterize Latino mothers (primarily Mexicans) of young school-age and adolescent children as being authoritative, hostile, controlling, and inconsistent, while other studies suggest that these mothers are authoritative, protective, and

responsive (Calzada, Huang, Anicama, Fernandez, & Brotman, 2012; Cardona, Nicholson, & Fox, 2000; Rodriguez, Donovick, & Crowley, 2009).

Durand (2011) defined *familismo* as "family closeness, cohesion, and…[a] reliance on family members—including intergenerational and extended kin—as primary sources of instrumental and emotional support, and the commitment to the family over individual needs and desires" (p. 258). Cortes (1995, as cited in Harwood et al.), meanwhile, defined it as "a belief system [that] refers to feelings of loyalty, reciprocity, and solidarity towards members of the family, as well as to the notion of the family as an extension of self" (p. 27). Regardless of the definition, *familismo* creates a strong bond between all family members (either immediate or extended). Children depend on their elders for support and advice. There is a question as to whether *familismo* can have a negative influence on Latino children's academics, because it takes first priority or can therefore be a distraction from their studies. On the other hand, *familismo* may be a positive predictor of Latino children's academic success (Niemeyer, Wong, & Westerhaus, 2009). As compared to EAs, Latinos live in larger families (i.e., extended families), turn more to their elders for advice, and have greater respect their elders' decisions and assistance (Harwood et al., 2002; Leidy, Guerra, & Toro, 2012; Miller & Harwood, 2001).

Latino fathers have been negatively stereotyped as instilling fear in their children, being violent or aggressive toward their wives and children, or having several partners (in either premarital or extramarital affairs). However, there has not been enough research to determine the extent to which these stereotypes reflect reality (Harwood et al., 2002). Latino fathers are reported to be more "instrumentally" involved (i.e., taking responsibility for their child) than "expressively" involved (i.e., engaged in their lives); however, young Latino adults with divorced parents have reported that their parents were less involved when they were young

(Finley & Schwartz, 2006; Glass & Owen, 2010). Roopnarine and Ahmeduzzaman (1993, as cited in Harwood et al., 2002) found no significant difference between the amount of time Puerto Rican and EA fathers spent with their children (approximately three hours a day).

Asian Americans. As of 2014, there are more than 11 million Asians residing in America. This population is comprised of more than 20 different ethnic groups, including Chinese, Filipinos, AIs, Vietnamese, Koreans, and Japanese, who together make up 88% of the Asian population. Other Asian ethnic groups include immigrants from Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, and Singapore. As Asians immigrated to America, they also brought with them their cultural beliefs. To date, the majority of research on parental practices and theories has been focused on Western families; it has not been until recently that studies have been conducted on non-Western families (e.g., Asians). American society has classified Asians as a "model minority" because of their high success rates in economics and academics (Choi, Kim, Pekelnicky, & Kim, 2012). However, even though the average household income of Asians is higher than that of EAs, Asians have more family members per household, which suggests that Asians have less to live on in practice (Chang & Subramaniam, 2008).

Similar to Latinos, Asians view their families as the center of their lives. Asian parents are viewed as being authoritative, respectful, and caring, and fostering family closeness (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). Even though Asian children are expected to make their final decisions independently, youngsters are expected to show respect for and obey their elders. They ask their elders for advice and guidance because they have been raised to believe that their decisions affect not only themselves, but also their family (Ho, 2006; Huntsinger, Jose, & Larson, 1998; Mack, 2012). Asian fathers are viewed as being controlling and strict, whereas Asian mothers are viewed as being kind and warm. These characterizations, however, differ

among Asian groups (Chao & Tseng, 2002; Ho, 2006). These studies (i.e. Chao & Tseng, 2002; Ho, 2006) focused primarily on people from Far Eastern Asian countries; Asians from South Asia were not represented in as much detail. At the same time, research has suggested that Indians and Chinese, the two largest Asian groups in America, have several similarities, but many differences, presented in more detail in the next section.

China vs. India. People from different cultures raise their children differently, affecting their method of parental participation and their children's academic outcomes. In general, Asian American students outperform EAs in several academic subjects, especially math and science. The reasons for the difference between these two groups include cultural beliefs, educational systems, language usage, and parental practices. Research has demonstrated that Chinese parents believe they must keep a degree of control over their child's academics. To do so, they help with and check their child's homework, and monitor activities or other events that might affect their child's academic performance. This section will examine in detail the similarities and differences between Indian and Chinese schools and parents' methods of participation (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009a, 2009c; Huntsinger et al., 2000). Adults who completed their studies in China and India experienced a lot of stress and competition when they were students. Such experiences might affect their methods of participation and communication with their own children (China.org.cn, 2006; ChinatownConnection.com, 2005; Huntsinger, Jose, & Larson, 1998; Mack, 2012; Middle Kingdom Life, 2011; Wan, 2012; Wolpert, 1999; Yang & Frick, 2009).

SAAs are individuals who emigrated from India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, or Sri Lanka. According to the U.S. Government Census (2010), there are more than 3.5 million first- and second-generation SAAs residing in the United States. Currently, SAA/AIAs are the second-largest Asian group in the United States, representing approximately 16% of the Asian-American

population, and becoming the fastest-growing ethnic group in the country (El Nasser & Overberg, 2011). Data published in 2005 indicated that India had some of the best technologists and software computer programmers in the world, even though men completed on average less than 2.9 years of higher education and women completed on average less than 1.8 years of higher education (Cheney, Ruzzi, & Muralidharan, 2005).

Many of the SAA/AIAs residing in the United States originally came to the country as students; in the past few years, the Asian-Indian population has grown, and 75% of AIs are foreign-born (Kumar & Nevid, 2010). China and India have recently experienced dramatic economic and social changes, but both countries continue to emphasize the importance of education and advancement. Indeed, they boast the two largest education systems in the world (Cheney, Ruzzi, & Muralidharan, 2005; Wan, 2012; Wolpert, 1999). The people of both countries believe that education is an important aspect of earning honor for both themselves and their families. Furthermore, both countries have attempted to make education free for all citizens. Unfortunately, as of 2006, 40 million students in India were receiving little to no schooling, even after the Indian government instituted free education (Byrd, 2010; Cheney, Ruzzi, & Muralidharan, 2005; Ghosh, 2008; Singal, 2006).

The education systems in India and China are highly competitive. Students have to take many exams and are obligated to follow instructions without asking questions. Asking questions is seen as a sign of disrespect (China.org.cn, 2006; ChinatownConnection.com, 2005; Huntsinger, Jose, & Larson, 1998; Mack, 2012; Middle Kingdom Life, 2011; Wan, 2012; Wolpert, 1999; Yang & Frick, 2009). CAs associate their children's success with academics, usually spending a lot of time with their children on homework, monitoring their work, teaching lessons (especially in math), and providing structure during play (Huntsinger, Jose, & Larson,

1998; Huntsinger et al., 2011; Huntsinger, Jose, et al., 2000; Huntsinger, Smith, et al., 2000; Huntsinger, Jose, Rudden, Luo, & Krieg, 2001).

The gender gap between sons and daughters still exists in China and India. One of the primary reasons for this might be that families believe it is their responsibility to marry their daughters into good families while their sons finish their education and begin a prosperous profession (Anandalakshmy, 1998; China.org.cn, 2006; ChinatownConnection.com, 2005; Wan, 2012; Wolpert, 1999; Yang & Frick, 2009). Asian Indians used to fear that educating a daughter would make it difficult for her to find a husband, but one survey concluded that 73% of parents actually found it easier to find a husband for their daughter if she was educated (Anandalakshmy, 1998).

India and China also have a wide range of cultural, ethnic, religious, and cultural differences. While China's population is larger, it consists of only 50 different ethnic groups and three major religions; 92% of Chinese people are from the Han ethnic group, and the official language spoken in China is Putonghua (also known as Mandarin). India consists of 2,000 ethnic groups, six major religions, 15 different languages, and hundreds of dialects. Even though Hindi is the official language in India, it is only spoken by one-third of the country's citizens (Arnett, 2006; Carroll, 2009; CERNIC & CERNET, 2000; Ho, 2006; Su, 2012). Although a significant number of people in India also speak English, it is not classified as one of the country's major languages. In fact, more than 300 million Chinese and 350 million Indian citizens speak English fluently, making them the largest English-speaking populations in the world, even greater than the populations of the United Kingdom and the United States combined (Andrews, 2011; Crystal, 2004; Office of National Statistics, 2013; Shin & Kominski, 2010). Chinese and Indians consider

English to be an important means of communication in the areas of higher education, economic power, and global trade (Cheney et al., 2005).

European Americans. Parents and educators in the United States have largely constructed their theories of education based on the ideas of Dewey (2001), Vygotsky (1997), and Piaget and Inhelder (1969). The overarching view is that teachers are facilitators, and students are active learners who learn by exploring, making their own discoveries, and playing with their peers and other individuals. Unlike the Chinese, EAs often believe that "formal education" can emotionally hurt the students; assigning too much homework and subjecting them to too much formal education will cause students to "wash out" over time (Huntsinger et al., 2000). Researchers (e.g., Chao, 1996, as cited in Huntsinger et al., 2000; Miller et al., 1997, as cited in Huntsinger et al., 2000) have found that "[EA] mothers were involved with their children in a more global way, reading to them, listening to them, encouraging them, pretending with them, and being interested in what they are doing, rather than teaching them specific academic skills" (Huntsinger et al., 2000, p. 746).

EAs participate in their children's education differently than CAs. EAs are more involved in school activities than Chinese parents are, but are less involved with their child's academics. Compared to CAs, fewer EAs feel that grades are important during the primary school years (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009c).

Summary. The three largest minority ethnic groups in the United States are Asian Americans, African Americans, and Latino Americans. To understand the cultural differences between ethnic minorities, researchers have compared these minorities to EAs. All three groups view family as an important element in parenting. Society frequently negatively stereotypes African Americans and Latino Americans as being dysfunctional, but casts Asian Americans as a

"model minority." African American parents tend to be more authoritative, but this is probably due to the prejudice and discrimination that so many of them face. Latino Americans and Asian Americans tend to emphasize the importance of family and respect. In addition, Asian American parents believe that their children should turn to elders for advice and guidance, are strict and controlling, and teach their children to become independent as part of child development.

In the past, researchers focused on CAs as the primary Asian population; however, Indians are another Asian group that should be the subject of research. Education is important to Indians and the Chinese, and the competition for college admission is fierce. There are several differences between China and India, however; for example, India has more ethnic groups, speaks more languages, has more individuals fluent in English, and is major religious groups in India. These differences could affect the methods Indians use to participate in their children's education.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has described studies of parental involvement and how educational programs have enhanced parental involvement and children's academic success. Prior to the institution of schools, members of the community were responsible for teaching children. Once a child began school, the involvement of parents became a demonstrably important aspect of developing children's social, emotional, and cognitive skills. At the beginning of the 20th century, the focus on parental involvement began to change from the involvement of mothers, to the involvement of both parents, to a more family-friendly environment. These shifts are probably related to the constant change in family structures.

Today, it is important for schools, communities, and families to work together to properly assist children in achieving academic excellence. Students perform better when their parents

discuss and are interested in their education. Parental involvement can sometimes be related to their expectations, which may differ from their methods of participation. Parental involvement refers to the ways in which parents participate in their child's education, whereas expectations focus on parents' attitude toward schools. Epstein (e.g., 1995, 2011) outlined six types of parental involvement that can positively influence a child's performance: parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making, and collaborating with the community. These six methods of parental participation and the cooperation between schools, families, and communities are central to increasing parental participation and enabling students to achieve better academic scores, complete their homework, and reduce their number of absences. SAA/AIA children must inhabit two separate worlds: their homes, where they are expected to follow the culture and traditions of their parents, and their schools, where they must accept other traditions to be accepted by their peers. This may also hold true for other ethnicities (Farver, Narang, & Bhadha, 2002).

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

Parents and teachers agree that parental participation positively affects students' social behaviors, attendance, and academics. Parents can participate in their child's education using a number of methods. Epstein proposed six unique methods parents can use to participate in their child's education: parenting, communicating, volunteering, enhancing learning at home, making decisions, and collaborating with the community (Epstein, 1983, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1995). As the number of children coming to the United States from other parts of the world continues to increase, it is more important for schools to recognize the ethnic diversity among students and how this may affect parents' methods of participation. For example, researchers have found that Asian Americans (primarily Chinese and Taiwanese Americans) participate more than EAs in terms of assisting their children with their academics (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009a; Huntsinger et al., 2011; Huntsinger et al., 1998; Jose et al., 2000). However, there has been limited research on the parental participation of other Asian groups. Chinese and Indians, for example, are very different in terms of cultures, religions, languages, and ethnic groups. As a result, the methods of participation used by SAA/AIAs and CAs may also differ. In this study, I explored the methods of parental participation preferred by SAA/AIA parents as related to their children's education. This chapter addresses the methodology used for the research.

Research Design and Rationale

Research Design

I used a quantitative approach to gather data about SAA/AIA parents to determine their preferred methods of participating in their child's education. I distributed a copy of Sheldon and Epstein's (2007) survey in order to compare the six different methods SAA/AIA parents use

when participating in their children's education. To analyze these data, I employed the statistical tools ANOVA and MANOVA, as these are effective tools for comparing two or more variables (e.g., Goodman, Bartlett, & Stroh, 2013; Visconti, Sechler, & Kochenderfer-Ladd, 2013).

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to better understand the method(s) SAA/AIA parents use to participate in their children's education. This section outlines the three research questions that guided the study, along with the null (H_0) and alternative hypotheses (H_a) generated.

The research questions (RQ) were as follows:

RQ1: Is there a preferred parental participation style for SAA/AIA parents whose child attends a school in the United States?

$H_0$1: There is a preferred parental participation style for SAA/AIA parents whose child attends a school in the United States.

H_a1: There is not a preferred parental participation style for SAA/AIA parents whose child attends a school in the United States.

RQ2: Is there a difference between the preferred parental participation style of SAA/AIA mothers and that of SAA/AIA fathers whose child attends a school in the United States?

$H_0$2: There is a difference between the preferred parental participation style of SAA/AIA mothers and that of SAA/AIA fathers whose child attends a school in the United States.

H_a2: There is no difference between the preferred parental participation style of SAA/AIA mothers and that of SAA/AIA fathers whose child attends a school in the United States.

RQ3: Does the method of parental participation differ based on the child's gender?

$H_0$3: The method of parental participation differs based on the child's gender for a child that attends a school in the United States.

H_a3: The method of parental participation does not differ based on the child's gender, for a child that attends a school in the United States.

Population and Sampling

Population

Definition. The target population for this study was defined as SAA/AIA parents or caregivers who were born and raised on the subcontinent of India (i.e., India, Pakistan, etc.). The survey was administered to parents who were born and raised in South Asia, and who had at least one child who (a) was either born and raised in the United States or had immigrated to the country prior to prekindergarten and (b) attended a U.S. public school at the time of the study.

Target size. When conducting a study, the target size is important to reduce the chances of Type 1 and Type 2 errors. The following formula was used to calculate the necessary sample size for the study: $(z)^2 – \sigma*(1-\sigma)/E^2$. For the purpose of this study, a two-tailed test at a 95% confidence level ($z = 1.96$) would have a reasonable standard deviation (σ) of 0.5 because the survey has not been administered and 0.5 is the best number to ensure a sample size large enough to conduct this research. Since the total population of SAA/AIA parents whose children attend American public or private schools from kindergarten through second grade is unknown, a sample population of 300 to 400 participants (n = 300 to 400) was used.

Sampling

Sampling strategy. Participants were first sought from various urban, suburban, and rural areas of New Jersey and New York based on a convenience sampling method. Participants

and information were gathered until a reasonable sample size was reached. Additional participants were recruited from other U.S. locations via the Internet.

Sampling frame. The criteria for inclusion in the study was that at least one parent had to have been born and raised in South Asia, while their child had been born and was being raised in the United States (or had immigrated to the United States before beginning prekindergarten). Candidates were excluded from the study if the child attended a private school, had immigrated to the United States during or after kindergarten, or was above second grade at the time of study.

Power analysis. At a confidence level of 95% and a marginal error of between .05 and .057, it was estimated that the appropriate target sample size for this study was between 296 and 384 participants.

Procedure

Recruiting Participants

I used various communication methods to find participants using a convenience sampling method, including communicating with the participants over the phone, sending emails, and speaking to them in person. First, I communicated with these participants in person to ask them for their participation in the study. In addition, I spoke to groups of SAA/AIAs at various social events.

Second, I gathered additional participants using snowball sampling (Heckathorn, 2011). SAA/AIAs were contacted through personal connections and asked if they knew of any individuals who qualified for the research. If they knew of anyone who could participate in the study, they forwarded my contact information to the potential participant. The potential participants were able to contact me, preferably over the telephone, to tell me if they wished to participate in the study. If they agreed to take part in the study, I provided them with a link to an

online version of the survey. After completion, they sent the completed questionnaire to me via mail, email, or the Internet (Survey Monkey).

Third, I spoke with parents at various SAA/AIA gatherings, celebrations, and SAA/AIA sanctuaries (e.g., Derasars, Masjid, and Mandirs), and posted flyers requesting additional parents to participate in the study and to spread word of mouth (see Appendix E). Those who chose to participate went with me into a separate, private room to complete the survey. Alternatively, I gave the participants a copy of the survey along with a self-addressed, stamped envelope, or a link to complete the survey online (participant's choice). Participants were provided with a consent form and the survey (Appendixes B, C, and D), or given access to an electric copy of the survey via Survey Monkey. This process continued until a sufficiently large sample size was gathered. The reasons for employing both an electronic and a paper version of the survey were to increase the number of participants in the study, to increase word of mouth, and to reduce postage.

Protection of participants. Prior to beginning the study, the participants were given an informed consent form (Appendix B). The participants read the form and kept it for their own records. The participants' completion of the survey implied their consent to participation in the study; they were not asked to sign the consent form. I have kept all data and completed questionnaires in a safe to which only I have access, and all data will be destroyed after 5 years of the study's completion. Any surveys that were completed on the Internet were printed, placed in the safe, and immediately deleted from my computer.

Data Collection

Sheldon and Epstein's (2007) survey and methodology is a combination of multiple surveys that were originally developed by Epstein and Salinas (1993). Each subsection can be

used as an individual survey. Sheldon and Epstein subsequently combined these subsections into one survey amounting to 100 items. These items were designed to explore parents' beliefs about their methods of involvement, including their behaviors, social groups, discussions with other parents, and views on their school's atmosphere. For this study, I only used 68 of the questions because certain questions from the subsection "Connections with Other Parents" were not relevant to the research questions, and removing these questions from the survey would not affect the reliability and validity of the study, as explained later in this chapter.

Instrument

Survey

Sheldon and Epstein (2007) gave me permission to adapt and administer sections of their original survey (see Appendixes A and D). They originally developed the Parent Surveys of Family and Community Involvement in the Elementary and Middle Grades in order to explore parents' ideas on parental involvement. The surveys were designed to gather information about parents' methods of involvement, exchange of ideas, attitudes toward and views on school, and additional personal information. Sheldon and Epstein tested the surveys and concluded that they were internally and externally reliable (See Tables 3, 4, and 5). For this study, I only used four parts of the survey: "The School's Contact with You" (i.e., parents' opinions about their relationships with their child's school and teachers); "Your Involvement" (i.e., how often parents participate in their child's education); "Your Ideas" (i.e., parents' opinions on different statements about their child's school); and "Connections with Other Parents" (i.e., how often parents participate in and discuss events or share their opinions about participation with other parents). The questions used a 1–4 Likert scale (see Appendix D for details). Since each portion of this survey was tested individually for its reliability and validity, removing a subsection did

not affect the reliability and validity of the rest of the survey. In addition to Sheldon and Epstein's original survey, I included two additional questions, asking parents about their expectations for their child's future (i.e., what level of education they hope their child will achieve, and what profession they expect their child to pursue).

Raw data. Raw data will be stored in a locked and private file at my home in New Jersey for five years. The data will be destroyed after five years.

Demographic Data

The second section of the survey (demographic data) was optional, and participants could choose to complete it if they desired. This section asked participants to answer questions about their and their spouse's personal information (e.g., date and place of birth, etc.) and their family information (e.g., number of children, age of children, etc.)

Appendix C). The participants were not asked to disclose the names of their children or family members, or the name or location of their child's school.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability

The original study by Sheldon and Epstein (2007) established the reliability of the selected survey for this study. Moreover, Sheldon and Epstein asserted that questions in all subsections could be regrouped or rescored to address specific research questions regarding the preferred methods of parental involvement as per the six types of parental involvement. The first section of Sheldon and Epstein's study asked parents to rank how well their child's school invites parental participation (Epstein's Parental Involvement Types 3 and 5), communicates with them about their child's progress (Epstein's Parental Involvement Type 2), encourages parent–child interaction through homework (Epstein's Parental Involvement Type 4), and communicates and connects with other members of the community (Epstein's Parental Involvement Type 6). Finally, this section also asked parents to rank certain statements about the school's atmosphere (see Appendix D). The reliability of the results of the "Schools Contact with You" section of the survey (Epstein & Sheldon, 2007) is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Reliability of "Schools Contact with You" Section of the Survey

What is measured	Sample size (parents)	Number of questions	Cronbach's Alpha
Epstein's Type 3 and Type 5	395	5	0.841
Epstein's Type 2	376	5	0.873
Epstein's Type 4	386	2	0.649
Epstein's Type 6	407	2	0.737
Climate of the school	399	4	0.882

Note. Adapted from Adapted from Sheldon, S., & Epstein, J. (2007). *Parent and student surveys of family and community involvement in the elementary and middle grades*. Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University Center on School, Family, and Community Patnerships

The second section asked parents about the frequency of their involvement in their child's education. Table 4 shows the reliability of the "Your Involvement" section of the survey (Epstein & Sheldon, 2007).

Table 4

Reliability of "Your Involvement" Section of the Survey

What is measured	Sample size (parents)	Number of questions	Cronbach's Alpha
Epstein's Type 2 and Type 3	404	4	0.763
Epstein's Type 4	392	10	0.897

Note. Adapted from Sheldon, S., & Epstein, J. (2007). *Parent and student surveys of family and community involvement in the elementary and middle grades*. Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University Center on School, Family, and Community Patnerships

The reliabilities of the remaining sections are presented in Table 5. Overall, the several different surveys demonstrated modest to high levels of reliability (Dauber & Epstein, 1989; Sheldon & Epstein, 2007).

Table 5

Reliability of the Last Three Sections: "Your Ideas" and "Connections with Other Parents,"

Section of the survey	Sample size (parents)	Number of questions	Cronbach's Alpha
Your ideas	396	10	0.882
Connections with other parents	384	8	0.822

Note. Adapted from Sheldon, S., & Epstein, J. (2007). *Parent and student surveys of family and community involvement in the elementary and middle grades*. Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University Center on School, Family, and Community Patnerships.

Validity

The purpose of Sheldon and Epstein's (2007) study was to determine the different methods of parental participation. Each question relates specifically to at least one type of parental participation, which helped me to determine the score of each type of parental participation. Since Epstein's (1986, 2009) studies measured the frequency of parental involvement, they demonstrated that the results were consistently valid.

There is a risk that this study may not be externally valid, which could have affected the results. Even though SAA/AIA parents were asked to complete the survey, SAA/AIAs comprise a diverse population that has different cultural, ethnic, and religious practices. In addition, they speak several different languages and dialects. These cultural and linguistic differences could have affected the results of the study.

Data Analysis

For this study, I collected quantitative data using Sheldon and Epstein's (2007) survey. I calculated the z-score to determine the standardized number for the six types of parental participation. I then calculated the average of the mothers' and fathers' scores in order to determine the respective means of each type of parental participation. Finally, I used descriptive statistics to identify whether there were significant differences among the methods of participation.

Analysis of Quantitative Data

The data in this study included the parents' (and families') demographic information, collected via Sheldon and Epstein's (2007) survey (Appendix D). An ANOVA test was conducted to analyze the preferred style of parental participation among SAA/AIAs, using the scores of the mothers and fathers to determine which style was most significant. A MANOVA

test was conducted to analyze the preferred style of parental participation based on the gender of the parent. A MANOVA test was conducted to analyze the preferred style of parental participation based on the gender of the child. The ANOVA and MANOVA tests were carried out using the SPSS version 21.0, or better, for Windows.

Ethical Procedures

The protection of the participants' identity (i.e. name, address) was ensured. Participants were assured that their participation was strictly voluntary. They were provided with clear directions and an explanation of the survey and could choose to opt out any time (see Appendix B) (Standard 8.02, Informed Consent to Research). If they agreed to participate in the research, they completed the survey either electronically or on paper. Completing the survey implied the participant's consent to the conditions of the study. The nature and format of the assessment and the estimated time needed to complete the survey were explained on the request form. Participants were assured that information would not be distributed to any third party without their consent (9.03, Informed Consent in Assessment) (American Psychological Association [APA], 2002; Fisher, 2009).

The Internet has become an important and efficient source of communication. Even though the survey was administered to the participants in person whenever possible in order to ensure that the participant received and completed the survey, participants had the choice to complete the survey online in order to reduce the cost of postage and risk of another person retrieving the surveys.

Care was taken so that neither the researcher nor the participants violated any ethical rules by eliciting or making false statements (Ethical Standard 5.01); however, the participants' honesty was relied upon and trusted (Fisher, 2009). Finally, all other ethical standards

established by the Instructional Review Board (IRB) (IRB approval number: 05-21-14-0065591) were complied with (Ethical Standard, 1.05 & 1.06) (APA, 2002; Fisher, 2009).

Chapter Summary

Parental participation in children's education positively affects students' academic and social performances. Huntsinger and Jose (2009a) demonstrated the cultural differences of parental participation between Asian Americans (primarily Chinese and Taiwanese Americans) and European Americans. There has been little research done on the parental participation of SAA/AIAs, however. Unlike CAs and other Asian groups, AIAs and those from the subcontinents of India represent more languages, ethnic groups, and religions.

In this study, a quantitative method was used to determine which practices SAA/AIA parents prefer to use when participating in their sons' or daughters' education. The participants included parents from various suburban, urban, and rural areas of New Jersey and New York City, particularly from communities with high concentrations of AIAs. The target sample size was between 150 and 200 SAA/AIA couples (n = 300 to 400), and participants were recruited by first speaking to the participants in person. Participants were also recruited utilizing a snowball sampling procedure, whereby I spoke with potential participants at different SAA/AIA festivals and social events and posted flyers at various temples to increase the word of mouth about the study. Portions of Sheldon and Epstein's (2007) survey were used to gather data about participants' methods of parental participation. The results were analyzed using ANOVA and MANOVA tests, as well as correlation using SPSS.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

Whether residing in rural, suburban, or urban areas of the United States, AIAs and SAAs influence American culture. Today, AIA and SAA restaurants, stores, and products are easily found and readily available throughout the United States. Yet, the cultural and behavioral differences of AIAs and SAAs still pose many challenges to American schools. The development of different strategies of parental participation can enhance positive communication and cooperation between teachers and parents and improve the relationships between individuals from different ethnic groups (Epstein, 1987). Furthermore, increased parental participation not only improves students' academic performances and social behaviors but also decreases chronic absences, drug and alcohol use, and promiscuous sexual behaviors (Sheldon & Epstein, 2004; Vevea et al., 2002). Asians have been characterized as one of the most successful minorities in terms of their level of education and types of profession; however, the term Asian is often misunderstood. Individuals from South Asia are also considered to be Asians, but their behaviors and traditions may differ from other Asian minorities. Understanding the methods of participation of other Asian groups besides CAs is important because they speak different languages and observe different traditions and rituals. SAA/AIAs, for example, are more proficient in English than other Asian groups, which may influence their methods of parental involvement. Studying the methods of parental participation is important in order to find ways to improve children's academic success and to develop more well-structured programs for enhancing parental participation. To this end, in this dissertation, I proposed three research questions:

RQ1: Is there a preferred parental participation style for SAA/AIA parents whose child attends a school in the United States?

RQ2: Is there a difference between the preferred parental participation style of SAA/AIA mothers and that of SAA/AIA fathers whose child attends a school in the United States?

RQ3: Does the method of parental participation differ based on the child's gender?

In chapter 4, I address the basic results from the study, including the population size, method of collecting data, the time it took to receive the information, any challenges encountered while collecting the data, the results of the ANOVA and MANOVA calculations, and whether significant differences exists among the types of participation.

Data Collection

Time Frame

After receiving IRB approval for this study, (IRB approval number: 05-21-14-0065591), I started gathering survey data over a 4-month period by communicating with qualified participants in person and asking them to take part in the research. The participants were later taken to a private room and given the consent form (see Appendix B); if the participant agreed to the terms and conditions of the study, he or she was given a copy of the survey (see Appendix C); otherwise, the participant was free to leave. A signature was not required; completion of the survey indicated the participant's agreement to the conditions of the study, as stated in the consent form. In addition, participants were given a copy of a flyer that contained my contact information and the website address where the participants could complete the survey (Appendix E) or spread word-of-mouth knowledge about the survey to their friends and family members. The participants who chose to complete the survey had the option of (a) completing it in the

room, (b) taking it with them (along with a self-addressed stamped envelope) to complete at their own convenience and mail back to me, or (c) completing an online version of the survey.

There were 15 participants in the original group; from this group, seven completed the survey in the room, six took the survey home with a self-addressed stamped envelope, and two chose not to participate. A total of 308 participants (n = 308; 154 males and 154 females) participated in the study. In addition, flyers and self-addressed stamped envelopes with the survey were distributed to 515 people at several SAA/AIA events in New Jersey and New York City. A total of 18 out of 18 participants completed the survey online, 290 of 515 participants completed the survey at home and returned it in the post, and two returned incomplete surveys. The results of the incomplete surveys were not included in the analyses.

Sample

The participants of the study were born and raised in the subcontinent of India (i.e., India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, etc.) and had a child between kindergarten and second grade attending a public or private school in the United States. In addition, the child was either born in the United States or migrated before he or she began prekindergarten. The participants were given an optional demographic information section to complete with the survey; 24% of the participants completed this section. Based on these results, the fathers ranged in age from 32 to 47 and the mothers ranged in age from 30 to 47.

Results

Prior to calculating the ANOVA and MANOVA of the different types of participation, the *z*-scores were calculated for each participant's individual score. This was done because there were unequal numbers of questions related to each method. The ANOVA and MANOVA results were derived from the *z*-scores in order to get more accurate results.

Research Question 1

This study consisted of three different research questions. The first research question was as follows: Is there a preferred parental participation style for SAA/AIA parents whose child attends a school in the United States?

Table 6 shows the descriptive statistics (i.e., mean, standard deviation, and 95% confidence interval) for the dependent variable of parental involvement scores for the six types of parental participation (parenting, communication, volunteering, learning at home, decision making, and collaborating with the community), as well as for all of the groups combined (Total). The means for the six types of parental participation were as follows: parenting (M = -0.285), communication (M = -0.0546), volunteering (M = -0.412), learning at home (M = -0.0183), decision-making (M = -0.0403), and collaborating with the community (M = -0.0037). The data were calculated based on a Likert-scale from 1 to 4, where 1 represented a high level of participation and 4 represented a low level of participation. Based on the results, the highest level of participation was in collaborating with the community, while the lowest level of participation was in communication. Table 6 further explains any significant differences that existed among the methods of participation.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent Variable of Parental Involvement for the Six Types of Parental Participation

				95% Confidence Interval	
Parental involvement types	Mean	Std. Deviation	*N*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound.
Type 1: Parenting	-.0285	.98483	308	-.139	.082
Type 2: Communication	-.0546	.97808	308	-.165	.056
Type 3: Volunteering	-.0412	.98935	308	-.151	.069
Type 4: Learning at home	-.0183	.99282	308	-.129	.092
Type 5: Decision making	-.0403	.98191	308	-.150	.070
Type 6: Collaborating with community	-.0037	.98885	308	-.114	.106
Total	-.0311	.98479	1848		

The ANOVA results shown in Table 7 indicated the following results for parental participation: F (6,301) = .105, p = .991, $\square_p^{\square\square}$= .000. Since the significance level was above 0.05 (p <.05*)*, there was no significant difference amongst the six methods of participation. Therefore, the results support the null hypothesis (H_0). Posthoc analyses using Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) verified that there was no significant difference among the six methods of parental participation. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between any of the methods of participation. Tables 7 and 8 show additional information of the tests between the subjects and Tukey's test.

Table 7
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III sum of squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected model	.511[a]	5	.102	.105	.991	.000
Intercept	1.788	1	1.788	1.840	.175	.001
Type	.511	5	.102	.105	.991	.000
Error	1790.732	1842	.972			
Total	1793.031	1848				
Corrected total	1791.243	1847				

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Type	.511	5	.102	.105	.991	.000
Error	1790.732	1842	.972			
Total	1793.031	1848				
Corrected total	1791.243	1847				

Note. Dependent variable: Parental involvement score. [a.] *R* Squared = .000. (Adjusted *R* Squared = -.002).

Table 8

Multiple Comparisons Analyzing Parental Involvement Scores Using Tukey's HSD

(I) Parental involvement types	(J) Parental involvement types	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Type 1: Parenting	Type 2: Communication	.0261	.07945	.999	-.2006	.2527
	Type 3: Volunteering	.0127	.07945	1.000	-.2140	.2393
	Type 4: Learning at home	-.0102	.07945	1.000	-.2369	.2165
	Type 5: Decision making	.0117	.07945	1.000	-.2149	.2384
	Type 6: Collaborating with community	-.0248	.07945	1.000	-.2515	.2018
Type 2: Communication	Type 1: Parenting	-.0261	.07945	.999	-.2527	.2006
	Type 3: Volunteering	-.0134	.07945	1.000	-.2401	.2132
	Type 4: Learning at home	-.0363	.07945	.998	-.2629	.1904
	Type 5: Decision making	-.0144	.07945	1.000	-.2410	.2123
	Type 6: Collaborating with community	-.0509	.07945	.988	-.2776	.1757
Type 3: Volunteering	Type 1: Parenting	-.0127	.07945	1.000	-.2393	.2140
	Type 2: Communication	.0134	.07945	1.000	-.2132	.2401
	Type 4: Learning at home	-.0229	.07945	1.000	-.2495	.2038
	Type 5: Decision making	-.0009	.07945	1.000	-.2276	.2257
	Type 6: Collaborating with community	-.0375	.07945	.997	-.2642	.1892

(table continues)

(I) Parental involvement types	(J) Parental involvement types	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Type 4: Learning at home	Type 1: Parenting	.0102	.07945	1.000	-.2165	.2369
	Type 2: Communication	.0363	.07945	.998	-.1904	.2629
	Type 3: Volunteering	.0229	.07945	1.000	-.2038	.2495
	Type 5: Decision making	.0219	.07945	1.000	-.2047	.2486
	Type 6: Collaborating with community	-.0146	.07945	1.000	-.2413	.2120
Type 5: Decision making	Type 1: Parenting	-.0117	.07945	1.000	-.2384	.2149
	Type 2: Communication	.0144	.07945	1.000	-.2123	.2410
	Type 3: Volunteering	.0009	.07945	1.000	-.2257	.2276
	Type 4: Learning at home	-.0219	.07945	1.000	-.2486	.2047
	Type 6: Collaborating with community	-.0366	.07945	.997	-.2632	.1901
Type 6: Collaborating with community	Type 1: Parenting	.0248	.07945	1.000	-.2018	.2515
	Type 2: Communication	.0509	.07945	.988	-.1757	.2776
	Type 3: Volunteering	.0375	.07945	.997	-.1892	.2642
	Type 4: Learning at home	.0146	.07945	1.000	-.2120	.2413
	Type 5: Decision making	.0366	.07945	.997	-.1901	.2632

Note. Based on observed means. The error term is Mean Square (Error) = .972.

Research Question 2

The second research question, "Is there a difference between the preferred parental participation style of SAA/AIA mothers and that SAA/AIA fathers whose child attends a school in the United States?", was addressed by comparing the two independent variables (mother and father) and the six dependent variables (methods of parental participation). Table 9 displays the descriptive statistics from this analysis.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics Showing the Mean and Standard Deviations of the Six Dependent Variables (Types of Parental Involvement) and the Two Independent Variables (Mother and Father)

Method of parental involvement	Parent	Mean	Std. Deviation	*N*
Type 1: Parenting	Father	.5849	.93970	154
	Mother	-.6419	.55281	154
	Total	-.0285	.98483	308
Type 2: Communication	Father	.2983	1.00760	154
	Mother	-.4075	.80841	154
	Total	-.0546	.97808	308
Type 3: Volunteering	Father	.3415	1.05533	154
	Mother	-.4239	.74530	154
	Total	-.0412	.98935	308
Type 4: Learning at home	Father	.4859	1.05534	154
	Mother	-.5226	.59350	154
	Total	-.0183	.99282	308
Type 5: Decision making	Father	.2479	1.07791	154
	Mother	-.3284	.77819	154
	Total	-.0403	.98191	308
Type 6: Collaborating with community	Father	.3764	.99151	154
	Mother	-.3838	.82956	154
	Total	-.0037	.98885	308

A MANOVA was conducted using six dependent variables (parenting, communication, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making, and collaborating with the community) and two independent variables (mother and father; see Table 10). The demographic information regarding both parent and child was excluded. Significant associations between mothers and fathers were further examined using nonparametric testing with Pillai's Trace, F (6,301) = 37.244, $p < .05$; Pillai's Trace = 0.426, partial $\square_p^{\square}$ = .426. Significant results were evident between mothers and fathers in terms of their participation methods; all six types of parental involvement were less than 0.05. A pairwise comparison test revealed a significant difference between mothers and

fathers in terms of all six methods of participation in that mothers participated more than fathers in all six methods, but there was no dominant method (Table 11).

Table 10

Multivariate Tests[c] *With Pillai's Trace and* n_p^2

Effect		Value	*F*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent.Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.007	.377[a]	6.000	301.000	.893	.007	2.264	.159
	Wilks' Lambda	.993	.377[a]	6.000	301.000	.893	.007	2.264	.159
	Hotelling's Trace	.008	.377[a]	6.000	301.000	.893	.007	2.264	.159
	Roy's Largest Root	.008	.377[a]	6.000	301.000	.893	.007	2.264	.159
Parent	Pillai's Trace	.426	37.244[a]	6.000	301.000	.000	.426	223.462	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.574	37.244[a]	6.000	301.000	.000	.426	223.462	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.742	37.244[a]	6.000	301.000	.000	.426	223.462	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.742	37.244[a]	6.000	301.000	.000	.426	223.462	1.000

Note. [a.] Exact statistic; [b.]Computed using alpha = .05; [c.] Design: Intercept + Parent.

Table 11

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent.Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	Type 1: Parenting	115.891[a]	1	115.891	194.998	.000	.389	194.998	1.000
	Type 2: Communication	38.363[c]	1	38.363	45.977	.000	.131	45.977	1.000
	Type 3: Volunteering	45.108[d]	1	45.108	54.048	.000	.150	54.048	1.000
	Type 4: Learning at Home	78.316[e]	1	78.316	106.844	.000	.259	106.844	1.000
	Type 5: Decision Making	25.567[f]	1	25.567	28.931	.000	.086	28.931	1.000
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	44.490[g]	1	44.490	53.242	.000	.148	53.242	1.000
Intercept	Type 1: Parenting	.251	1	.251	.422	.516	.001	.422	.099
	Type 2: Communication	.919	1	.919	1.101	.295	.004	1.101	.182
	Type 3: Volunteering	.523	1	.523	.626	.429	.002	.626	.124
	Type 4: Learning at Home	.104	1	.104	.141	.707	.000	.141	.066

(table continues)

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent.Parameter	Observed Power[b]
	Type 5: Decision Making	.499	1	.499	.565	.453	.002	.565	.116
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	.004	1	.004	.005	.943	.000	.005	.051
Parent	Type 1: Parenting	115.891	1	115.891	194.998	.000	.389	194.998	1.000
	Type 2: Communication	38.363	1	38.363	45.977	.000	.131	45.977	1.000
	Type 3: Volunteering	45.108	1	45.108	54.048	.000	.150	54.048	1.000
	Type 4: Learning at Home	78.316	1	78.316	106.844	.000	.259	106.844	1.000
	Type 5: Decision Making	25.567	1	25.567	28.931	.000	.086	28.931	1.000
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	44.490	1	44.490	53.242	.000	.148	53.242	1.000
Error	Type 1: Parenting	181.862	306	.594					
	Type 2: Communication	255.325	306	.834					
	Type 3: Volunteering	255.387	306	.835					

(table continues)

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent.Parameter	Observed Power[b]
	Type 4: Learning at Home	224.294	306	.733					
	Type 5: Decision Making	270.424	306	.884					
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	255.704	306	.836					
Total	Type 1: Parenting	298.005	308						
	Type 2: Communication	294.606	308						
	Type 3: Volunteering	301.018	308						
	Type 4: Learning at Home	302.713	308						
	Type 5: Decision Making	296.491	308						
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	300.198	308						

(table continues)

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent.Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Total	Type 1: Parenting	297.754	307						
	Type 2: Communication	293.687	307						
	Type 3: Volunteering	300.495	307						
	Type 4: Learning at Home	302.610	307						
	Type 5: Decision Making	295.991	307						
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	300.194	307						

Note. [a.] R Squared = .389 (Adjusted R Squared = .387); [b.] Computed using alpha = .05; [c.] R Squared = .131 (Adjusted R Squared = .128); [d.] R Squared = .150 (Adjusted R Squared = .147); [e.] R Squared = .259 (Adjusted R Squared = .256); [f.] R Squared = .086 (Adjusted R Squared = .083); [g.] R Squared = .148 (Adjusted R Squared = .145).

Table 12

Pairwise Comparisons Based on Estimated Marginal Means

Dependent Variable	(I) Parent	(J) Parent	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Type 1: Parenting	Father	Mother	1.227*	.088	.000	1.054	1.400
	Mother	Father	-1.227*	.088	.000	-1.400	-1.054
Type 2:	Father	Mother	.706*	.104	.000	.501	.911
Communication	Mother	Father	-.706*	.104	.000	-.911	-.501
Type 3: Volunteering	Father	Mother	.765*	.104	.000	.561	.970
	Mother	Father	-.765*	.104	.000	-.970	-.561
Type 4: Learning at	Father	Mother	1.009*	.098	.000	.817	1.200
Home	Mother	Father	-1.009*	.098	.000	-1.200	-.817
Type 5: Decision	Father	Mother	.576*	.107	.000	.365	.787
Making	Mother	Father	-.576*	.107	.000	-.787	-.365
Type 6: Collaborating	Father	Mother	.760*	.104	.000	.555	.965
with Community	Mother	Father	-.760*	.104	.000	-.965	-.555

Note. For correlations marked with *, the mean difference is significant at the .05 level.[a.] Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Research Question 3

A MANOVA was conducted for the third research question, "Does the method of parental participation differ based on the child's gender?" in order to compare the two independent variables (sons and daughters) and the six methods of participation. The demographic information related to both parent and child was excluded from the analysis and a multivariate test (see Table 13).

Significant associations between sons and daughters were identified using nonparametric testing with Pillai's Trace, F (6, 301) = 1.957, $p < .05$; Pillai's Trace = 0.038, practical $\square_p^{\square}$ = .038. Since the p-value was greater than 0.05, the results confirmed that there were no significant differences between the six types of parental involvement based on the gender of the child. A

pairwise comparison was conducted to confirm that there were no significant differences in methods of parental involvement with respect to the gender of the child. The results confirmed that significant differences do not exist among the groups (see Tables 14, 15, and 16).

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics Showing the Mean and Standard Deviation of the Six Dependent Variables (Types of Parental Involvement) and the Two Independent Variables (Son and Daughter)

Method of Parental Participation	Child	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Type 1: Parenting	Son	-.0461	.95481	149
	Daughter	-.0121	1.01489	159
	Total	-.0285	.98483	308
Type 2: Communication	Son	-.0950	.99471	149
	Daughter	-.0168	.96384	159
	Total	-.0546	.97808	308
Type 3: Volunteering	Son	-.1230	.95470	149
	Daughter	.0354	1.01779	159
	Total	-.0412	.98935	308
Type 4: Learning at Home	Son	.0303	.96856	149
	Daughter	-.0640	1.01596	159
	Total	-.0183	.99282	308
Type 5: Decision Making	Son	-.1148	.95569	149
	Daughter	.0296	1.00384	159
	Total	-.0403	.98191	308
Type 6: Collaborating with	Son	.0113	.92644	149
Community	Daughter	-.0178	1.04670	159
	Total	-.0037	.98885	308

Table 14

Multivariate Tests Showing the Pillai's Trace and n^{2c}

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent.Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.008	.400[a]	6.000	301.000	.879	.008	2.397	.166
	Wilks' Lambda	.992	.400[a]	6.000	301.000	.879	.008	2.397	.166
	Hotelling's Trace	.008	.400[a]	6.000	301.000	.879	.008	2.397	.166
	Roy's Largest Root	.008	.400[a]	6.000	301.000	.879	.008	2.397	.166
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.038	1.957[a]	6.000	301.000	.072	.038	11.745	.716
	Wilks' Lambda	.962	1.957[a]	6.000	301.000	.072	.038	11.745	.716
	Hotelling's Trace	.039	1.957[a]	6.000	301.000	.072	.038	11.745	.716
	Roy's Largest Root	.039	1.957[a]	6.000	301.000	.072	.038	11.745	.716

Note. [a.] Exact statistic; [b.] Computed using alpha = .05;[c.] Design: Intercept + Gender.

Table 15

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power[b]
Corrected Model	Type 1: Parenting	.089[a]	1	.089	.092	.762	.000	.092	.060
	Type 2: Communication	.470[c]	1	.470	.491	.484	.002	.491	.107
	Type 3: Volunteering	1.929[d]	1	1.929	1.977	.161	.006	1.977	.289
	Type 4: Learning at Home	.684[e]	1	.684	.693	.406	.002	.693	.132
	Type 5: Decision Making	1.602[f]	1	1.602	1.665	.198	.005	1.665	.251
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	.065[g]	1	.065	.067	.797	.000	.067	.058
Intercept	Type 1: Parenting	.260	1	.260	.268	.605	.001	.268	.081
	Type 2: Communication	.961	1	.961	1.003	.317	.003	1.003	.170
	Type 3: Volunteering	.590	1	.590	.604	.438	.002	.604	.121
	Type 4: Learning at Home	.087	1	.087	.088	.767	.000	.088	.060
	Type 5: Decision Making	.558	1	.558	.580	.447	.002	.580	.118

(table continues)

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power[b]

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power[b]
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	.003	1	.003	.003	.954	.000	.003	.050
Gender	Type 1: Parenting	.089	1	.089	.092	.762	.000	.092	.060
	Type 2: Communication	.470	1	.470	.491	.484	.002	.491	.107
	Type 3: Volunteering	1.929	1	1.929	1.977	.161	.006	1.977	.289
	Type 4: Learning at Home	.684	1	.684	.693	.406	.002	.693	.132
	Type 5: Decision Making	1.602	1	1.602	1.665	.198	.005	1.665	.251
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	.065	1	.065	.067	.797	.000	.067	.058
Error	Type 1: Parenting	297.665	306	.973					
	Type 2: Communication	293.217	306	.958					
	Type 3: Volunteering	298.566	306	.976					
	Type 4: Learning at Home	301.926	306	.987					
	Type 5: Decision Making	294.389	306	.962					

(table continues)

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power[b]
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	300.129	306	.981					
Total	Type 1: Parenting	298.005	308						
	Type 2: Communication	294.606	308						
	Type 3: Volunteering	301.018	308						
	Type 4: Learning at Home	302.713	308						
	Type 5: Decision Making	296.491	308						
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	300.198	308						
Corrected Total	Type 1: Parenting	297.754	307						
	Type 2: Communication	293.687	307						
	Type 3: Volunteering	300.495	307						
	Type 4: Learning at Home	302.610	307						
	Type 5: Decision Making	295.991	307						

(table continues)

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent Parameter	Observed Power[b]
	Type 6: Collaborating with Community	300.194	307						

Note. [a.] R Squared = .000 (Adjusted R Squared = -.003); [b.] Computed using alpha = .05; [c.] R Squared = .002 (Adjusted R Squared = -.002); [d.] R Squared = .006 (Adjusted R Squared = .003); [e.] R Squared = .002 (Adjusted R Squared = -.001); [f.] R Squared = .005 (Adjusted R Squared = .002); [g.] R Squared = .000 (Adjusted R Squared = -.003).

Table 16

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(I) Child	(J) Child	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Type 1: Parenting	Son	Daughter	-.034	.112	.762	-.255	.187
	Daughter	Son	.034	.112	.762	-.187	.255
Type 2:	Son	Daughter	-.078	.112	.484	-.298	.141
Communication	Daughter	Son	.078	.112	.484	-.141	.298
Type 3:	Son	Daughter	-.158	.113	.161	-.380	.063
Volunteering	Daughter	Son	.158	.113	.161	-.063	.380
Type 4: Learning at	Son	Daughter	.094	.113	.406	-.129	.317
Home	Daughter	Son	-.094	.113	.406	-.317	.129
Type 5: Decision	Son	Daughter	-.144	.112	.198	-.364	.076
Making	Daughter	Son	.144	.112	.198	-.076	.364
Type 6:	Son	Daughter	.029	.113	.797	-.193	.251
Collaborating with	Daughter	Son	-.029	.113	.797	-.251	.193
Community							

Note. Based on estimated marginal means.

[a.] Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine whether AIA and SAA parents have preferred methods of parental participation in their child's education. A total of 308 participants completed

the survey (n = 308; 154 males and 154 females). A total of 292 surveys were returned via the post (two were incomplete and not included), and 18 surveys were completed online.

Three research questions were addressed. Results from the analyses showed that there was not method of participation preferred by AIA and SAA (RQ_1), nor were there significant differences in the methods of participation with respect to the gender of the child (RQ_3). However, the results showed a significant difference in terms of the methods of participation of mothers and fathers (RQ_2). In Chapter 5, the interpretation of the results and implications for future research will be discussed.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Former Governor of Arizona Jane Hull once said, "At the end of the day, the most overwhelming key to a child's success is the positive involvement of parents." Parents, along with family members, members of the community, and school faculty are all responsible for raising children and preparing them for the future. Epstein and colleagues (e.g., 1989, 2010) and Huntsinger and colleagues (e.g., 2009a, 2009b, 2009c) demonstrated that culture, SES, and religious beliefs are some of the many factors that can affect parents' methods of participation in their child's education (Epstein, 1987). The United States has always been known as a melting pot; nevertheless, it is important to understand the cultural differences not only among groups, but also within groups because the methods through which parents choose to participate in their child's education can have a profound effect on the child's social and academic performances. Educating schools about these differences can help them to encourage positive relationships among teachers, parents, and children.

Cultural differences may affect the preferred methods of participation for parents (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009b, 2009c). Studies have shown that CA parents' methods of participation differ from those of EAs. However, little is known about the participation other Asian groups, such as those from South Asia and India. The term Asians is often misinterpreted to mean individuals from Far East Asia who represent only a small portion of the Asian population as a whole. Asian Indians and South Asians contribute to both Asian and Western cultures. Hence, conducting research among this group could enable parents and practitioners to foster positive communication and to develop additional programs and interventions tailored to this group.

Interpretation of the Findings

In Chapter 2, I emphasized the importance of parental involvement as described in the literature. According to Epstein's theory of overlapping spheres of influence and the six types of parental involvement, the community, schools, and families are all responsible for taking care of children, helping them to prosper, and helping them to reach their full potential. Parental involvement was first viewed as a unidimensional construct where researchers correlated one method of involvement (e.g., communication) with the student's outcome (e.g., grades). Epstein (e.g. 2007, 2011), however, suggested that parental participation should be viewed as a multiple approach. Schools and family members need to work together as a team, instead of as individuals, in order to improve students' academic performance. Furthermore, the child's home life and school life should be viewed as a whole.

Epstein and Sheldon (2007) adapted their ideas of the six types of parental involvement based on the National PTA and the No Child Left Behind Act, suggesting that parents can participate in their child's education by parenting (e.g., child-rearing), communicating (e.g., parent–teacher communication), volunteering (e.g., helping out at fieldtrips), enhancing learning at home (e.g., giving additional work or assignments for students to complete at home), decision making (e.g., participating in PTA meetings), and collaborating with the community (e.g., teaching students about their profession).

Interpretation for Research Question 1

As stated in Chapters 2 and 3, there is a correlation between parents' participation in their child's education and an improvement in the child's grades and attendance (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994). In addition, parental participation has promoted healthier foods in schools, decreased school violence, and influenced several state and federal policies (Michael et al.,

2007). When parents are involved in their child's education, it promotes positive bonds between the community, family, and the school, as they work together as a team to enhance the child's academic growth (e.g. Epstein, 2011).

In addition to the Likert scale, the survey also asked parents about their expectations regarding their child's academic performance and future profession (see Appendix D). The majority of the participants stated that they wanted their child to pursue education beyond a bachelor's degree but wanted their child to choose a profession that "makes them happy." Other parents stated that their hopes were for their child to become an engineer or a doctor, and one parent stated that they wanted their child to "continue the family business." Shen, Liao, Abraham, and Weng (2014) explained that Asian-American parents often pressure their children to get "secure occupations" and expect their child to have a high-paying job. The Asian-American population represents 15% of those in the computer and math professions and between 13% and 33% of those in the fields of biology, medicine, and chemistry. Meanwhile, only 2.7% of Asian Americans work in social services, and 3.2% work in the field of psychology. At the same time, AIA students desire to work in a profession that lives up to their parents' expectations. These expectations could affect the parents' approach toward their child's education and their choices for their child's future profession.

The results of this study showed that there were no significant differences among the six methods of parental participation for AIAs and SAAs (RQ1), which indicated that there was no preferred method of participation among AIAs and SAAs. Although Huntsinger and Jose (2009a, 2009b, 2009c) demonstrated that CAs were more involved in their child's academics, such as in teaching or testing their child (Epstein's Type 4; Epstein et al., 2011), SAA/AIA parents did not demonstrate that there was a particularly dominant method of participation. Finally, the current

study suggested that AIA and SAA parents have high expectations for their child to graduate with more than a bachelor's degree.

Interpretation for Research Question 2

The second research question asked whether there were significant differences between the methods of participation of the mother and those of the father (RQ2). The results suggested that mothers were more involved in their child's education than fathers were in all six types of parental participation. The results demonstrated that even though there was a significant difference between mothers and fathers, there was no preferred method among the six methods of participation. Moreover, these results suggested that (a) mothers and fathers are open to participating in all six methods of parental participation and (b) mothers participate more than fathers in their child's education do. The fact that the mothers were more involved than the fathers in their child's education was not unexpected; however, it was unanticipated that there would be no preferred method of parental participation among SAA/0AIA mothers.

Biddle's role theory (1986) suggests that each family member (i.e., mother and father) has certain similarities in terms of how they are expected to behave in certain situations, based on their gender, and that mothers and fathers may take on specific responsibilities when caring for their family. Even though it has been widely acknowledged that both mothers and fathers contribute to their child's development in significant ways, the contributions of fathers and the effects on young children have only rarely been studied (Hallers-Haalboom et al., 2014; Keizer & Jaddoe, 2014; Lewis & Lamb, 2003). Several studies have suggested that positive maternal sensitivity relates to positive outcomes for the children; however, the limited studies of paternal interaction in child development have shown evidence of similar outcomes (Hallers-Haalboom et al., 2014; Lewis & Lamb, 2003). The different responsibilities taken on by parents could

influence their interaction with their children and, in turn, their methods of participation in their children's education (Hallers-Haalboom et al., 2014; Lewis & Lamb, 2003). While this dissertational study showed that SAA/AIA mothers participated in each method significantly more than fathers, the study could not identify a dominant method of participation among mothers and fathers.

As the number of immigrant parents continues to rise, parents are faced with the pressures of maintaining their cultural identity, while parenting their child in a culture that is dissimilar from their own. In effect, they must balance between enculturation (i.e., being in one's culture) and acculturation (i.e., communicating outside of one's culture; Kumar & Nevid, 2010; Rana, 2013). While many parents want to maintain cultural rituals and traditions, they must nevertheless adjust to the cultural differences in their new environment (Rana, 2013). There is less emphasis placed on enculturation among SAA/AIA groups. SAA/AIAs tend to hold on to a stronger sense of culture and values; they try to maintain strong ties to their traditional culture, even while living in another nation (Kumar & Nevid, 2010). If AIAs and SAAs have stronger bonds with their cultural values and traditions, they might also have stronger bonds with their children, because, as mentioned in Chapter 2, Asian Americans view family as the center of their lives. As a result, these bonds could inadvertently affect the parents' methods of participation.

The roles of mothers and fathers have changed over the past few decades. In the past, mothers were primarily responsible for caring for their children and their home, while fathers provided for the family (i.e., financially). Today, fathers have taken on more responsibilities in the home, and many mothers work outside the home (Hallers-Haalboom et al., 2014; Keizer & Jaddoe, 2014; Lewis & Lamb, 2003). Inman, Howard, Beaumont, and Walker (2007) suggested that SAA/AIA mothers and fathers take care of their children differently, when compared to

EAs. SAA/AIA mothers, for example, emphasize caring not only for their own children but also for members of their extended family. In addition, they emphasize parental practice and have higher expectations for their children to succeed, compared to other ethnic groups. SAA/AIA mothers regret being unable to spend time with their children, while SAA/AIA fathers regret being unable to speak their native language at home. Even as the roles of mothers and fathers continue to evolve, the results of my study demonstrated that SAA/AIA mothers were more involved than SAA/AIA fathers were in their child's education, yet there was no dominant method of participation found with respect to mothers and fathers.

Interpretation for Research Question 3

The third research question asked whether there was a significant difference in the methods of participation with respect to the gender of the child (RQ3). Bem's gender schema theory (1981) suggests that parents may behave differently toward their children based on the child's gender. The differentiation between males and females has been a basic principle in every human culture, including South-Asian and Asian-Indian cultures. These differences "may be observed in the opportunities parents provide… for their children" (p. 139). Martin and Ross (2005), for example, suggested that parents may prohibit their daughters, but not their sons, from engaging in aggressive behaviors. In addition, other findings have indicated that both the parent's gender and the child's gender may influence parent–child interaction (Russell & Saebel, 1997, as cited in Hallers-Haalboom et al., 2014). These different attitudes and approaches that parents may have toward their child could affect their communication with their child and their methods participation in their child's education.

The results of this study suggested, however, that there were no significant differences among the six methods of participation with respect to the gender of the child (RQ3). This

finding indicates that the method of parental participation is not dependent on the gender of the child. Since this hypothesis was based on Bem's theory, which states that parents might differentiate between children based on the child's gender, these results were surprising. Due to changes in Asian-Indian society, however, Anandalkshmy (1998) reported that parents found it easier to find a husband for their daughter if she was more educated. These changing perceptions of gender could help to explain the finding that the parents participated equally in all six methods of participation, regardless of the gender of the child.

Limitations of the Study

The existing framework of the six methods of parental participation was adopted as the initial framework for this study. The predictions were that SAA/AIA parents would have a preferred method of participation, mothers and fathers would each have a preferred method of participation, and the gender of the child would affect the parents' methods of participation. The results of this study were unable to establish any significant differences between the six methods of participation. These results were surprising; since Asian-Indian parents are expected to be more educated and academically successful, which differs from other Asian populations, it was expected that they would have a preferred method of participation. This discrepancy might have been due to the short length of the questionnaire. Furthermore, the questionnaire only consisted of a Likert scale, which did not give participants an opportunity to explain their answers. For example, when Huntsinger and colleagues (i.e. 2009b, 2009c) demonstrated that CA parents were more interested in participating in their child's academics, they employed a mixed methods approach that included personal interviews with the participants. They also conducted a longitudinal study among CAs and EAs. Since my study was a quantitative study that relied on a brief questionnaire, the participants may not have accurately rated their participation in their

child's education. Future studies might explore using additional methodologies to investigate parents' methods of participation in their child's education.

Another limitation to this study may be related to the level of parental participation among Asian-Indian Americans. Even though there has been research conducted on Asian Indians in the United States (and Canada) in terms of their methods of parenting and their approach to academics, there has been relatively little research conducted on their methods of participation, compared to other Asians (e.g., Chinese Americans). While my research could not identify a dominant method of participation amongst AIA and SAA parents, this study could be extended to include interviews and open-ended questions in order to explore whether SAA/AIA parents approach their child's education differently compared to other Asian groups.

Finally, this survey consisted of self-reported data, which relies on the honesty of the participants. Many times, when self-reporting, participants may exaggerate their opinions, report the data based on what they believe the researcher expects, or rate their answers based on what they think reflects positively on their abilities or beliefs. Therefore, interviews with participants could further explore the accuracy of the results of this study.

Recommendations

The Indian subcontinent is a very culturally diverse region due to the number of languages, traditions, and religions practiced. India has exerted an influence on American culture and traditions through things such as vegetarianism, yoga, and sitar. As SAA/AIAs continue to immigrate to the United States, the media both positively and negatively depict cultural behaviors, which may make it difficult for others to understand the culture.

The results of this study suggest that there is no dominant method of parental participation among SAA/AIA parents, nor is there a preferred method chosen by mothers and

fathers or differing approaches to their sons and daughters. At the same time, the results suggest that mothers are more involved in their child's education than fathers are. Since this study was limited to a Likert scale and quantitative data, additional research is necessary to further understand the approaches of Asian-Indian American parents.

Interviews. Since the survey questions were generic, future studies should incorporate personal interviews with parents. Huntsinger and colleagues (2009b, 2009c) conducted a mixed methods study, which included specific questions about how parents assist their child in math and reading, the type of report card used at their child's school, and the methods they use to foster their child's creativity. Similar questions could be posed to SAA/AIA parents in order to specifically explore their methods of communicating and participating in their child's education. Interviews allow the researcher to establish trust and to develop an in-depth understanding of the participant and their environment (McNair, Taft, & Hegarty, 2008). When interviewing the parents, the researcher could elicit more specific answers regarding how parents assist their child in their academics (Type 4, Learning at Home) and the different responsibilities taken by each parent in their home environment (Type 1, Parenting). As a result, the researcher would be able to compare and contrast how mothers and fathers assist their child (RQ2) and the methods employed with respect to their sons and daughters (RQ3). Finally, interviews could also allow the researcher to determine whether there are specific areas parents do not participate in and why (RQ1).

Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies would also be beneficial for observing and understanding the parental participation of SAA/AIAs and for creating a more sound study. As prior research has demonstrated, as children advance to higher grades, the amount of parental participation decreases (e.g., Desimone, Finn-Stevenson, & Henrich, 2000; Goddard, 2003; Ma,

1999). Some of the reasons for this decline may be the difficulty of the assignments or the lack of encouragement from the schools to increase parental participation in these grades.

Cross-sectional study. A cross-sectional study is when the researcher observes different groups over the same period of time. This study explored how parents of children from kindergarten to Grade 2 participated in their child's education. In future studies, researchers could observe how parents of children in other age groups (e.g., Grades 4 to 6, Grades 6 to 8, and high school) differ with respect to their methods of participation. Comparing and constrasting these different age groups could increase the understanding of SAA/AIA parental participation and lead to the development of alternative methods that schools, community, and families could use to encourage a positive learning environment for parents, schools, and students.

Longitudinal study. Longitudinal studies allow the researcher to follow the same group of participants over a longer period of time in order to assess how the object of study changes over time. Huntsinger and colleagues conducted a longitudinal study in order to determine whether parents' methods of participation change as their children get older. Huntsinger and Jose (e.g. 2009a, 2009b, 2009c) concluded that over time Chinese-American parents were more involved in their child's academics and believed that schools did not give enough homework to their children. Conversely, European-American parents believed that there was too much homework assigned for their children. Chinese-American parents also placed more emphasis on their child's academic success from an early stage (preschool). Future studies could take a similar approach to determine whether AIAs also place such a strong emphasis on their child's academics and whether that continues as the child gets older. The results of such studies would give schools a greater appreciation of how much effort many parents make at home. Indeed, Huntsinger and Jose (2009c) believed that it is important for teachers to appreciate the efforts

that Chinese-American parents put into their children's academic success at home. In addition to understanding the different approaches between cultures, it could also be important to understand at which educational levels the child's mother and father are most likely to participate in their child's education. This way, schools can be prepared to communicate with each parent on how to assist their student in achieving excellence.

These cross-sectional and longitudinal approaches could assist the researcher in understanding how parents' methods of participation (RQ_1) change over time, and how mother's and fathers' behaviors toward their child's education could differ depending on the parent's (RQ_2) or the child's gender (RQ_3). Although the current study found that SAA/AIA mothers participate more than fathers in their child's education do, additional research is needed to more fully understand SAA/AIA parental participation. By extending this study, researchers could identify the methods used by SAA/AIA parents to participate in their child's education and how those may change as the child gets older. Results from such future studies could then help schools and administrators to better understand these ethnic minorities and to encourage positive relations among schools, parents, family members, and the community. As SAA/AIAs continue to assimilate into American culture, it is important for these groups to take advantage of all six methods of participation in order to improve communication and to better assist parental participation.

Given that parental participation has been found to be a positive influence on students' academic performance, more research is needed to fully understand the different skills and methods of participation valued by various cultural groups in a multi-ethnic educational landscape. Studying and understanding how other nations and cultures participate in children's education is important for schools and researchers, so that they can develop methods to

communicate with the parents and to close the gaps between schools, families, and communities (Epstein, 2014).

Implications

"Asians" or "Asian Americans" has often been taken to mean individuals from Far East Asia, primarily China. However, there are many other types of Asians, including South Asians (i.e., India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka). While South Asians and Far East Asians share different cultures and traditions, important differences are often disregarded and it is expected that all Asians will behave similarly. Since educators, administrators, and other school officials working in the United States are exposed to a multicultural environment, it is important for them to prepare themselves for teaching and educating a diverse community. If they are unfamiliar with the cultural differences in question, they might unknowingly make assumptions about "Asian" cultural behaviors and treat all parents and children the same.

Implications for Social Change

Asian-Americans have outperformed European Americans in several areas of academics, especially in math and science. At the same time, there are several differences between Chinese Asians and Asian-Indians, including cultural beliefs, educational systems, languages, and parental practices. While Chinese Americans and Asian Indians are the two largest Asian minority groups residing in the United States, Asian Indians have become the fastest growing ethnic minority group in recent years. Understanding that SAA/AIA cultural practices not only differ from other Asian groups, but also differ within the group, can enable school officials to better assist AIA parents and students. Indeed, the results of this study are useful for helping school officials, teachers, and administrators to understand the cultural specificities of different minority groups and to ensure equal access to all.

While this study did not identify a dominant method of parental participation among SAA/AIAsfurther research is needed to fully understand the methods SAA/AIA parents use to communicate with schools and teachers, and to participate in their children's education. Nevertheless, it is important for practitioners to recognize the high degree of diversity among AIAs and SAAs, which could impact how parents participate in their child's education. Acknowledging that diversity might enable SAA/AIA parents to participate on their own terms, to voice their opinions, and to assist their child in striving for excellence. In turn, schools can develop ways to effectively communicate and collaborate with SAA/AIA parents. This cooperation will help the child to succeed not only in academics, but also with social and cognitive development.

As SAA/AIAs continue to migrate to the United States, school officials have to learn about these ethnic minorities and their preferred methods of participation in order to develop more positive relations among members of the community, schools, and family members (primarily parents). Many teachers have suggested that parental involvement at home can be an important contributor for the goals teachers set for themselves and the students. Many teachers have also argued that parent–teacher conferences help to develop positive communication (Becker, Epstein, & VanVoorhis, 2001). In addition, effective two-way communication can increase the level of cooperation between the student's home life and school. Students also see that parents and teachers are working together for their success (Epstein, et al., 2002). The participation of Asian-American parents in various activities and programs related to their child's education could have long-lasting effects on their continued success in academics (Huntsinger, 2009c). Schools must embrace this and use a variety of methods to communicate with parents

about events, policies, and their child's grades/test scores, while accounting for specific cultural differences (Adelman & Taylor, 2007; Cotton & Wikelund, 1989; Graue, 1999).

When administrators understand how SAA/AIA cultures differ from those of other Asian groups, they can develop additional methods for communicating with those parents and helping them to feel included. As schools begin to understand how one particular group prefers to participate in their child's education, they can slowly increase their knowledge by learning how other cultural groups (or sub-cultural groups) may participate in their child's education. This knowledge could directly impact the school's social structure.

Even though the theory of the six methods of parental involvement was developed by Epstein in the 1980s, this approach still provides schools with a framework with which to increase positive communication between families and the school, and to encourage family members to become more active in their child's education (Sanders, 2014; Vance, 2014). In addition, the educational system and landscapes continues to change, as it did in the past, but when families, schools, and communities develop positive communication (or partnership), students demonstrated positive academic achievement (Quezada, 2014). Epstein has continued her studies on parental participation and organized the International Network of Scholars who are involved in research on the impact of parental participation in the United States and over 40 other nations. This research is aimed at improving the relationships among schools, families, and community members (Epstein, 2014). In the past, teachers primarily focused on instructions, grades, and discipline, but today they need to expand their role. Part of this new role is to increase parental participation (Brasel, 2008). To accomplish this, teachers and other school officials need to understand the cultural diversity that exists in public schools today. Furthermore, it is important for teachers to understand that many families bring their cultural

beliefs and behaviors with them as they migrate to foreign countries. This tendency has been found to be stronger among Asian-Indians (e.g., Kumar & Nevid, 2010). When schools and teachers understand the cultural difference that exist among others, it lays the foundation for positive social change—with families, community, and schools working together to achieve common goals.

This study explored how 308 SAA/AIA parents preferred to participate in their child education. In addition, it explored the parents' expectations regarding their child's academic and professional future. While several of the SAA/AIA parents expected their child to receive degrees higher than a bachelor's, at the same time, they wanted their child to choose a profession that "makes them happy." This finding differed from Shen, Liao, Abraham, and Weng's (2014) study, which suggested that Asian Americans pressure their children to get into a "secured occupation" that is high paying. While many parents may expect their children to be highly educated, developing programs and improving communication between schools, community, and families would emphasize this and encourage schools to communicate with other ethnic minorities. This might assist children in accessing and completing higher education after high school.

Federal and state laws have also emphasized the importance of parental participation (e.g., the Elementary and Secondary Act, NCPIE). However, schools, states, and federal laws must recognize the ways in which cultural behaviors can impact parents' methods of participation. Beyond the educational context, greater understanding of these cultural differences and behaviors can assist the broader community and strengthen the bonds between the community, families, and schools.

Conclusion

Parents, teachers, members of the community, school faculty, and family members are all responsible for preparing children for the future. The communication and relationships among schools, families, and the community have had a proven impact on improving students' academic performance. Viewing parental participation as a multidimensional construct has allowed for the improvement of the relationships between schools, communities, and families. The results of this study demonstrate that SAA/AIA parents participate in all six methods equally (RQ_1). They do not differentiate in their method of participation based on the gender of their child (RQ_3); however, mothers are more involved than fathers are in their child's education, although there was no significant difference between their preferred methods of participation (RQ_2). Additional studies should be conducted in order to better understand whether a preferred method of participation exists.

Parental participation in children's lives, and in particular in their education, is crucial for students to achieve their greatest potential and be prepared for the future. Benjamin Franklin once said, "Tell me and I forget, teach me and I may remember, involve me and I learn."

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Appendix A: Permission to Use

Center on School, Family, and Community Partnerships
Johns Hopkins University ● 2701 North Charles Street, Suite 300 ● Baltimore MD 21218
TEL: 410-516-8800 ● FAX: 410-516-8890 ● www.partnershipschools.org ● nnps@jhu.edu

August 31, 2012

To: Sahil Shah

From: Joyce L. Epstein, Lori J. Connors, Karen Clark Salinas, & Steven B. Sheldon

Re: Permission to use:

- Parent and Student Surveys on Family and Community Involvement in the Elementary and Middle Grades. (2007) S. B. Sheldon & J. L. Epstein
- Surveys and Summaries: Questionnaires for Teachers and Parents in the Elementary and Middle Grades. (1993) J. L. Epstein & K. C. Salinas
- High School and Family Partnerships: Surveys for Teachers, Parents, and Students in High School. (1993) J. L. Epstein, L. Connors-Tadros, & K. C. Salinas

This letter grants you permission to use, adapt, or reprint the surveys noted above in your study.

We ask only that you include appropriate references to the survey and authors in the text and bibliography of your reports and publications.

Best of luck with your work.

Appendix B: Letter of Confirmation

Dear Parents:

My name is Sahil Shah, a doctoral candidate at Walden University. I am inviting you to participate in a research study on parental participation of South Asian Americans (SAA)/Asian Indian Americans (AIA) in education. Your ideas are valuable to me. I selected you as a possible participant because you are born in South Asia (i.e. India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, etc.) and your child was born in the U.S. (or emigrated to the U.S. before he/she began prekindergarten) and is currently enrolled in kindergarten, first, or second grade in a U.S. public school. *If you have more than one child between kindergarten and second grade, please answer the questions for your oldest child.*

There will be no compensation for this study. All of this information will be kept by me, and outsiders will not have access to the information. When you complete the survey, please return it to me (Sahil Shah).

If you have any questions, please contact me without hesitation.

Background Information:

The purpose of this research is to study how SAA/AIA **"**parents participate in their children's education.**"**

Procedures:

If you are willing to take part in this study, you will be asked to do the following things:

- Complete a questionnaire on methods of parental participation in education;
- Fill out a form about your family's demographic data (optional).

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary and it will not affect your current or future relationship with any other participants, non-participants, or with your child's school.

Risks and Benefits of Taking Part in the Study:

Risks for this study may include disclosing personal information about yourself and your family. However, all information will remain anonymous and only I will have access to the raw data.

This study will benefit schools by establishing a better understanding of the methods that AIAs and SAAs parents prefer to use in participating in their children's education, enhancing positive relationships and increasing positive communication between parents and schools.

Confidentiality:

All records for this study will be kept private and confidential. Any information published will be anonymous: the researcher will not include any information that could identify you as a participant. Research records will be kept in a locked file and are only for the researcher's benefit.

You may keep this consent form for your own records.

Contacts and Questions:

I, Sahil Shah, will be conducting this study. My adviser is Cheryl Tyler-Balkcom, Ph.D. If you have any questions about the study, you may contact me at . If you have any questions about the rights as a participant for this study, you may contact Walden University at 612-312-1210. Walden University's
IRB approval number for this study is **05-21-14-0065591** and it expires on **May 20, 2015.**

Estimated Time:

The estimated time to complete the survey is approximately 10 to 15 minutes.

Statement of Consent:

For the privacy and protection of the participants, Mr. Sahil Shah will not be collecting any signatures or personal information. The participants will demonstrate their consent by completing the survey.

Appendix C: Demographic Information

Demographic Information

This section is optional and may be completed if you desire. These questions are designed to give the researcher some basic information. Your personal information will not be shown to anyone outside of the study.

Father's Information:

a. The father is deceased YesNo

b. Date of Birth (MM/DD/YYYY) _____

c. Place of Birth (city, state, and country) _____

d. Date of Arrival in the U.S. (MM/DD/YYYY) _____

e. Ability to Speak English: [ ] Yes [ ] No

f. Ability to Write English: [ ] Yes [ ] No

g. If you answered No to d and e, what language(s) do you read and write?
_____

h. Prior to the U.S., did you reside in (not visit) any other countries?
[ ] No[ ] Yes (please list all) _____

i. Level of Education (check one)

- ☐ Less than 10thgrade / standard
- ☐ Completed school, did not attend college
- ☐ Completed some college (number of years _____)
- ☐ Completed a bachelor's degree (area of study _____)
- ☐ Completed a master's degree (area of study _____)
- ☐ Completed a doctoral degree (check one below)
  - o M.D./M.B.B.S.
  - o Ph. D., Phy. D., Ed. D. (area of study_____)
  - o Other (please specify _____)

j. Was all of the father's study completed in South Asia?
[ ] Yes[ ] No
If No, how much schooling did the father complete in South Asia?
_____

k. What is the father's religion? _____

l. What is the father's employment status? (check one)

- ☐ Employed full-time (works more than 28 hours a week)
- ☐ Employed part-time (works less than 28 hours a week)
- ☐ Not presently employed/ unemployed
- ☐ Not seeking employment/homemaker

m. If employed, what is father's profession? (please specify)
_____

Mother's Information:

a. The mother deceasedYesNo

b. Date of Birth (MM/DD/YYYY) _____

c. Place of Birth (city, state, and country) _____

d. Date of Arrival in the U.S. (MM/DD/YYYY) _____

e. Ability to Write English: [ ] Yes [ ] No

f. Ability to Speak English: [ ] Yes [ ] No

g. If you answered No to d or e, what language(s) do you read and/or write?

_____

h. Prior to the U.S., did you reside in (not visit) any other countries?
[ ] No[ ] Yes (please list all) _____

i. Level of Education (check one)

- ☐ Less than 10thgrade / standard
- ☐ Completed School, did not attend college
- ☐ Completed some college (number of years _____)
- ☐ Completed bachelor's degree (area of study _____)
- ☐ Completed master's degree (area of study _____)
- ☐ Completed doctoral degree (check one below)
  - o MD
  - o MBBS
  - o Ph. D, Phy.D, Ed. D (area of study_____)
  - o Other (please specify _____)

j. Was all of the mother's study completed in South Asia?
[ ] Yes[ ] No

i. If No, how much schooling did the mother complete in South Asia?

_____

k. What is the mother's religion? _____

l. What is the mother's employment status? (check one)

- ☐ Employed full-time (works more than 28 hours a week)
- ☐ Employed part-time (works less than 28 hours a week)
- ☐ Not presently employed/ unemployed
- ☐ Not seeking employment / homemaker

m. If employed, what is mother's profession? (please specify)

_____

Child's Information

This is a study of how parents are involved in their child's education. If you have more than one child between kindergarten and second grade, please complete the information for your oldest child.

1. Gender of the Child [ ] Male[ ] Female
2. Grade[ ] Kindergarten[ ] First[ ] Second
3. Child's Date of Birth (MM/DD/YYYY) _____
4. Child's Place of Birth (city, state, and zip code only) _____
    a. If the child was born outside of the U.S.:
        i. Country and City of Birth _____
        ii. Date of Arrival in the U.S. _____

Family's Information

1. The parents are currently[ ] Married [ ] Divorced[ ] Widow/Widower
   [ ] Never Married[ ] Separated
2. If applicable, when did the parents get married (MM/DD/YYYY) _____
3. Do you have any other children that live in your home? Yes [ ] No [ ]
    a. If yes, please list the genders, ages, and grades of all of your children (do not state their names) (use back side if needed)

Gender	**Age/ Grade**
_____	
_____	
_____	
_____	

4. Do you have any other family members living with you? Yes [ ] No [ ]

    a. If yes, please list the age and relation to the **child** (i.e. maternal uncle, paternal grandmother, cousins, etc.)(do not state their names) (use backside if needed):

Relation **Age**

_____

_____

_____

_____

5. Is English the primary language spoken at home? [ ] Yes[ ] No

    a. If no, what is the primary language? _____

6. Please list any other language(s) spoken at home _____

7. Where in the U.S. do you currently live (city, state, and zip code only)?

_____

Appendix D: Epstein's Survey[1]

Relation to the child	Mother	Father	Other
Current Grade	Kindergarten	First	Second
Child Attends a	Private School	Public School	
This is my		Son	Daughter

A.The School's Contact with You

How well has your child's teacher or someone at school done this school year?

Circle **one** answer on each line to indicate how the school is doing: Well (1), OK (2), Poorly (3), or Never (4)

	Does this…			
My child's teacher or someone at the school…	**Well**	**Ok**	**Poorly**	**Never**
Helps me understand my child's stage of development	1	2	3	4
Tells me how my child is doing in school	1	2	3	4
Asks me to volunteer at the school	1	2	3	4
Explains how to check my child's homework	1	2	3	4
Sends home news about things happening at school	1	2	3	4
Tells me what skills my child needs to learn:				
Math	1	2	3	4
Reading/Language Arts	1	2	3	4
Science	1	2	3	4
Provides information on community services that I may want to use with my family	1	2	3	4
Invites me to PTA/PTO meetings	1	2	3	4
Assigns homework that requires my child to talk with me about things learned in class	1	2	3	4
Invites me to programs at the school	1	2	3	4
Asks me to help with fundraising	1	2	3	4
Has parent-teacher conferences me	1	2	3	4
Includes parents on school committees, such as curriculum, budget, or improvement committees	1	2	3	4
Provides information on community events that I may want to attend with my child	1	2	3	4

[1]Survey from*Parent and student surveys of family and community involvement in the elementary and middle grades, by* S. Sheldon and J. Epstein, 2007, Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University on Center on School, Family, and Community Patnerships. Adapted with permission.

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your child's school and teacher?

Circle **one** answer on each line to tell if you Strongly Agree (1), Agree (2), Disagree (3), or Strongly Disagree (4).

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
This is a very good school	1	2	3	4
I feel welcome at the school	1	2	3	4
I get along well with my child's teacher(s)	1	2	3	4
The teachers at this school care about my child	1	2	3	4

B. Your Involvement

Families are involved in different ways at school and at home. How often do you do the following activities?

Circle **one** answer on each line to tell if this happens Every Day or Most Days (1), Once a Week (2), Once in a While (3), or Never (4).

How often do you…	Everyday/ Most Days	Once a Week	Once in a While	Never
Read with your child?	1	2	3	4
Volunteer in the classroom or at the school?	1	2	3	4
Work with your child on science homework?	1	2	3	4
Review and discuss schoolwork your child brings home?	1	2	3	4
Help your child with math?	1	2	3	4
Visit your child's school?	1	2	3	4
Go over spelling or vocabulary with your child?	1	2	3	4
Ask your child about what he/she is learning in science?	1	2	3	4
Talk to your child's teacher?	1	2	3	4
Ask your child about what he/she is learning in math?	1	2	3	4
Help your child with reading/language arts homework?	1	2	3	4
Help your child understand what he/she is learning in science?	1	2	3	4
Help your child prepare for math tests?	1	2	3	4
Ask your child how well he/she is doing in school?	1	2	3	4
Ask your child to read something he/she wrote?	1	2	3	4
Go to a school event (e.g. sports, music, drama) or meeting?	1	2	3	4
Check to see if your child finished his/her homework?	1	2	3	4

C. Your Ideas

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about what parents should do?

Circle **one** answer on each line to tell if you Strongly Agree (1), Agree (2), Disagree (3), or Strongly Disagree (4).

It is a parent's responsibility to…	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Make sure that their children learn at school	1	2	3	4
Teach their child to value schoolwork	1	2	3	4
Show their child how to use things like a dictionary or encyclopedia	1	2	3	4
Contact the teacher as soon as academic problems arise	1	2	3	4
Test their child on subjects taught in school	1	2	3	4
Keep track of their child's progress in school	1	2	3	4
Contact the teacher if they think their child is struggling in school	1	2	3	4
Show an interest in their child's schoolwork	1	2	3	4
Help their child understand homework	1	2	3	4
Know if their child is having trouble in school	1	2	3	4

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

Circle **one** answer on each line to tell if you Strongly Agree (1), Agree (2), Disagree (3), or Strongly Disagree (4).

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I know how to help my child do well in school	1	2	3	4
I never know if I'm getting through to my child	1	2	3	4
I know how to help my child make good grades in school	1	2	3	4
I can motivate my child to do well in school	1	2	3	4
I feel good about my efforts to help my child learn	1	2	3	4
I don't know how to help my child with schoolwork	1	2	3	4
My efforts to help my child learn are successful	1	2	3	4
I make a difference in my child's school performance	1	2	3	4

D. Connections with Other Parents

How often do you and other parents at your child's school…	Very Often	Once in a While	A Few Times a Year	Never
Talk about activities at your children's school?	1	2	3	4
Talk about your children's teacher(s)?	1	2	3	4
Provide each other with advice about parenting?	1	2	3	4
Share helpful information about your children's: Reading/language arts?	1	2	3	4
Math?	1	2	3	4
Science?	1	2	3	4
Share books or book titles to read with your children?	1	2	3	4
Talk about your children's behavior or misbehavior?	1	2	3	4
Talk about where to send your child to school?	1	2	3	4
Share information about community events (e.g. museum exhibits, library readings, children's theaters)?	1	2	3	4
Talk about the school's policies and rules?	1	2	3	4
Share information about extracurricular activities (e.g. music teachers, arts and crafts, sports club/leagues)?	1	2	3	4
Share games, or the names of games, to play with your children?	1	2	3	4
Talk about how to become involved in the school?	1	2	3	4
Talk about how your children are changing (e.g. growth spurts, social or emotional changes)?	1	2	3	4
Provide each other with advice about helping your child with homework?	1	2	3	4
Talk about your children's accomplishments in school	1	2	3	4

What is the highest degree you expect (or want) your son/daughter to receive (check one)?

[ ] less than High School [ ] GED / High School Degree [ ] Associates (2 years of college)
[ ] BA / BS (4 years degree) [ ] Graduate (i.e. MS, MA) [ ] Doctoral (i.e. Ph. D, Ed. D)
[ ] Medical (i.e. MD, MBBS) [ ] Other _____ [ ] Unsure

When your child is an adult, what profession do you expect (or want) him/her to become?

_____

Appendix E: Volunteers Needed Flyer

VOLUNTEERS NEEDED FOR A DISSERTATION ON THE PARENTAL PARTICIPATION OF SOUTH ASIAN AMERICANS AND ASIAN-INDIAN AMERICANS

My name is Sahil Shah and I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University. I am looking for volunteers to complete a survey on methods parents use to participate in their children's education. As a participant in this survey, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire, which will take approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

If you are interested, please go to (https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/AIA_participation) or contact me at

Thank you!

This study has been reviewed and approved by the IRB, Walden University