DIFFERENCES IN PARENT INVOLVEMENT PERCEPTIONS: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY
OF SOLDIERS WITH CHILDREN IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

by

Tabatha E. Ware

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

Liberty University

2019
PERCEPTIONS OF PARENT INVOLVEMENT OF MIlITARY PARENTS WITH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

by Tabatha E. Ware

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA
2019

APPROVED BY:

Jessica Talada, Ed. D., Committee Chair

Michelle Barthlow, Ed. D Committee Member

Doris Wheat, Ed. D., Committee Member
ABSTRACT
This study examined perceptions of effective parent involvement for military parents with children in elementary school. Schools can cater to the needs of military parents by offering activities that parents prefer when consideration is given to rank and the grade level of the child. The population included soldiers stationed at an Army post in the southeastern part the United States. The target population was military parents with children in kindergarten through fifth grade. The sample population included the military parents with children enrolled in elementary schools near the Army installation. A causal-comparative research design was used to compare mean scores of parents’ perception of effective parent involvement. A modified version of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions Survey evaluated the perceptions of effective parent involvement based on five dimensions. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to determine the difference in perception means of officers and enlisted soldiers who have students in a military-affiliated elementary school and perception mean scores according to grade level. Extreme outliers were checked using box plots. Scatterplots were used to check for linear relationships between dimensions. The multivariate homogeneity of covariance test was Box’s M. Levene’s test for homogeneity of variances was used. Cronbach’s alpha was conducted for reliability of the instrument’s dimensions. The findings of this study revealed the lack of parent involvement is not due to military rank or the grade level of the child.

Keywords: parent involvement, enlisted soldiers, officers, perceptions, military-affiliated schools
Dedication

This manuscript is dedicated to my grandmothers, parents, husband, and a special friend. My grandmothers, Minnie Ella Meeks (deceased) and Betty Lou Jefferson, have been fundamental fixtures of my childhood. The lessons my grandmothers taught me played an important role in my life and guide me in how I interact with my children. My mother, Mamie Garnett, molded me from birth until present. She gives me support and believes in me when I am doubtful. My father, Jessie Cross, taught me to have a positive outlook on life regardless of the situation. Also, I would like to dedicate this manuscript to my mother-in-law, Mildred Ware (deceased). You taught my husband to be a man, father, and the best husband in the world. Without my husband’s support, I would not be writing this dissertation. My family gives me encouragement when I need it most. In addition, I would like to dedicate this manuscript to Dr. Nichel Swindler for encouraging me to continue and not give up. You exemplified the true meaning of being a friend and advised me up until the last days of your life.
Acknowledgements

Thanks to my husband, Martin, for inspiring me to go this far on my educational journey.
I could not have advanced thus far without the assistance of my children. Keondra and Marcony have been troopers along the way. Thank you for not complaining when you hung out at my college classes throughout the years. Thank you to my mother for listening to my ideas and reading my works. Thank you, Doris, for reassuring me that completion was possible as I traveled on this scholarly journey. I appreciate your talking to me and giving me motivation and inspiration. Dr. Talada has been the most supportive and flexible dissertation chair to me. She reminded me throughout the process of how far I have come and that the journey is not as long as I imagine. Dr. Barthlow’s wisdom and guidance along this journey have been greatly refreshing after long hours of analyzing data. Most of all, thank you, God, for affording me the opportunities to enhance my education and blessing me with the intellect to be successful. To God be the glory.
Table of Contents

ABSTRACT ......................................................................................................................... 3
Dedication ............................................................................................................................ 4
Acknowledgements ............................................................................................................ 5
List of Tables ...................................................................................................................... 10
List of Abbreviations ........................................................................................................ 11
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION ...................................................................................... 12
   Overview .......................................................................................................................... 12
   Background ..................................................................................................................... 12
   Problem Statement ........................................................................................................ 18
   Purpose Statement ......................................................................................................... 19
   Significance of the Study ............................................................................................... 20
   Research Questions ....................................................................................................... 21
   Definitions ...................................................................................................................... 21
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW ............................................................................ 23
   Overview ........................................................................................................................ 23
   Conceptual Framework ................................................................................................. 23
   Related Literature ........................................................................................................ 29
      History of Parent Involvement .................................................................................... 29
      School-Based Parent Involvement ............................................................................. 34
      Community-Based Parent Involvement ..................................................................... 39
      Parent-Teacher Communication ................................................................................. 41
      Definition of Academic Achievement in Education .................................................. 43
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent Involvement and Student Academic Achievement</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference in Perception</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barriers to Parent Involvement</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease in Parent Involvement</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military-Affiliated Schools</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military Families</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officers and Enlisted</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER THREE: METHODS</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overview</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Null Hypotheses</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants and Setting</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumentation</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Analysis</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overview</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Null Hypotheses</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive Statistics</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description of the Sample</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Description of the Study Variables ................................................................. 77
Assumptions Test for Collinearity ................................................................. 78
Correlations Between Measures ................................................................. 78
Research Question 1 ....................................................................................... 79
Checking for Univariate Outliers ................................................................. 79
Assessing Univariate Normality ................................................................. 79
Testing the Difference Between Rank and Parent Involvement ............... 80
Research Question 2 ....................................................................................... 83
Checking for Univariate Outliers ................................................................. 83
Assessing Univariate Normality ................................................................. 83
Testing the Relationship Between Child’s Grade Level and Parent Involvement 84

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS ............................................................................ 87
Overview ....................................................................................................... 87
Discussion .................................................................................................... 87
Implications ................................................................................................. 92
Limitations .................................................................................................. 92
Recommendations for Future Studies ...................................................... 93

REFERENCES ................................................................................................. 94

APPENDICES .................................................................................................. 105
Appendix A: Approval Email from Dr. Jackson ........................................ 105
Appendix B: Recruitment Letter for Parents ............................................. 106
Appendix C: Recruitment Letter for Parents (Spanish) .............................. 107
Appendix D: Consent Form for Parents .................................................... 108
Appendix E: Consent Form for Parents (Spanish) ......................................................... 112
Appendix F: Boxplots for the Parent Involvement Dimensions ................................. 116
Appendix G: Scatterplots for the Parent Involvement Dimensions ............................ 121
### List of Tables

Table 1. Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems................................................................. 26
Table 2. Frequencies and Percentages for the Demographic Variables (N = 70)............... 77
Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Parent Involvement Across Rank.................................. 78
Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for Parental Involvement Across Grade Levels.................. 78
Table 5. Pearson Correlations Between the Study Variables (N = 70)............................... 79
Table 6. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Results for the Parent Involvement Dimensions Across Ranks. 80
Table 7. Means and 95% Confidence Intervals for Parental Involvement Across Ranks...... 81
Table 8. MANOVA Results for Parent Involvement Across Ranks...................................... 82
Table 9. ANOVA Results for Parental Involvement Across Ranks..................................... 82
Table 10. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Results for Parent Involvement Dimensions Across Grade Level.............................................................................................................................................................. 83
Table 11. Means & 95% Confidence Intervals for Parental Involvement Across Grade Level... 85
Table 12. MANOVA Results for Parent Involvement Across Grade Levels........................... 85
Table 13. ANOVA Results for Parental Involvement Across Grade Levels........................... 86
List of Abbreviations

Academic College Test (ACT)

Department of Defense (DoD)

Department of Defense Education Activity (DoDEA)

Educational Testing Service (ETS)

Family Educational Rights and Privacy (FERPA)

Grade Point Average (GPA)

Graduate Record Exam (GRE)

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Miller’s Analogy Test (MAT)

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

Parent Teacher Organization (PTO)

Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT)

Youth- Plan Learn Act Now (Y-PLAN)
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

The content of Chapter 1 includes the background of this study, illustrating the evolution of parent involvement. The problem in this study is that despite all the research that proves parent involvement is an important aspect of a student’s academic success, schools still struggle to recruit parent involvement. Unfortunately, there is not sufficient research done to analyze and solve the problem in military-affiliated schools. The purpose of this study is to compare mean scores of military parents’ perception of effective parent involvement according to military rank and the mean scores of parents who have students in kindergarten through second grades and third through fifth grades. The significance of this study is schools can benefit from the study’s outcome to increase parent involvement by planning and creating activities based upon the perceptions of this unique group of people. The research questions related to this study elucidated the perceptions of effective parent involvement and the identification of preferred parent involvement activities as they relate to the seven categories of the instrument. The chapter ends with definitions that are pertinent to understanding this study.

Background

One of the key aspects to promoting student success is effective parent involvement. The role of the parent is an essential driving force in the life of a child. Teaching children to be productive citizens in society is one of the responsibilities of a parent. Parents’ active role in their child’s education from the start of school to graduation is an important factor in education. Researchers found that parent involvement is a significant component to academic achievement (Epstein, 2011; Hornby, 2011; Jeynes, 2003, 2005, 2012; Lewis, Kim, & Bey, 2011; Stacer & Perrucci, 2013). Jeynes (2012) stated there is a correlational relationship between parent
involvement and student academic achievement from pre-kindergarten through 12th grade. In order to help children acquire academic achievement, schools must find meaningful ways to involve parents in the student’s learning process. The role of the parent should continue to be a driving force into the child’s school life from the early grades throughout the high school years.

American education is shifting in a new direction to fulfill the quest for student academic achievement. Parents are expected to share a participatory role in their child’s education laterally with the representatives of the school (Epstein, 2011; Hornby, 2011; Jeynes, 2005, 2012; Lewis et al., 2011; Robinson & Harris, 2014; Stacer & Perrucci, 2013). The state and federal governments have begun to identify the necessity of involving parents in the educational needs of their children by mandating parent involvement through legislature (Frew, Zhou, Duran, Kwok, & Benz, 2012; Hilado, Kallemeyn, & Phillips, 2013; Pemberton & Miller, 2015; Smith, Wohlstetter, Kuzin, & DePedro, 2011). Currently, legislative mandates for parent involvement are in place for schools receiving Title I funding (United States Department of Education, 2005). Research states that schools still struggle to get parents involved in their children’s education (Bartel, 2010; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Pemberton & Miller, 2015), in spite of the legislative mandates. One reason is a disconnection between school and the parent. The disconnect stems from a communal perception of parent involvement in education (Graves & Wright, 2011; Wilder, 2014). Parents and schools do not interpret the meaning of parent involvement in the same manner. Other reasons stem from barriers parents experience due to family needs (Williams & Sanchez, 2012), and parents experiencing an absence of a sense of belongingness from school personnel. Families are unique and have unique circumstances and needs. These specific family circumstances can often hinder parents from becoming involved in their child’s education.
For at least 100 years, researchers have expressed the importance of parent involvement (Goodall, 2013). Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi had a historical role in the focus on parent involvement. Pestalozzi lost his father at the age of 5 and was raised by his mother and nurse in a protective and regimented environment (Berger, 2004). The works of other philosophers, like Rousseau, impressed him. Pestalozzi used a book written by Rousseau to teach his own children. Pestalozzi became aware of the role of the parent as teacher. He became famous for writing the first book to educate parents about teaching children and is known as the father of parent education (Berger, 2004). Pestalozzi believed that the mother was the child’s first teacher (Pestalozzi, 1894). To follow Pestalozzi’s teaching was Friedrich Wilhelm Froebel (Adelman, 2000; Herford, 1916). Froebel is known for being the father of kindergarten (Berger, 2004). He is responsible for writing the first kindergarten curriculum where he identified the role of mother as the first teacher (Berger, 2004). His kindergarten curriculum addressed the needs of the young child. Froebel’s kindergarten curriculum assisted mothers in how to teach their young children (Berger, 2004).

Later in history came Jane Addams. She was part of a wealthy family and not interested in living amongst the rich (Addams, 1910). Addams noticed many children in the poverty-stricken neighborhood were left alone while their parents worked. She aspired to help the low-income families by developing programs that taught young children during work hours. She and two other women purchased a large house in one of Chicago’s poorest neighborhoods. The Hull House, named the after the former owners (Addams, 1910), was used to house and educate these working parents and their families. Her desire to develop and maintain a partnership with community agencies attributed to the success of the Hull House (Schaafsma, 2014). Addams was an advocate for educating children and involving parents in the process. Retrospectively,
parent involvement was a broad concept. Still today, a communal perception has not been developed to assist educators and parents in making the connection to take an active role in their child’s education.

More recently, Joyce Epstein and her colleagues contributed to the development of parent involvement by creating a framework, Six Types of Parent Involvement, to categorize parent involvement activities and a graphic organizer. The graphic organizer is called the Overlapping Spheres of Influence, which illustrates the parties responsible for student achievement. The Overlapping Spheres of Influence extends Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory. The ecological systems theory contends that the atmosphere in which the child exists has a major impact on many learned and adaptive behaviors a child may exhibit. A child’s atmosphere can be an influence to the various learned and adaptive behaviors (DeLoatche, Bradley-Klug, Ogg, Kromrey, & Sundman-Wheat, 2015; Rosa & Trudge, 2013). Epstein’s framework and graphic organizer have been used in research for decades to better understand parent involvement. Although Epstein’s framework and Bronfenbrenner’s theory assist with the categorization of and eliciting help for parent involvement, neither explicitly defines the concept.

There is not a common definition of parent involvement because the meaning is different for various people (Lewis et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2011; Wilder 2014). The perception of the term parent involvement is not clear for teachers or parents. Teachers’ perception of parent involvement is built upon school-based activities, whereas parents describe parent involvement as activities that are home-based (Nargis, 2013). This difference in perception is a major concern for determining a universal concept. Research suggests that the many perceptions of parent involvement related to cultural and racial traditions negatively impact society. For example, African-American parents, in an urban community, defined their role in parent
involvement as ensuring their child arrived to school safely (Smith et al., 2011; Williams & Sanchez, 2011). Considering the plethora of children missing or killed in this country, child safety is a major concern in neighborhoods and communities throughout the United States. Keeping children safe requires parents and educators to partner together. However, teachers view parent involvement as more than walking children to school. Another example of the miscommunication of the perception of parent involvement comes from a study done by Huntsinger and Jose (2009), where Chinese and European American families were studied to determine their perception of parent involvement. The study indicated that the Chinese American families considered parent involvement to be done at home and not at school (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). The researchers found that both groups believed in parent involvement but found different ways of participating. The disparity of perceptions and family traditions related to how parents become involved in their children’s education are signs of a necessity for a communal definition. Parent involvement is needed at home as well as in an educational environment, like school or daycare.

A child’s first and most significant teacher is his or her parent (Cheung & Pomerantz, 2012; Fan, 2012; LaRocque, Kleiman, & Darling, 2011). This concept was prevalent through the life works of three pioneers: Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Adams. Johann Heindrich Pestalozzi was the first person to write a book teaching parents how to teach their children (Berger, 2004). Friedrich Wilhelm Froebel, known as the father of kindergarten, included the role of parents in the curriculum over a century ago. Lastly, Jane Addams created programs to educate children and their parents. These three parent involvement pioneers laid the foundation that parents play a significant role in the lives and education of their children. Having parents involved in their child’s education is an important aspect of academic success for students.
The conceptual framework supporting this study is based on Brofenbrenner’s ecological systems theory and Joyce Epstein’s spheres of influence. The ecological systems theory describes the attributes of parent involvement as a part of a greater holistic concept which affects the development of children (Rosa & Trudge, 2013). The ecological systems theory contends that the atmosphere in which the child exists has a major impact on many learned and adaptive behaviors a child may exhibit (DeLoatche et al., 2015; Rosa & Trudge, 2013). The five components of the ecological systems theory work together to shape and design the characteristics of the child. Joyce Epstein’s spheres of influence work like Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems in that the community, family, and school influences the child’s academic achievement and behaviors (Epstein, 2009, 2011). Epstein uses the community, family, and school to create a framework that categorizes parent involvement activities and identifies the preference of particular parents.

The government has identified the need to have parents and schools work together to close academic achievement gaps (Pemberton & Miller, 2015; Smith et al., 2011). Schools across the nation who serve a certain percent of low-income families receive federal funding (Wages, 2016). A condition for receiving funding is for schools to create opportunities for parent involvement throughout the school year. Schools struggle to get parents involved in spite of the federal mandate (Bartel, 2010; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Pemberton & Miller, 2015). Two reasons researchers have found that contribute to the struggles of schools are different interpretations and life circumstances. Schools must take charge and bring to the attention of parents the importance of their role in their child’s education, (Ihmeideh, AlFlasi, Al-Maadadi, Coughlin, & Al-Thani, 2018). School personnel must find ways to get parents involved for the sake of student achievement.
Problem Statement

Military families are faced with challenges to include grave and dangerous demands, frequent relocations, and enormous amounts of time spent away from family (Hosek & Wadsworth, 2013). Much stress and strain have been put on military families due to the wars in middle-eastern countries (Berkowitz, De Pedro, Couture, Benbenishty, & Astor, 2014; Esqueda, Astor, & De Pedro, 2012). Military-connected children endure frequent parental absence due to military duty (Moeller, Culler, Hamilton, Aronson & Perkins, 2015). Approximately two million children are in military families and have experienced a parent deploying at least once (Nicosia, Wong, Shier, Massachi, & Datar, 2017). When military members deploy, their family structure changes and the children take on more responsibilities (Moeller et. al, 2015). These children may potentially display problematic behaviors and experience low academic achievement (Moeller et. al, 2015). Research has proven that parent involvement increases student achievement (Epstein, 2011; Hornby, 2011; Jeynes, 2003, 2005, 2012; Lewis et al., 2011; Stacer & Purrucci, 2013; Wilder, 2014). Therefore, the time military parents put into the development of their children is a concern because of the duties of their job (Willerton, Schwarz, Wadsworth, & Oglesby, 2011). This is a major problem that has high implications when considering the involvement of military parents in their child’s education.

Chandra and London (2013) identified the need to collect more data about military families to better understand their experiences, resiliency, comparisons to other military-affiliated groups, and comparison to the civilian sector of society. Not having an adequate amount of research to make comprehensive decisions regarding the parental involvement of military children is a problem that impacts academic achievement. The lack of research clearly illustrates a gap in the literature regarding military families. In addition, a meta-analysis that combined 51 studies on parent involvement conducted between the years of 1969 and 2006.
focused on the relationship surrounding parent involvement and student achievement for children in kindergarten through secondary school (Castro et al., 2015). The students in this study were civilians who attended urban public schools. Out of 51 studies investigating parent involvement over 37 years, researchers have not delved into identifying effective parent involvement activities most preferred by the parents of military-connected students. Chandra and London (2013) were correct when affirming the need for more data collection from military families. The problem is there is not enough research available that addresses the needs of military families in regards to parent involvement.

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this causal-comparative study was to determine the perception of effective parent involvement amongst military parents who have children enrolled in the local elementary schools near a particular military installation. The perception of military parents according to the five dimensions—communication, learning at home, decision-making, collaborating with the community, and high expectations—is the dependent variable. The dependent variable was measured using a modified version of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions created by Wright (2009). The independent variables are military rank, officer or enlisted, for the first one-way. This study identified the most popular dimension chosen by military parents when the determining factor is military rank. The study also identified the most popular activities amongst military parents who have children in the upper and lower grades. Distinguishing the difference in perception can be beneficial in creating effective parent involvement activities conducive to enhancing the long-term goal: student academic success. In addition, elementary school personnel can create parent involvement activities based upon the perceptions and preferences of parents who have children in lower and
upper grades. A strategic move is to involve parents who have children in the lower grades because early intervention can have long-lasting effects pertaining to student academic achievement.

**Significance of the Study**

The topic of parent involvement is not a new concept. Research has stated how parent involvement is connected to student academic achievement (Epstein, 2011; Hornby, 2011; Jeynes, 2003, 2005, 2012; Lewis et al., 2011; Stacer & Purrucci, 2013; Wilder, 2014). None of these studies have analyzed how parents, inclusive of military parents, perceive parent involvement. If student academic achievement is at stake due to a lack of parent involvement, then it is important that schools learn what parents perceive as involvement. In addition, schools must learn what types of involvement parents prefer, so that students experience an increase in academic achievement. Epstein (2011) stated that there is no research that determines which parent involvement activities are linked to the student academic achievement. The significance of this study did not attempt to link various parent involvement activities with student success or define the multifaceted ideology; rather, this study compared the perceptions of parent involvement for military parents according to rank and the grade level of their child against the five dimensions of the survey. The study also identified which parent involvement activities are popular amongst young military parents.

The participants in many of the studies on parent involvement are not affiliated to the military. Military families have a unique role in society. Military parents spend extensive amounts of time away from their families (Rossen & Carter, 2012). Therefore, it is imperative that schools, which serve military students, find ways to include this specialized category of people into the education of their children. The perception of parent involvement with military
parents is the main focus of this study. Learning what military parents perceive as parent involvement will shed light on which activities should be included in a parent involvement program. This study can assist schools in effectively promoting student academic achievement by actively involving parents. This study can contribute to existing research by helping parents identify various methods and unique ways to keep them involved in their child’s education while serving their country.

**Research Questions**

**RQ1:** Is there a difference in the effective parent involvement activities mean scores between officers and enlisted soldiers who have children enrolled in a military-affiliated public school as measured by five dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey?

**RQ2:** Is there a difference in the effective parent involvement activities mean scores for parents with students in third through fifth grade and parents with students in the kindergarten through second grade as measured by five dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey?

**Definitions**

1. *Academic achievement* – student success in school to include attitudes about learning, behavior at school, regular attendance, and positive mental stability (Hornby, 2011).

2. *Military-affiliated schools* – schools that partner with the military installation to provide an education to military children (CMCSS, n.d.).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The contents of Chapter 2 are necessary for understanding this study. In this chapter is the conceptual framework of Joyce Epstein’s overlapping spheres of influence, which extends Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory. The chapter includes how Epstein’s work relates to this study. The history behind the need for parent involvement is based on the ideology of past pioneers like Addams, Froebel, and Pestalozzi, who contributed to many of the strategies we use today. The chapter discusses how parent involvement has no communal definition or perception. The types of parent involvement discussed are school-based, home-based, community-based, and parent teacher communication. The contents of this chapter explain the definition of academic achievement as it relates to parent involvement. It is important that the reader understands that schools struggle because the parent and school have different interpretations of the term and unique family circumstances can cause barriers. This chapter identifies the dynamics of the military family and military parents’ struggle to be more involved in their child’s education. Therefore, the reader is introduced to the unique characteristics of the military family, the structure of the United States Army ranking system, and what makes an elementary school military affiliated.

Conceptual Framework

Urie Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory is the philosophy that supports this study. Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory describes parent involvement as a component of a bigger holistic concept which affects the development of children (Rosa & Trudge, 2013). Bronfenbrenner theorized child development to include several systems working together to define the characteristics of a person. The ecological systems theory is sometimes called
proximal processes. Ecological systems theory states how the environment of a child was an influence to the various learned and adaptive behaviors a child displays (DeLoatche et al., 2015; Rosa & Trudge, 2013). The ecological systems theory has five components: microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem. The systems work interchangeably and holistically with the child.

Bronfenbrenner described proximal processes as the exposure to personalities of family members, the setting in which the exposure occurs, and time in life; these have a major impact on the development of the child (Leonard, 2011; Rosa & Trudge, 2013). The concept of children defining their individuality by adhering to their environment has five systems, with each system affecting the child in different ways. The microsystem refers to how the environment affects the development of the child, school, home family, teacher, and friends (Rosa & Trudge, 2013). These entities are mainstream components of the child’s environment. The teacher, family, friends, and school closely interact with the child. Mesosystem refers to the relationship between the components in the microsystem (Leonard, 2011). An example would be when teachers and parents work together to educate the student. Exosystem refers to the components of the child’s mesosystem and microsystem that make decisions that affect the child (Rosa & Trudge, 2013). A student’s relocation because the parent serves in the military is an example of the exosystem; the decision was not made directly but indirectly. The decision to move directly affects the child. Macrosystem refers to the cultural, social, and political situations in society (Leonard, 2011). Children who have gained knowledge of street life because of the their neighborhood or environment are affected by their macrosystem. The age in which the child experiences these systems is referred to as the chronosystem. Proximal processes leave lessons and memories with the child. These memories and lessons are incorporated into the daily routines of the child and
can be taken into adulthood. Consequently, having parents involved in the child’s education, including sharing perspectives about school, can have a positive effect the child’s academic achievement and contribute to success in society (Hampden-Thompson & Galindo, 2016).

As stated above, Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory supports this study, but Epstein’s spheres of influence and Epstein’s six types of parent involvement drive this study. Joyce Epstein and colleagues developed the spheres of influence to illustrate how the school, family, and community play an important role in promoting student academic achievement. This concept mirrors Brofenbrenner’s theory in that the central focus is the student and the components of the child’s environment which support learning. Epstein’s diagram uses the space where the three spheres intersect to represent the student (in this study the military-affiliated student). The three spheres are family, school, and community that directly interact with the student (Epstein, 2009). The family, school, and community representatives can change at any time. The following table illustrates Bronfenbrenner’s systems with descriptors and examples.
Table 1

*Bronfenbrenner’s Ecological Systems*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Microsystem</td>
<td>Setting in which the child has direct communication with people in their setting, school, home, community (Leonard, 2011).</td>
<td>Child directly interacts with the parent, community, or school representatives regularly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mesosystem</td>
<td>Parent, teacher, and physician collaborate to make decisions about the child. Child has no input.</td>
<td>Parent, teacher, and physician limit physical activity at home and school due to an injury.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exosystem</td>
<td>Decision made by someone outside the child’s direct environment that affects the child.</td>
<td>Decision is made to replace the classroom teacher with a new teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macrosystem</td>
<td>Economic, political, and cultural conditions of society (Leonard, 2011).</td>
<td>Parent being deployed because of political issues affects the child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronosystem</td>
<td>Time in life in which events occur in the child’s life.</td>
<td>Child’s military parent dies during combat during the fifth grade school year.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Over time, many researchers have used Epstein’s Overlapping Spheres of Influence of Family, School, and Community on Children’s Learning for parent involvement to investigate resources for academic achievement for students of all ages. Epstein’s research illustrates how the family, school, and community play an important role in the education of a child (Epstein, 2009, 2011). Her simplified explanation of the components of parent involvement is displayed using a Venn diagram, which consist of three overlapping spheres. The spheres represent the family, school, and community partnership (Epstein, 2011). The section where the three spheres meet and overlap represents the student (Epstein, 2009). The visual representation of the spheres
revolves around the student. The spheres represent the relationship between the community, family, and school, as they pertain to the student success (Epstein, 2011; Smith et al., 2011). The three entities are construed to work individually but are most effective when they work collectively. Likewise, the concept behind the spheres can work within the school environment and outside the school. The concept of the spheres can be interdependent upon the school, family, and community, as they relate to the student. Students are the essential attribute in their educational process, mental and physical development, and academic achievement (Epstein, 2009). Therefore, students who have community resources, a supportive family structure, and a school knowledgeable of how to use these components along with parent involvement activities are predicted to experience academic achievement.

Student academic achievement is linked to parent involvement (Epstein, 2011; Hornby, 2011; Jeynes, 2003, 2005, 2012; Lewis et. al, 2011; Stacer & Perrucci, 2013; Wilder, 2014). Therefore, Epstein’s spheres of influence (family, school, and the community) is more effective when done in unison. Schools must be cognizant when planning activities for parents to be involved in their child’s education. Determining whether to plan home or school-based activities for military parents is essential in schools that service this unique population of people.

Epstein’s six types of parent involvement was used to determine which type of parent involvement activities schools should use. Epstein (2011) categorizes parent involvement using six types. These dimensions are pertinent to this study. The types are defined as follows:

Parenting – the support students receive at home to scaffold their education.

Communicating – pertains to open-ended conversations between school personnel and the family.

Volunteering – relates to parents willingly donating their time to assist the school in its
daily function.

Learning at home – consists of homework and other activities that support learning to include reading to the child.

Decision-making – incorporates parents as leaders and active members on advisory councils or committees which govern the schools.

Collaborating – includes community entities working with the school to promote student learning. (Christianakis, 2011; Epstein, 2009, 2011; Ihmeideh et al., 2018; Lewis et al., 2011; Rapp & Duncan, 2011).

The six types coincide with the components of the Overlapping Spheres of Influence of Family, School, and Community on Children’s Learning, which is community, family, and school. The focal point is centered on student needs. Because the overall goal is for the school, family, and community to assist in supporting the student’s needs, this promotes academic achievement. With the ability to categorize the parent involvement activities, school administration can use this information to determine which parent involvement activities are preferred by the majority of parents. Educators must create ways to get parents involved and build cohesive relationships between school and parents (Bower & Griffin, 2011; Jeynes, 2012).

Parents and schools alike can benefit from identifying various activities designated essential or preferred. Schools can capitalize on which activities or roles parents view as important and necessary when searching for means of enhancing student academic performance through parent involvement. This study supplies schools with the needed activities to promote more parent involvement in schools, especially in military-affiliated schools. More parent involvement provides more opportunities for military parents to build confidence and a wealth of knowledge. Advocating for more parent involvement opportunities allows parents to participate
in governing committees and nurture the relationship with the school and community. This study extends the work of Epstein and Bronfenbrenner by illustrating the concept of parents in relation to parent involvement and building bonds with the school and families.

Related Literature

History of Parent Involvement

Pestalozzi spent most of his childhood learning in a secluded and controlled environment (Berger, 2004; Pestalozzi, 1894) due to the death of his father. He lost his father when he was 5 years old (Berger, 2004). His father, on his deathbed, asked the new maidservant to care for his family after he died because he feared they would go through hardship without him (Pestalozzi, 1894). Pestalozzi’s mother and the maidservant cared for him until he was able to care for himself. Pestalozzi admired the educational pedagogics of Jean Jacques Rousseau because he used this teaching style to teach his own children (Berger, 2004). He believed children should be taught through exploration and not rote memorization and that the role of the mother was extremely important. His belief was contrary to the style in which he learned as a child in a strict and solitary environment. Therefore, he played a significant role in parent involvement in history. He wrote the first book for parents titled *How Gertrude Teaches Her Children* (Pestalozzi, 1894). The content inside the book taught mothers how to teach their children at home. Although the purpose of the book was to eradicate the teacher so that mothers could be the sole educators, the book is considered the first book designed to educate parents on teaching their children through cognition and exploration.

Pestalozzi was a social activist who pioneered educational shifts during his time (Berger, 2004). He initiated a change by removing the old school methods of rote memorization and recalling of facts. These antiquated styles of teaching were replaced with learning that required
students to incorporate logic with instinct and reasoning (Pestalozzi, 1894). He made an outstanding contribution to education by discovering and practicing reflective thinking (Adelman, 2000). Pestalozzian pedagogy included the utilization of concrete objects to teach skills, group instructions, student engagement, and child-centered activities (Berger, 2004).

Pestalozzi’s teaching style was significant in shaping the way children learned and the inclusion of their parents. Much of what children learn in school is connected to past knowledge acquired through their home life or the teachings from their parents. Pestalozzi focused on merging the two constructs, impactful and meaningful learning. His methods were expanded through Friedrich Froebel. Froebel used Pestalozzi’s ideology of teaching as the foundation of his instructional methodology (Adelman, 2000). The concept of teaching the whole child through their environment, including their parents in their educational journey, and by teaching them to think through reflection of past knowledge was a springboard for current educational practices.

Friedrich Froebel’s pragmatic beliefs changed the world of early childhood education. He is known as the father of kindergarten by way of his Pestalozzian practices. Froebel spent much of his early childhood with his older brothers since his mother died when he was about a year old (Herford, 1916). His father was a single parent and worked at a school for girls. After his father’s death, Froebel moved to Frankfurt, Germany, where he became a teacher. He tried a few other occupations until he found his true love: teaching (Herford, 1916). Froebel worked in a school where he was introduced to the Pestalozzian philosophical approach to education. He later became a pupil of Pestalozzi until war struck Germany in 1813 (Herford, 1916). Twenty-seven years later, he started the first kindergarten. Froebel’s kindergarten trained nurses and allowed educators to learn first hand by teaching small children (Herford, 1916).
Although, Froebel practiced the Pestalozzian approach to education, he believed the child’s environment should be an inclusive factor in education. Kindergarten was the place where children learned to interact with their environment through play. Froebel identified the importance of the role of the mother in the teachings of children (Berger, 2004). The child’s parents are the ones who introduce them to the world and initiate the fundamentals of communication. He believed in teaching the whole child to include the participation of their parent in the child’s education. Froebel’s book, *Mother Play and Nursery Songs with Finger Plays*, was written for mothers to use at home to teach their small children (Berger, 2004). Froebel believed that the parental role in the child’s education is an essential part of his or her academic success. Parent involvement has evolved over the past two centuries, but the need to evaluate its interpretation with parents has not changed. Schools must find a common means of eliciting parents involved to promote student academic success.

Jane Addams also held a pragmatist view of the world. Through her ambitions of assisting poverty-stricken families to earn an education, she developed programs that taught young children while their parents worked or attended school. She had her first view of the true sense of poverty during her childhood years, while following her father on an errand (Addams, 1910). As a child, she frequently spent time with her father, who was a political figure. Although Addams belonged to a wealthy family, she knew early in life that she had no desire to live amongst the rich (Addams, 1910). She wanted to live amongst the poor to better assist their needs. She aspired to help low-income families. She developed interest in helping the families be self-sufficient. During her early adulthood, Addams ventured out in the world to pursue her aspirations of helping the poor. She and two other women purchased a large house in one of Chicago’s poorest neighborhoods. The Hull House, named after the former owners, was used to
house and educate the poverty stricken families (Addams, 1910). Addams noticed many children in the neighborhood were left alone while their parents worked. She also learned children were being cared for by elderly relatives. Witnessing children in these conditions produced a notion of joining families with the community. Addams dreamed of creating a childcare facility within Hull House. The Hull House was successful in assisting these families through community resources that were readily available. She embarked on developing and maintaining a partnership with these community agencies, which attributed to the success of the Hull House (Schaafsma, 2014). Addams was an advocate for educating families to include children and involving parents in the process. Retrospectively, parent involvement was not fine-tuned to one particular concept, which was understood by parents during the time of Jane Addams. Since then, a communal perception still has not been developed or identified to assist educators and parents in making the connection to take an active role in their child’s education.

**Definition of Parent Involvement**

A child’s first and most significant teacher is his or her parent (Cheung & Pomerantz, 2012; Fan, 2012; LaRocque et al., 2011). In preparing children for their first encounter with the public school system, the parent is the first entity to serve in this capacity. The parental role is essential throughout the child’s educational journey. Stacer and Perrucci (2013) stated that the amounts of time parents invest in their children are the primary ingredient for successfully reaching academic milestones and personal benchmarks. Effective parent involvement requires parents to be in tune with their child’s educational needs and develop and foster collaboration with the school.

Parental involvement requires the customary activities—parents helping with homework, attending conferences with teachers, and participating in classroom activities (Bower & Griffin,
Eminent parental involvement incorporates parents in the curricular aspect of education and school governance component to assist in the increase of academic achievement (Epstein, 2009; 2011; Hornby, 2011; Smith et al., 2011). Involved parents devote time and resources, for the sake of providing an exceptional education for their children (LaRocque et al., 2011; Murray et al., 2014). These parents consider education a priority when safeguarding academic achievement. Consequently, many educators have identified parental involvement as the antidote for several issues related to education (Fan & Chen, 2001). Parent involvement cannot solve all the issues that exist in education, but it can be a catalyst in supporting and promoting student academic achievement.

Parent involvement is categorized by home, school, and community-based activities, which include schools, community, and families working together as a unit to provide a rigorous learning environment, an environment that is comprehensive and nurturing to promote emotional and social balance for students. A positive relationship between the school, community, and parents increases the school’s function as a learning environment by offering support services for families, enhancing parenting skills, enriching parents’ understanding of school governance, and developing relationships with others (Epstein, 2011). In analyzing other characteristics of parent involvement between the community, parents, and schools, there should be open communication between the families and the school, especially with the child’s teacher. Parents should volunteer in school to stay abreast of the manner in which the school operates and to take part in discussions that relate to the education of children. Consequently, parents should have an active role on committees that govern the schools and districts such as school boards.


School-Based Parent Involvement

Teachers have a different perspective on parent involvement. School-based parent involvement activities are usually initiated by the school and are linked to more parents getting involved in their child’s education (Frew et al., 2012). Parents and their children participating in activities at school is another meaning of school-based parent involvement (DeLoatche et al., 2015). According to Lewis et al. (2011), teachers from a high-performing school defined parent involvement as parents being actively involved in school-initiated events and activities, while a teacher in the Pemberton and Miller (2015) study believed that parent involvement occurred when parents sent in school supplies or food items. School-initiated events and activities include parents attending workshops and board meetings, volunteering at school to serve as teacher’s assistant, tutoring students, assisting with school governance, and collaborating with classroom teachers to assist with student needs (DeLoatche et al., 2015; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Lewis et al., 2011). Volunteering requires parents to take on the role of volunteer in school programs to support school personnel and students (Ihmeideh et al., 2018). All of the activities listed require parents to play an active role in their child’s education at the school.

In the qualitative case study conducted by Lewis et al. (2011), many of the school-based activities mentioned above were common practices. The study was conducted at West Elementary School in the northeast part of the United States. The teachers and parents of the elementary school nominated two seasoned teachers to participate in an eight-month study. The population at that particular time was 536 African American students with a predominately African American staff (Lewis et al., 2011). The methods used for this study included teacher and principal interviews, teacher and school event observations, and gathering school documents for analysis (Lewis et al., 2011). The researchers found that most of the school-based parent
involvement activities were already in practice. The teachers used outreach methods, created and maintained positive relationships with parents and students, and connected with the community (Lewis et al., 2011). The study reported a stronger validation would have been possible if the researcher had cross-referenced the teacher interviews with parent interviews for the eight-month period. The ability to solicit all components of Epstein’s model—family, community, and school—to assist with the needs of students is important to all stakeholders.

Lareau and Muñoz (2012) conducted a qualitative case study of parent involvement at an elementary school with a successful Parent Teacher Organization (PTO) and parent involvement program. Oak Park Elementary School is located in the northeast area of the United States. The sample included two superintendents, the school’s principal, and 21 PTO parents. The researchers conducted interviews and observations for four months. Lareau and Muñoz noted how parents had a role in hiring employees, specifically an office employee. These are ideal representations of how family, community, and school should come together to support the needs of students. The problem Lareau and Muñoz found was the lack of structure the volunteer PTO group had as opposed to the rigid and organized function of the school. The contents of this article which are important to this study are the list of 27 school-based parent involvement activities. The list includes library helper, Meet the Author, pancake breakfast, and Bingo evening to name a few (Lareau & Muñoz, 2012). Lareau and Muñoz discussed the possible issues that could arise when the school and parents work together, like parent leaders and administration not agreeing on fundraising activities.

In order to make school-based parent involvement a reality, there must be parent participation and educator consideration. Christianakis (2011) conducted a qualitative case study that illustrated the demands of family structure for low-income, minority, and working-class
elementary school parents. The study was conducted at Jefferson Elementary School in northern California. The elementary school had a mixed, African-American, Latino, and Asian population totaling 750 students. The participants included 15 teachers from Jefferson Elementary. The researcher analyzed the perceptions of parent involvement of inner-city elementary school teachers. The researcher conducted three interviews with each of the teachers, who identified their expectations and perception of school-based parent involvement. Their expectations were not conducive to both types of parents, the ones that work and the ones that stay-at-home. Christianakis specifically stated it is unrealistic for teachers to expect low-income parents to be unemployed and to participate in school-based parent involvement activities that take time away from their jobs. The expectations of the teachers in this study were for parents to be helpers in the classroom, help with classroom projects, assist students with completing assignments, perform clerical duties, and clean and organize supplies (Christianakis, 2011). Lareau and Muñoz (2011) and Christianakis (2011) both identified school-based parent involvement as an expectation for all parents regardless of their life demands. This study, on the other hand, takes into account the busy family dynamics and employment barriers of military parents.

School-based parent involvement is an expectation of the school that parents may not have the luxury to fulfill. Many low-income parents have jobs they must attend or family circumstances that prevent them from attending school-based parent involvement activities. Hampden-Thompson and Galindo (2017) reported that low-income families are less likely to participate in parent involvement activities because of a parent working multiple jobs and the lack of resources and time. Therefore, military-affiliated schools must be creative and considerate of the time and circumstances of parents. In light of these findings, this study aimed
to assist in creating parent involvement activities that interest military families and illustrates the perceptions of military parents on parent involvement and the types of activities.

**Home-Based Parent Involvement**

Some parents find it convenient and mandatory to be active in their child’s education by working and completing assignments from home (Frew et al., 2012; Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). School activities or assignments completed at the child’s home are viewed as home-based parent involvement (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). Parents are expected to be supportive and willing to invest time and effort into the education of their child. Home-based parent involvement can fall into one of two categories: activities that support school curriculum done at home and activities done in the community and abroad (Wallace & Twardosz, 2014). Activities such as reading to their children, games, storytelling, doing chores together, helping with homework assignments, and assembling structures are examples of home-based parent involvement (Graves & Wright, 2011; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Ihmeideh et al., 2018; Jeynes, 2012).

Another form of home-based parent involvement activities includes parent and child completing tasks that promote the intellectual development in locations other than school (Wallace & Twardosz, 2014). Parents taking their children to museums, zoos, the public library, plays, and historical locations are examples of home-based parent involvement activities that occur away from home (Pomerantz, Moorman, & Litwack, 2007). Wallace and Twardosz (2014) outlined this type of home-based parent involvement as one that supports the school’s curriculum through educational opportunities that expound on concepts initiated or discussed through curriculum at school.

Home-based parent involvement activities are those that contribute considerably to the proper education of a child. Stitt and Brooks (2014) stated how home-based parent involvement
as identified in the public school setting addresses the needs of White middle-class America. The criteria described by other scholars require parents to volunteer their time at school or at home to be involved in their child’s education. White middle-class Americans have an advantage of financial stability and time to volunteer at their child’s school. In the study, Stitt and Brooks interviewed five working-class mothers who live in a small Midwestern town. These working-class mothers could not afford to miss work to be involved in their child’s education as defined by the public educational system. Therefore, they created a different learning environment in their homes. The common thread between these mothers is none of them agreed with the curriculum taught at school and felt the lessons were laden with materials that only prepared their children for standardized testing (Stitt & Brooks, 2014). To ensure involvement in their child’s education, these mothers turned their home into learning laboratories. Many of these mothers purchased supplemental curriculum and supplies to broaden the knowledge base of their children (Stitt & Brooks, 2014). The additional learning supplies included reading materials, technological devices, and art studios. Stitt and Brooks (2014) noted that the purpose of these activities and supplies was to promote creativity in their children. In addition to the activities at home, the parents found time outside their work schedule to take their children to the library, museums, and historical locations surround their small town (Stitt & Brooks, 2014). The purpose of these home-based activities was not to assist with the curriculum taught in schools, but to enhance the quality of life and promote civil productivity amongst these young minds. The Stitt and Brooks study can be useful in the purpose of this study in that it expounds on various home-based parent involvement activities, exploring various unique types of involvement activities that can be conducted outside of school hours and without heavy financial burdens. This current study addressed the desired activities of military parents regardless of their
Community-Based Parent Involvement

The community functions as a child’s initial classroom prior to public school classrooms (Stitt & Brooks, 2014). Community-based activities are essential to the academic achievement of a student just as much as home-based and school-based activities. Community-based activities embody student learning outside of the school and home but within the confinement of specific vicinity. The community offers various public facilities that purposely educate the public in history, science, math, health, and many other school subjects. Community-based involvement includes connecting families with resources and services, coordinating schools with community businesses or groups, and schools providing services to other community entities (Ihmeideh et al., 2018). Community-based involvement is exemplified in a case study conducted by Stitt and Brooks (2014) where single working mothers supplemented the school’s curriculum by taking their children to museums to study societal topics of the past. Of the five mothers interviewed, one of them remembered taking several field trips when she was in school (Stitt & Brooks, 2014). Community-based involvement stimulates academic achievement and bridges the gap between prior knowledge and new content taught through school curricula. These mothers had no idea their actions were regarded as parent involvement. These mothers felt as though the school was not doing enough to educate their children (Stitt & Brooks, 2014).

Just as parent involvement includes parents and schools working together to develop and nurture a well-rounded student population, schools and the community work in the same manner. In the community and school partnerships, schools reach out to the community for assistance in meeting the specific needs associated with the standard educational mission as well as meeting the needs of the student and their family, socially and medically (Valli, Stefanski, & Jacobson,
School personnel collaborate with community agencies to develop partnerships that bring resources into the school. This type of partnership is called an interagency partnership. Interagency partnerships are established to address a common issue or mutual problem (Valli et al., 2016). The community resources include programs, professionals, monetary assets, and services as well as the views, standards, and outlooks that schools sought after to aid in the promotion of student academic success (Epstein, 2011). A prime example of community involvement partnerships is Youth-Plan Learn Act Now (Y-PLAN). Y-PLAN is an action-based research project that involves inner-city youth beautifying the community. This partnership’s focus is to involve the youth in the planning, process, and transformation of the city’s landscapes and community structures while working collaborative with professionals and other community citizens (Institute of Urban and Regional Development, n.d.; McKoy, Stewart & Buss, 2015).

McKoy et al. (2015) conducted a case study to illustrate the five-step process involved in the Y-PLAN methodology. The study used observations and interviews to tell the story from the perspectives of Richmond High School students in Richmond, California. Students were involved with city officials in building a transportation system from one side of the city, divided by the interstate, to the other side. Y-PLAN offered students the opportunity to build leadership skills while solving authentic issues. Students walked away with a sense of belongingness and the opportunity to make change in their city. The Y-PLAN was supported by the academic educational system (McKoy et al., 2015).

Jeynes (2012) stated that parent involvement includes actions, taken by parents, to support the education practices and processes experienced by their children. The continual learning process that extends from school to home or the community is essential in creating a conceptual map. The map exemplified to the child how learning at home and at school is
importantly linked to academic success. Community-based parent involvement is essential to this study because it illustrates another method of how parents are involved in their child’s education. Parents and teachers may be unaware of the importance of extending the knowledge base of students through community activities and facilities. This study expands upon this knowledge base and identifies activities parents deem essential that occur within the community.

**Parent-Teacher Communication**

As the involvement of parents in their child’s education becomes more united, student academic achievement ascends (Rapp & Duncan, 2011). Parent involvement includes not just parents participating at school or administering assistance at home; it also encompasses meaningful conversations between school and family. Most commonly, it is the communication between the parent and the classroom teacher. Parent-teacher communication entails interaction between the parent and the school about a student’s academic development (Deloatche et al., 2015).

Another form of parent-teacher communication is done in written form. Parent-teacher communication encompasses parents talking to teachers about schoolwork done at home (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). Parents and teachers communicate back and forth using notes, letters, or invitations. Written forms of communication are carried home and back to school by the student. In a field study conducted by Kraft and Rodgers (2015), parents were sent home one line notes regarding their child’s progress during credit recovery classes. The notes were categorized into three topics: student progress related to growth, the need for improvement, and the control group (Kraft & Rodgers, 2015). The results of the field study showed students who got notes regarding their areas of need had a higher rate of completion of the classes than the other groups. Therefore, keeping open lines of communication with parents in any grade level
can promote student academic achievement.

Parent-teacher communication is a factor that leads to student academic achievement and is considered a component of the parent involvement paradigm. The use of technology has become paramount in this communication (Yoder & Lopez, 2013). Schools and teachers can keep parents informed in the form of newsletters sent electronically on a regular basis to block the lack of communication or through the social media platform. Using electronic mail to communicate school events, organizational successes, and school needs is an action that opens the gateway of parent-school communication. Parents are informed when schools use electronic mail to send calendars and extend invitations soliciting assistance or asking for attendance to school events. Social network is another means of keeping parents informed and involved in their child’s education (Yoder & Lopez, 2013).

Although electronic mail is an efficient and expeditious means of written communication with parents about student progress, it has shortcomings. Although electronic mail can be delivered at any location and at any time, it is only reliable if the communication gets to the right person. The electronic mailing address must be correct to ensure proper and fast delivery. Often, parents are negligent to continuously update contact information with the school or teacher (Williams & Sanchez, 2011). Another downfall revolves around personal identifiable information in electronic mail, daily logs, or planners to be transported to and from school. The Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) protects the personal identifiable information of students. Federal law mandates that schools or school representatives refrain from sharing student educational records without consent of the parent or student (Cheung, Clements, & Pechman, 1997). Parents or students may give written consent for grades to be emailed. Student grades are considered educational records and personal identifiable
information, which cannot be sent to a third-party without confirmation of identity (Cheung et al., 1997; National Forum on Education Statistics, 2006). Therefore, parents and the school may rely on face-to-face communication when student grades or personal identifiable information are on the agenda. Parent and teacher communication is essential in helping students achieve academically. Therefore, this study included parent and teacher communication as a form of parent involvement.

**Definition of Academic Achievement in Education**

When considering the meaning of academic achievement, the term can mean a variety of measures that determine the academic success of students. In a meta-analysis conducted by Wilder (2014), the most popular non-standardized measures of academic achievement were grade point average (GPA), grades from tests and classes, teacher input of student behavior, and performance. Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2005) defined academic achievement as a link between parent involvement and personal teacher ratings of students, grades earned by students, and scores earned on achievement tests. Fan and Chen (2001) stated that measuring academic achievement should be done on a larger scale, like grade-point average. This statement implies that academic achievement is an overall concept, and students cannot be academically successful in one subject and not another. Furthermore, Phelps and Dunham (2010) determined academic success is best described using standardized test scores like the Terra Nova. A common practice throughout the country has been to use scores from standardized tests, like Terra Nova, American College Test (ACT), Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), and others to identify academically successful students. Students who score above average are allowed to enroll in honors and advanced placement classes and to enter college. In this aspect, students can be
academically successful in one subject area and not in another and score above average. This is possible because the deciding factor is the composite score.

Student academic achievement is connected to parental involvement for children in prekindergarten through Grade 12 (Epstein, 2011; Hornby, 2011; Jeynes, 2005, 2012; Lewis et al., 2011; Stacer & Perrucci, 2013). Academic success or achievement has been determined using various factors. Researchers measure academic achievement with student GPAs, standardized test scores, and other forms of assessments. Standardized test scores average various components of the test to produce a composite score. The composite score is used to determine if academic achievement has been accomplished. For instance, Pinter, Matchock, Charles, and Balch (2014) conducted a study using standardized test such as Major Field test (MFT), published by Educational Testing Service (ETS), a performance-based short answer assessment, to evaluate the effectiveness of a medical academic program based upon student academic success. This study also used a performance-based assessment as another means of collecting relevant data. Standardized tests like the ACT or SAT also assist colleges in selecting students upon entry. Specific scores on the Graduate Record Exam (GRE) and the Miller’s Analogies Test (MAT) are the norm for entrance into graduate school.

The utilization of standardized test scores is not a new concept. In fact, the concept began in 1959 with a college professor’s desire to measure what students had been taught before entering college (ACT, 2016). A student’s GPA is an overall average of the grades earned over a period of time. Therefore, student academic achievement encompasses all subject areas. Ironically, a student can be considered academically successful and fall short in a class. Researchers must be explicit when defining academic success using student GPA. In a study conducted with medical students, academic achievement was determined using averages over
85% made on specific tests and not failing any subjects (Abdulghani et al., 2014). The researchers conducting this study were specific in the expectations of GPA for selecting subjects needed to collect data.

**Parent Involvement and Student Academic Achievement**

There is an enormous amount of information written that correlates student academic achievement with the amount time in which parents are involved in their child’s education (Epstein, 2011; Hornby, 2011; Jeynes, 2003, 2005, 2012; Lewis et al., 2011; Stacer & Perrucci, 2013; Wilder, 2014). Student academic achievement is affected by parent expectations. Academic achievement, by way of parent expectations, is reflected in the child’s outlook on learning and motivation to progress. Hornby (2011) deemed parent involvement as an essential component in improving a child’s mannerism, willingness to comply with adult supervision, attendance, and mental health. In their study, Kraft and Dougherty (2013) experimented with 145 middle and high school students during a summer school program. The researchers sent daily notes home to parents communicating their student’s progress. The control group received notes describing what skills could be improved and a positive comment. The treatment group received phone calls and notes that described the student’s academic progress, information about upcoming lessons and assessments, and positive comments about success as well as things to work on (Kraft & Dougherty, 2013). The researchers encouraged school administration to implement a calling log for teachers to document their communication in order to prevent low teacher participation. The results of the experiment showed the experimental group experienced positive gains in student engagement, completion of homework, and on-task behaviors (Kraft & Dougherty, 2013). Students with positive attitudes regarding school and their belief that that teacher cares are more likely to succeed.
Cheung and Pomerantz (2012) found that when involved parents expressed their expectations for their children to do well academically, these actions played a major role in boosting student academic achievement. The research proposed that the motivation for the students to do well academically was due to unwanted consequences of failing to meet parental expectations. The participants, 825 new seventh-grade students, were given questionnaires to define their parent’s role in their education. Participants were expected to complete the questionnaire at the beginning and end of seventh and eighth grades. The participants included 374 American students from Chicago and 487 Chinese children from Beijing. The following year, Cheung and Pomerantz (2015) followed the same group of adolescents into eighth grade. The students were given the questionnaire again and the results were the same. The now eighth grade students were motivated to do well academically because of the amount of parent involvement given by their parents. The more parents were engaged through frequent discussions about school and expectations, the better the grades earned. The research revealed the same information for both longitudinal, quantitative studies: parent involvement is an important factor in student academic achievement.

Fan and Chen (2001) conducted a quantitative comparison meta-analysis of research on parental involvement and how it pertains to student academic achievement. The researchers utilized the various search engines to compile enough research to conduct a comparison study. The data were coded based upon relevance to student academic achievement and parental involvement from home. The study used 25 studies related to parent involvement and student academic achievement. Interestingly, Fan and Chen (2001) found there was a significant relationship between parent involvement and student academic achievement. The correlation was strongest as long as the determining factor for measuring student academic achievement was
compound in nature, GPA or composite scores (Fan & Chen, 2001). In regards to home-based parent involvement, the study found that parental supervision was not an effective method to increase student academic achievement. Parents were able to boost student academic achievement through communicating their expectations. Clearly, parent involvement has a significant impact of student academic achievement.

**Difference in Perception**

One problem related to the perception of parent involvement is a common denotation between teacher and parent (Nargis, 2013). Researchers have defined parent involvement in various ways (Yoder & Lopez, 2013), and teachers and parents frequently define parent involvement in different ways. Teachers view parent involvement as participation from parents concerning formal activities such as school activities, conferences, workshops, governance opportunities, and assisting the teacher with classroom activities (Lewis et al., 2011). Parents perceive parent involvement as participation in informal activities related to home environment, such as ensuring homework is correct, reading with their children, and assisting their children with learning skills (Lewis et al., 2011). It is obvious that research has no definitive answer to how parents perceive their role in being actively involved in their child’s education (Williams & Sanchez, 2012). Therefore, schools and parents are gravely in need of a communal definition or perception of parent involvement.

When parents and teachers view parent involvement differently, the guidelines for building a relationship and enriching student academic achievement becomes difficult or possibly non-existent. The dissimilarity of communal perceptions for parent involvement can contribute to the miscommunication between teachers and parents. Fan (2012) studied data obtained from Likert-type questionnaires. The data were collected from 175 parents located at
an elementary school in the Midwest part of the US. The study found that the parents’ beliefs were parallel when pertaining to their obligation as parents to be involved in their child’s education. Parents are not mistaken in knowing they have a role in educating their child. Fan (2012) found that parents believed their parent involvement role was mostly related to home-based activities, but would report to the school when invited by school personnel or their child. In other words, the parent perceptions neglected school-based involvement and delved into homework practices, which is a form of home-based activities. Limitations to this study included the assumption that all parents are involved in their child’s education in the same manner. Not all parents practice the same methods or teaching styles when helping their children complete homework assignments. Therefore, parent characteristics are different as well as their level and ability to be involved. Consequently, there is a need for a common perception of what is needed to ensure student academic achievement. Parents and teachers need to share the same vision when asked about parent involvement.

Wright (2009) conducted a study to analyze the perception of parent involvement activities that worked amongst teachers and parents. The study sought to find a common ground between the perceptions to develop effective school-and home-based activities to enrich student academic performance. The participants included 478 parents and 104 teachers. The parents and teachers were given questionnaires composed of items related to their beliefs and experiences with involvement at school. Wright found that teachers and parents have different perceptions about the approaches to effective parent involvement. This type of research has been generalized to other populations to determine if the perceptions of parent involvement are specific to race or culture. However, this research has not been generalized to meet the needs of military parents.
The US military is culturally, racially, and ethnically diverse. A diverse perception of parent involvement exists because of such a diverse population of Americans (Rapp & Duncan, 2011). Williams and Sanchez (2012) conducted a qualitative study consisting of 15 parents and 10 school personnel to determine the perception of parent involvement from parents from an inner-city school. Williams and Sanchez found African-American parents from inner-city high school thought parent involvement entailed the safety of children. Child safety in a major city is acceptable as a role of a parent. At the same inner city high school, teachers viewed parent involvement as a means of communication between school and families (Williams & Sanchez, 2012). Child safety and consistent communication are essential in promoting parental involvement. However, the two concepts are not similar in meaning. In order for parent-teacher relations to improve, the two entities must have a common perception of parent involvement.

The meaning of parent involvement is broad and vague, considering its importance as the sole factor in the promotion of student school success. Huntsinger and Jose (2009) found parent involvement consists of a variation of perceptions; it vital to identify which forms of involvement improved academic achievement. Huntsinger and Jose studied 40 second-generation Chinese American and 40 middle-class European American parents of preschool and kindergarten students. This study was a four-year longitudinal study. The findings in this study revealed that Chinese American parents were not as involved in school functions because they were more involved in educating their children in a home-based environment (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). In summary, these studies found African-American and Chinese American families were involved in their child’s education, but approaches varied. When considering the various ways parents can be involved, the need for common grounds or perception is critical.
The Korean culture holds teachers with high respect, which creates moral conflict when parents are expected to collaborate and partner with school officials (Lim, 2012). Lim (2012) found that Korean American families viewed parent involvement as a home-based activity, while the school viewed it as inclusive of school-based activities. This ethnographic case study took place at North Creek Elementary School in the southeastern part of the US. The participants were 12 Korean parents who have children that attend this elementary school. In this qualitative study Lim gathered data from personal interviews, school observations, focus groups and the analysis of school documents. Yet again, the perception of parent involvement was different for various cultures and illustrates the essential need for a communal definition to foster a collaborative relationship between school and family.

Parents set the tone by expressing their thoughts, experiences, and goals to their children. Academic achievement equals parent involvement when parents nourish educational expectations. Graves (2010) conducted a study using 1,235 males and 1,205 females to learn whether parent expectations differ according to gender. The participants were all African-American. Graves (2010) found African-American parents were more prone to have high academic expectancies for their children. The study found parents of African American females believed to have had higher expectations of academic success than those of African American males (Graves, 2010). However, the expectations of parents, without parent involvement, were not enough to increase student academic achievement. The expectations of traditional parent involvement generated an obvious difference in perception. The data reported from these studies indicated that parental involvement and expectations can be different for various races and cultures. Consequently, it is imperative that American schools develop a means of communicating a mutual perception of parent involvement for both parent and the school.
Barriers to Parent Involvement

Students who experience parent involvement at school and home have positive attitudes and behavior (Moeller, et. al, 2015) as well as excellent attendance and mental health (Hornby, 2011). Parents who are actively involved in their child’s education do so for many reasons. Research shows that parents become involved because it is their role as a parent, the personal invitations from their child or the school, or because of tradition and preset examples (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). Not every child is afforded the opportunity to have their parent involved in his or her education. Parent involvement is less likely to occur regularly in impoverished communities (Hill & Taylor, 2004). Williams and Sanchez (2011) conducted a study that identified four barriers parents identified as reasons they are not involved. The study took place in an inner city high school located in the Midwest part of the US. A sample of 25 people included 10 school personnel and 25 parents who were selected through criterion sampling (Williams & Sanchez, 2011). The participants of the study were interviewed based upon the norms for a qualitative research design. The study revealed that parents of low-income families are not actively involved in their child’s education because of time, schedules, financial dependency, and unawareness (Williams & Sanchez, 2011). As is often the case in low-income households, parents are working jobs where leaving work results in less money for the family to function. The times and work schedules for these parents just do not coincide. In some cases, the parents are unaware and miss out on opportunities. Since inner city schools are notorious for poor academic achievement and higher discipline issues than urban or rural school (Bemak, Chung, & Siroskey-Sabdo, 2005; Williams & Sanchez, 2011), the need for parent involvement is essential. These students would benefit most from any type of parent involvement.
Based upon the skills and resources expected by schools, parent involvement activities are designed for White middle-class families (Goodall, 2013). In reality, not all American families are middle-class. Williams and Sanchez (2012) conducted a qualitative research study in a high school in the Midwest part of the US. The study required the researcher to interview 10 employees and 15 parents. The results of this study brought insight to the inner-city minority families who are low-income and live in an impoverished neighborhood. These families view parent involvement in a different light. The participants viewed parent involvement as going door-to-door looking for students who have not come to school in multiple weeks (Williams & Sanchez, 2012). This inner-city high school accepts the fact that many of their parents are working parents and cannot miss work to come into school. The high school personnel allow these parents to be involved by providing the basic needs for their children and their friends (Williams & Sanchez, 2012). One parent involvement activity that was common between middle-class and low-income families is communicating their expectations about school to their children. Williams and Sanchez (2012) acknowledged the role of “uninvolved” parents to be parents who are not concerned about their student’s academic progress or attendance, busy parents who are too busy to take time for their children at home or school, and formerly involved parents who have lost interest in helping their child for some reason or another. The findings from Williams and Sanchez is beneficial to this study because military-affiliated elementary schools must find ways to involve parents, especially during deployments. When these parents are away fighting for our country, they should be having some communication back home about their child’s progress in school.
Decrease in Parent Involvement

Through research and governmental policies, the US believes that parent involvement is critical to student academic success (Robinson & Harris, 2014). Parental involvement is mostly effective and expected during the elementary school years (Berryhill & Vennum, 2015; Cheung & Pomerantz, 2012; Hornby, 2011; Jeynes, 2007, 2012). This statement suggests that parent involvement diminishes as children progress through grades (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Hornby, 2011). In a study conducted by Powell, Son, File, and Froiland (2012), the researchers investigated whether parent involvement would change for families as their child transitioned into elementary school across four domains. The domains were involvement in school, cognitive stimulation at home, learning resources at home, and learning away from home (Powell, et. al, 2012). A series of intellectual assessments were given to approximately 90 students. In addition, their mothers were interviewed to determine their level of parent intervention during the three-year period. The researchers found that there was a decrease in cognitive stimulation from pre-kindergarten to kindergarten and more of a decrease from kindergarten to first grade. The out-of-home experiences increased over the three-year period. There was no change in parent involvement with regards to school experiences throughout the three-year period. Parents changed the amount of time they spent teaching their child once the child entered elementary school. Powell et al. (2012) illustrated how parent involvement decreased as children entered pre-kindergarten and continued to decrease as the child progressed to first grade. This study contributes to the research that states parent involvement decreases as children become older.

The decrease of parent involvement as children progress through school is unfortunate. Powell et al. (2012) identified that the decrease occurs upon entry into elementary school. By the time the student is in middle or high school, parent involvement is little to none. The three
primary reasons for the decrease as stated by Hornby (2011) revolve around the parent’s knowledge, school’s hospitality, and the reduction of personal invites from their children. The decrease of parent involvement in middle and high school is related to the complexity of the subject matter, which is linked to parents not possessing the knowledge to assist with homework (Goodall 2013; Hill & Taylor, 2004; Hornby, 2011; Wei et al., 2019; Williams & Sanchez, 2012). In challenging subjects like advanced mathematics and science classes, many parents may find it difficult to answer questions or provide the knowledge to assist their child. Many parents find their inability to assist their children with advanced curriculum can cause their child to be confused or embarrassment for the parent (Goodall, 2013). Parents also find the secondary school’s faculty and staff to be rigid and unwelcoming (Hornby, 2011; Williams & Sanchez, 2012). School personnel that negatively interact with students or their parents can decrease parent involvement. Parents should feel welcomed and valued by teachers and other school personnel. Lastly, parent involvement is low in secondary grades because the student population is not as interested in having their parents at the school as they did in the elementary grades, (Goodall, 2013; Hornby 2011). At this age, children have grown accustomed to schooling and yielding to peer pressure. Children become less dependent upon their parents, learn to accomplish tasks their own way, and begin to understand and relate to the world as they become older (Goodall, 2013). As students become older, peer pressure, independence, and other barriers become issues that compel students to find ways to keep parents at bay or away from the school. This study contributed to the body of research by determining if there is a difference in parent involvement in lower grades and upper grades.
Military-Affiliated Schools

Military-affiliated schools are schools that serve students who have a parent in the military. The Department of Defense Education Activity (DoDEA) is a sub-agency operated by the Department of Defense (DoD) to educate military children in the US and on other military installations worldwide (Berkowitz et al., 2014). The DoDEA has military-affiliated schools where the majority of the student population are children whose parent or guardian is military and live on the military installation. The state public schools are military affiliated as well. Many of these schools serve military children who do not live on the military installation.

Military-affiliated schools are public state schools located within driving distance of a military installation. These particular schools serve more than 90% of the 1.2 million military connected students (Esqueda et al., 2012; Berkowitz et al., 2014). Military-affiliated schools are funded through the various states. These schools receive DOD Impact Aid for the educating military-connected students. The funding is allocated to military-connected schools that experience a loss of local taxes due to the proximity of federal property (DoDEA, n.d.). The funding is based upon a formula that calculates the annual amount a school district received and is not based on the number of children the school serves (CMCSS, n.d.). Therefore, state-funded schools in military towns have a mixture of traditional students and military students.

Students who attend military-affiliated schools come from a wide range of ethnic backgrounds. Military-affiliated schools are welcome to students with various languages, family traditions, and cultures. Often, these students experience parental separation. These students are not strangers to having one or no parents at home for weeks, months, and in some cases, years. The reasons for the long separations are deployments, change in duty stations, and temporary duty assignments. Military-affiliated schools are not always accustomed to students with these
unique experiences. Berkowitz et al. (2014) studied 448 military families and the perception of parents regarding the supports for their children. The study was done in state-operated public schools in San Diego, where the data collected was from the California School Climate Survey for Parents. The researchers found that parents believed the military-affiliated schools did little to support the specific needs of their children. Berkowitz et al. (2014) suggested that military-affiliated schools do more in the realm of social work and support programs.

Active duty soldiers who have school-aged children are no exception to the rule when it comes to actively being involved in helping their child achieve academically. Members of the military work an excessive amount of hours per day and experience frequent deployments (Herrell, 2011; Moeller et al., 2015; Skomorovsky, Norris, Bullock & Evans, 2016). Many military families experience multiple deployments and for extended amounts of time (Rossen & Carter, 2012; Moeller et al., 2015; Skomorovsky et al., 2016). These demands and many more are considered barriers which cause military parents to have limited amounts of time to spend investing in their child’s education. Schools must be creative in strategically planning to get parents involved. Additionally, school administration and teachers should be more active in getting these unique parents actively involved in the schools to volunteer in the classrooms or in any other way convenient for the soldier. The military parents would be ideal candidates to participate on governing committees to advocate for children during the decision-making process.

As stated previously, this study did not attempt to define parent involvement. However, the study did identify what military parents perceive as parent involvement. The study identified which activities are more receptive to parents than others. By determining what activities are important to parents, schools can develop a parent involvement program that highlights these
various types of activities. A vast array of research projects has proven that academic achievement is inevitable without parents being actively involved in their child’s education.

**Military Families**

Military families are complex and unique, which explains the necessity for resiliency and flexibility. Members of this distinctive population and their families are separated time and time again due to frequent relocations, lengthy work hours of the military member, and multiple deployments (Moeller et al., 2015; Rossen & Carter, 2012; Skomorovsky et al., 2016). According to Garner, Arnold, and Nunnery (2014) military families frequently move across multiple states and various countries causing the students of military families to continuously prove their academic abilities in school. Students who routinely relocate often have difficulty grasping newly learned concepts (Garner et al., 2014). Multiple moves can cause gaps in learning, producing stress for the military child who is trying to succeed academically. The strain of moving frequently can affect the academic and social-emotional support for these family members as students (Garner et al., 2014). Although military students are well traveled, frequent changing of school disrupts the continuity and quality of instruction military students experience in school. Garner et al. (2014) reported findings from data obtained by surveying 70 school personnel to include teachers, counselors, and administrators. The researchers learned that the military-affiliated school faced the challenges that come with military children. Mostly, military schools and the military community should form a collaboration that supports the unique characteristics of these families. In addition, the researchers suggest awareness training for school personnel to equip them with strategies and knowledge needed to assist military students during difficult times.
Children must ascertain relationships with other children, progress through school, develop and enhance talents, build morality, and contribute to the family and society (Easterbrooks, Ginsburg, & Lerner, 2013). There is an enormous amount of pressure that comes from worrying about loved ones during separation. Negative social-emotional conditions are not rare for members of a military family who has faced a family member being deployed. Family members, to include school-aged children, can display various emotions during the various stages of the deployment process (Skomorovsky et al., 2016). The deployment process forces the dynamics of the family structure to change. The parent that is left behind becomes the sole decision maker for the family. The older children take on more responsibility to include discovering more ways to contribute to the needs of the family (Easterbrooks et al., 2013; Skomorovsky et al., 2016).

Deployment and the multiple stressors put on military families can contribute to a lack of parent involvement in their child’s education (Berkowitz et al., 2014). Per Berkowitz et al. (2014), parents may experience challenges, such as caring for the family, which can inhibit their involvement in their child’s education when the spouse is deployed. The stressors may cause parents to interact with others negatively and refrain from interaction with the school. Schools must find ways to interact with military families who may be stressed with the reality of military life, to include deployment (Berkowitz et al., 2014). The children who are encompassed in the cycle of military deployments are unique because of the enormous amount of stress the family experiences while the parent is away at war. Schools must be compassionate to these families and offer special accommodations to assist during their time of need (Berkowitz et al., 2014).
**Officers and Enlisted**

Military officers and enlisted personnel have rankings that range from lowest to the highest in the United States Army. The lowest rank for an officer is Second Lieutenant and the highest, General of the Army (U.S. Army, n.d.). The next rank from Second Lieutenant is First Lieutenant. The First Lieutenant has responsibilities to include assisting with leading a platoon. A platoon could be roughly a dozen personnel. Next in line is the Captain. The Captain is the supervisor of a unit, which can be over a hundred soldiers. The rank of Major follows the Captain. Often a Major is in charge of missions and organized operations (U.S. Army, n.d.). The Lieutenant Colonel is the ranking after Major. The Lieutenant Colonel is in charge of battalions. Battalions are groups of units, which can be nearly 1,000 soldiers. Colonel is the next ranking and can command thousands of military personnel. The next ranking is General, which has subcategories such as Brigadier General, Major General, and Lieutenant General. The Brigadier General is in charge of a brigade of soldiers. All of the rankings take on the responsibility of being in command of more soldiers. The highest officer is the General of the Army.

Per the U.S. Army (n.d.) website, enlisted Army personnel ranks range from the lowest, Private, to the highest, Sergeant Major of the Army. The Private ranking has a subcategory, Private First Class. The next rank after Private First Class is Specialist or Corporal. The difference is a Specialist has not completed the Non-Commissioned Officer Academy (NCOA), which prepares them to become leaders. Once successfully completing NCOA, a Specialist become Corporal until the promotion of Sergeant. An enlisted soldier starts to gain supervisory responsibilities when reaching the rank of Specialist or Corporal and Sergeant. Sergeants have subcategories such as Staff Sergeant, Sergeant First Class, and Master Sergeant, respectively.
When the Master Sergeant takes charge of a battalion, the rank remains the same, but the title becomes First Sergeant. The ranking of Sergeant Major has a subcategory, Command Sergeant Major. The Command Sergeant Major is in charge of a battalion and works with the Lieutenant Colonel. The highest enlisted rank is Sergeant Major of the Army.

The difference between officers and enlisted soldiers is vital in understanding this research. The term officer refers to higher-ranking soldiers, when organizing rank from high to low. Officers possess at least a bachelor’s degree in any particular area. These soldiers are in command of several other soldiers. Enlisted soldiers are amongst the lower ranking soldiers. Enlisted soldiers’ rank ranges from the bottom to the middle when ordering rank from low to high. Consequently, the majority of the military is comprised of enlisted soldiers. In number there are more enlisted soldiers, Privates to Sergeants, than officers, Lieutenants to Generals. Enlisted soldiers have less responsibility. Although officers hold at a minimum a bachelor’s degree, some enlisted soldiers possess a college degree. Enlisted soldiers that are new to the military are usually younger than their officer counterparts. Since a college degree is not a requirement for entering the military, enlisted soldiers could be as young as 18 years old. Therefore, military personnel who have children in elementary school ages could range between 18 and 25. These parents should be groomed to be active participants in their child’s education.

**Summary**

Bronfenbrenner’s theory is supported by Epstein’s framework that categorizes parent involvement activities. Epstein’s framework assists researchers in classifying parent involvement activities into six dimensions. Of these six dimensions, Lewis et al. (2011) found teachers prefer school-based parent involvement activities. These activities require parents to be present at school for events or activities that promote student achievement. Graves and Wright
(2011) found that African American parents prefer home-based parent involvement. Huntsinger and Jose (2009) found that Chinese-American parents prefer helping their children with homework as a means of being involved in their child’s education. This research and others prove that there are different perceptions regarding parent involvement when studying various races and cultures. In light of the various research studies that address the perceptions of civilian parents, this study contributes to the literature by including the perceptions of military personnel. This study used Epstein’s six types to propose questions for a survey which was beneficial in determining which activities are more popular amongst young military parents. This information can be powerful in learning how to involve military parents with children in elementary school. The information can also assist military-affiliated schools in helping military parents take a more active role their child’s education. Determining the most popular activities of military parents can be an essential component to finding the missing link to school and home relationships and maximum learning experiences, resulting in optimal student academic achievement.

If parent involvement is highly linked to academic achievement, then it is imperative that schools encourage parents to be active participants (Frew et al., 2012). Without a common perception of parent involvement, teachers, the school, and military parents have a clouded judgment which limits improving student academic achievement. This study did not investigate a common meaning but expanded on the research currently available to determine the perception of military soldiers. Graves and Wright (2011) assisted the current study by identifying the perception of parent involvement for African-American and European-American parents. Lim (2012) contributed to this study by determining the perception of parent involvement for Korean parents. This study paralleled a study conducted by Wright (2009) in that he used quantitative research to learn the differing perceptions of parent involvement for teachers and parents. This
study has included the perceptions of parent involvement for military personnel with children in elementary schools.

This study provides schools with the needed activities to promote more parent involvement in military-affiliated schools. More parent involvement provides more opportunities for military parents to build confidence and a wealth of knowledge by participating on governing committees which are the foundations for building effective relationship between the school, the community, and families.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

The contents of Chapter 3 begin with a description of the research design, a quantitative causal-comparative study. The instrument used in this study was a modified version of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions (adapted from Joyce Epstein, 2002). The instrument was used to collect data that displayed evidence of the perception of effective parent involvement activities for military soldiers with elementary aged children. In addition, the instrument identified effective parent involvement activities for officers and enlisted soldiers. The participants had children attending military-affiliated elementary schools, which are located near a military installation in the southeastern part of the United States. The pilot study included 38 soldiers who participated in this study. The chapter concludes with the data analysis section. This section discusses the process used to conduct a one-way MANOVA test that was used to compare the mean scores of the soldiers’ perceptions of parent involvement activities according to rank as well as the perception of parent involvement for upper and lower grades.

Design

The data collected in this study was numerical; thus, quantitative measures were necessary with this type of data. The use of a survey was admissible because there is no connection or relationship between the independent and dependent variables that would cause a conditional change (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006). The independent variables included in this study were the rank of the military parent (officer or enlisted) and grade level of the student (lower or upper). The dependent variables were parent perceptions of effective parent involvement across the five dimensions. The quantitative causal-comparative research
design was used to compare the mean scores of parents’ perception of effective parent involvement activities in their child’s elementary school. Another reason the causal-comparative design was the best design for this study is because the design identified specific interpretations or perceptions of military parents regarding their involvement in their child’s education. The causal-comparative research design allowed the researcher to use surveys to inquire about groups of people’s beliefs and behaviors (Ary et al., 2006). Learning what parents perceive as effective parent involvement is an intricate part of building and maintaining a cohesive working relationship surrounding the academic achievement of the military child.

**Research Questions**

**RQ1:** Is there a difference in the effective parent involvement activities mean scores between officers and enlisted soldiers who have children enrolled in a military-affiliated public school as measured by five dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey?

**RQ2:** Is there a difference in the effective parent involvement activities mean scores for parents with students in third through fifth grade and parents with students in the kindergarten through second grade as measured by five dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey?

**Null Hypotheses**

**H₀₁:** There is no statistically significant difference in effective parent involvement activities mean scores between officers and enlisted soldiers who have children enrolled in a military-affiliated public school as measured by the communication, learning at home, decision-making, collaborating with the community, and high expectations dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey.
**H₀2:** There is no statistically significant difference in effective parent involvement activities mean scores between upper and lower grade levels for soldiers who have children enrolled in a military-affiliated public school as measured by the communication, learning at home, decision-making, collaborating with the community, and high expectations dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey.

**Participants and Setting**

The target population in this study included soldiers of the United States Army stationed at a military installation in the southeastern part of the United States. The military installation is home to 26,118 officers and enlisted soldiers (Military Community & Family Policy, 2018). In this study, soldiers fell into two categories: officers and enlisted. Officers are higher ranking than enlisted soldiers. Officers possess at least a bachelor’s degree upon entry into the military. Enlisted must possess at least a high school diploma. All of these soldiers had dependent children who were enrolled in elementary schools near the military installation. The sample population was chosen from elementary schools where there was a relatively large number of military families. The schools served students in kindergarten through fifth grade. The pilot study included approximately half of the sample population collected for the actual study.

This study included survey responses of $N= 70$ soldiers stationed at a specific post in the southeastern portion of the United States. All of these soldiers had elementary-aged children enrolled in kindergarten through fifth grade. The survey was open to all military parents who had children in elementary school. Convenience sampling was the method used for the sample population. The participants were individuals who were at a particular place at a particular time, (Creswell, 2015). The researcher frequented places where military soldiers populated at targeted
times of the day to conveniently collect data. The pilot study was inclusive of approximately half of the sample size.

**Instrumentation**

Currently, research exists that examines the perceptions of parents and their concept of how to become actively involved in their child’s education. The instrument used in these particular studies measured the perception of parent involvement for parents and teachers. The studies require the researcher to use a modified version of an instrument originally created by Joyce Epstein (2002, 2009). The researchers of these studies obtained permission to use and adapt the survey to fit their specific study. For example, in studies conducted by Wright (2009), Herrell (2011), and Thompson (2012), Epstein granted permission to use and adapt the survey for the purpose of expanding upon the research related to parental involvement. This study expanded upon the research by applying the same concept, using a survey adapted from Epstein’s framework. The study used a modified instrument created by Wright (2009) called the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions. A request was sent to Dr. Wright to obtain permission to use the survey and publish it in this study. Permission to use this survey was granted (see Appendix A).

The data collected from the survey reflected effective parental involvement perceptions. This instrument was administered to military parents to acquire insight into their individual perceptions of effective parent involvement. The instrument, in electronic form, was paired with a recruitment letter and consent form (See Appendix B and D). A Spanish version of the recruitment letter and consent form was also provided as an option (See Appendix C and E). The consent form contained information about the procedures, risks, and benefits of the study. The recruitment letter provided the participant with the importance and purpose of the study,
guarantee of confidentiality, information about the researcher and chairperson, and deadline for completion (Creswell, 2015). In addition, the recruitment letter identified the research questions, rights to withdraw, and gave specific directions for completing the survey. The estimated time to complete the instrument was approximately 15 to 20 minutes.

The instrument’s design and functionality is identical to a Likert scale with response options that range from 15: 1–2 (Not Effective), 3 (Somewhat Effective), and 45 (Highly Effective). Military parents selected the number that corresponded best with their perception of how effective a particular involvement activity is to them. For example, parents who mark 1 or 2 perceive that particular parent involvement activity is less effective. Parents who mark 4 or 5 are indicating that they find that activity to be more effective. If the parent marks a 3, this indicates that the parent has a neutral stance on that particular parent involvement activity.

The instrument used was a 20-question survey which addressed parent involvement concepts adapted from Epstein’s (2009, 2011) Framework for Parent Involvement. Wright (2009), Herrell (2011), and Thompson (2012) made adaptations of Epstein’s instrument to compare perceptions of teachers and parents. Epstein was generous in granting permission to use the parent involvement instrument but suggested that each researcher conduct reliability testing because the instrument was designed to evaluate parent involvement programs for schools as a whole (Herrell, 2011). Each of the researchers tested the reliability of the instrument as suggested by Epstein. Wright (2009) used a committee of teachers, parents, and administrators to conduct a pilot study of the instrument to test for validity. The Cronbach’s alpha reported by Wright was $\alpha = .929$. Herrell conducted a pilot study and reported a Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha = .894$. Thompson adapted two instruments to test teacher belief about parent involvement and used the test-retest method to report reliability. Thompson reported an alpha of $\alpha = .76$ for
As Epstein suggested, a pilot test was completed on this study to check reliability. The Cronbach’s alpha for each of the dimensions for effective parent involvement results yielded the following: parenting ($\alpha = .25$), volunteering ($\alpha = .63$), communication ($\alpha = .84$), learning at home ($\alpha = .83$), decision-making ($\alpha = .84$), high expectation ($\alpha = .79$), and collaboration ($\alpha = .91$). Content validity was maintained by addressing a variety of questions that follow each of the dimensions of Epstein’s parent involvement framework. Wright (2009) added a category called High Expectations to represent other studies that support parental expectations as a form of parent involvement. To ensure validity, Wright (2009) added two items that denoted a negative connotation to the instrument and demographic information to the survey to disaggregate the data. Hence, the instrument for this study included demographic information to determine officers from enlisted and to identify military parents who have children in upper and lower grades. No identifying information was requested to ensure the participants remained anonymous. Implementing a variety of questions that addressed various types of parent involvement was intentional because of the military parents’ unique work demands in which they experience frequent deployments and work long hours.

In this study, a critical factor relates to the pilot study for the purpose of determining the Cronbach’s alpha for each of the seven dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions. The results of the pilot study showed a variation of alpha levels, communication, ($\alpha = .77$), learning at home, ($\alpha = .82$), decision making, ($\alpha = .81$), collaborating with the community, ($\alpha = .91$), high expectations, ($\alpha = .91$), parenting, ($\alpha = .23$), volunteering, ($\alpha = .54$) and unacceptable, ($\alpha = -.16$). Based upon the Cronbach’s alpha results after the modifications to the instrument, the dimensions of parenting, volunteering, and unacceptable
were deleted from the instrument because the reliability levels were not sufficient to be included in the study. Therefore, modifications to Wright’s version of the instrument were necessary for this study. These modifications reduced the amount of questions from 28 to 20 and the number of dimensions from eight to five. Epstein’s framework has six dimensions and Wright’s instrument had eight dimensions. The five dimensions for this instrument—communication, learning at home, decision-making, collaborating with the community, and high expectations—and the corresponding items are displayed in this study.

**Procedures**

Due to the fact the instrument used to conduct this research is not original to the researcher, special permission was required. The researcher requested permission to use this survey, Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions, from the owner, Dr. Jackson of Georgia. Dr. Wright gave permission to use the name of his instrument in this study and to modify it as needed. No research was conducted until the parties replied to the researcher’s request granting permission to use the survey to collect data from military soldiers with children enrolled in the elementary schools. In addition, the researcher did not initiate research without the approval of Liberty University’s Institutional Review Board (IRB).

The Liberty University IRB has approved this study. The study was submitted within five days after the successful proposal defense in April 2018. The IRB process was completed in September, five months later. The researcher then contacted the local school district to obtain permission to distribute surveys to military families. The school district gave approval for the researcher to send out paper or electronic survey links within the school’s newsletter. The local school district representative explained that the schools had no method of only identifying military members. In addition, the school district identified the desire to protect the identity of the parents. Therefore, the researcher and the school district agreed to make the link accessible
to all parents with children enrolled in the approved elementary schools surrounding the military installation. For the purpose of identifying the military members, the researcher included a question that distinguished military affiliation amongst the convenience sample. The electronic surveys did not ask for identifying information nor did it track email addresses. The instrumentation included personal non-identifying information pertaining to military rank and child’s grade level. This information was used to disaggregate the data between rank and grade level. Hence, the information was an essential component to answer the research questions for this study. The factor of military rank was used to answer Research Question 1 and the child’s grade level was used to answer Research Question 2 along with the corresponding null hypotheses.

In addition, the researcher obtained permission from a local school district and local elementary schools to conduct a pilot study before collecting data for the actual study. This process began in October 2018. Collecting data for the pilot study was completed in February 2019 because there were no responses to the surveys and the researcher had to submit the write up for the school’s newsletter within a specific timeframe. The researcher conducted a pilot study to test the reliability of the instrument. Reliability was calculated for the dimensions of the instrument developed by Wright (2009). The statistical test that was used to determine reliability was the Cronbach’s alpha. Warner (2013) suggested conducting pilot studies to reveal any potential problems with the time allocation for the instrument, issues with the instruments format, or confusion with the wording. The pilot study helped identify problems with the procedures that may have occurred during the actual study. As a result of the pilot study, the researcher modified the instrument, eliminating three dimensions (parenting, unacceptable, and volunteering). These dimensions yielded significantly lower mean scores.
The population for the pilot study included soldiers from a local school district with students enrolled in kindergarten through fifth grade who were stationed at a military installation in the southeast part of the United States. Since this study is based upon $N=70$ participants, the pilot study was conducted using $N=38$ participants from the actual study. The pilot study began using newsletters from two elementary schools. The researcher contacted the school’s administrator to communicate the particulars surrounding the study and to present approval letters from the IRB and the school district. The school’s administrator gave permission for a section of the newsletter to be dedicated to this study. At one of the elementary schools, students took paper versions of the newsletter home to their parents. Parents were asked to access the link and complete the survey about their preferences for effective parent involvement. After three weeks, there were no responses from the parents. The researcher learned from the school’s personnel that the school does not typically receive any response from parents via newsletters. The researcher then contacted a second elementary school. The school personnel informed the researcher that the elementary school used social media as a means of communicating their newsletter to stakeholders. The researcher created a write up to include in the school’s social media newsletter.

The section of the newsletter that the researcher created included the title, purpose, significance of the study, and an English and Spanish version of the survey and brief description of the study. Attached to the survey was a copy of the IRB approved consent form and recruitment letter. Before parents began rating the Likert-type items, they were asked to answer a yes or no question consenting to completing the survey. Each survey had a location where parents identified any items that needed clarification or held ambiguity. The electronic survey was open for six weeks after the newsletter has been released. The feedback from one of the
elementary schools was minimal; thus, the researcher had to find additional means of collecting data from military soldiers. The school district would only approve that the researcher utilize newsletters as a means of collecting data. Obviously, sending newsletters from the school is a means of parent involvement that proved to be unreliable. After weeks of posting the survey in the school’s newsletters and getting little return, the researcher pursued places where soldiers populated such as neighborhoods on the installation, child-centered events, local stores, and restaurants. In doing so, the researcher collected N=38 surveys from participants in which to conduct the pilot study.

In preparation for the actual study, the researcher made changes to the instrument that reflected the outcome of the pilot study, removing the three dimensions (parenting, unacceptable, and volunteering). The researcher investigated events to be held by the local elementary school as a means of collecting data. Searching school websites, the researcher found that four of the elementary schools located near the military installation conducted annual field day events where the researcher attended and asked military parents to complete a parent involvement survey electronically or on paper. The researcher attended a Kidfest event for military-affiliated families. The researcher could easily identify families amongst the attendees that had children in elementary school. The participants willingly accepted the electronic version of the survey via airdrop. Routine trips to the commissary, restaurants, and retail stores were locations where soldiers frequented at certain times of the day. Military parents who fit the criteria for the study were asked to contribute to the data. The data collection process for the pilot and the actual study was conducted for seven weeks. One extra week was added because the researcher collected more surveys from enlisted soldiers than officers.
The data was disaggregated into four categories or groups: Officers, Enlisted, Upper Grades, and Lower Grades. The researcher conducted a one-way MANOVA to compare mean scores of soldiers and grade level of the students. As stated in Research Question 1, the mean scores for officers and enlisted were compared in each of the five dimensions in the instrument. Likewise, for Research Question 2, the mean scores of military parents with children in kindergarten through second grade and third through fifth grade were compared in each of the five dimensions of the instrument. The higher the mean score, the more effective the parent perceived that particular activity [dimension] to be (Wright, 2009).

**Data Analysis**

This study used the one-way MANOVA to test Null Hypotheses 1 and 2. Per Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007), the one-way MANOVA is the ideal test because it measures whether two or more groups (independent variable) differ on multiple dependent variables. The rationale for using a one-way MANOVA to test both null hypotheses required the researcher to determine if a significant difference exists between the mean scores of two independent variables and five dependent variables with both tests. The independent variables are officers and enlisted soldiers for Research Question 1 and Hypothesis 1 and upper and lower grades for Research Question 2 and Hypothesis 2. Both independent variables are nominal categories. The dependent variable for this study is the perception of military parents, which falls within each of the five dimensions of the instrument. A one-way MANOVA is utilized when mean scores for multiple dependent variables are compared to two or more groups (Warner, 2013). The researcher proceeded with checking the three assumptions that are expected with one-way MANOVA testing.

The population used to collect data was members of the military. The members must either be an enlisted soldier or an officer. There was no way any of the participants could be
both an officer and an enlisted soldier. Secondly, the participants could not be in both groups for grade level. In other words, the participant cannot put multiple children and the data be counted in both upper and lower grades. The surveys collected where the participants chose multiple grades were not included in the study for this reason. Therefore, there is no indication that the collected data were correlated.

Before conducting a one-way MANOVA test, assumptions must be met. In this study, the assumption tests require the researcher to check for extreme outliers using box plots (see Appendix F). Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was conducted to check for univariate normality along with histograms that are related to the variables in the study. The assumption of multivariate normality was tested using Mahalanobis distance. Correlation matrixes were created to test the assumption of multicolinearity of the dependent variables. The association amongst the variables should be linear and was tested using scatterplots (see Appendix G). The assumption for equal variances was tested in this study. Equal variances were tested using Levene’s test. As for the assumption for homogeneity of variance, Box’s M was checked. The sample size per cell in this study was $N=70$, appropriate for medium effect size (Warner, 2013).
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

Overview

Chapter 4 begins with a restatement of the research questions identifying a possibility of a significant difference in perceptions of effective parent involvement activities for military parents with children in elementary school by grade level and rank. Following the research questions is the restatement of the null hypotheses negating the significant difference of perceptions for parent involvement for military parents in the five dimensions. Before conducting the statistical testing, the chapter discusses the results of the assumption tests. A brief paragraph explaining the descriptive statistics of the population used to conduct this study and a table with frequencies and percentages for the sample are outlined in this chapter. In the results section of this chapter, the researcher organized the information by hypothesis. The statistical test used to measure both hypotheses was the one-way MANOVA. The chapter concludes with many statements that reflect a determination of whether the statistical testing show significant finds that rejects or fail to reject the null hypotheses.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a difference in the effective parent involvement activities mean scores between officers and enlisted soldiers who have children enrolled in a military-affiliated public school as measured by five dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey?

RQ2: Is there a difference in the effective parent involvement activities mean scores for parents with students in third through fifth grade and parents with students in the kindergarten through second grade as measured by five dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey?
Null Hypotheses

\textbf{H}_0\textsubscript{1}: There is no statistically significant difference in effective parent involvement activities mean scores between officers and enlisted soldiers who have children enrolled in a military-affiliated public school as measured by the communication, learning at home, decision-making, collaborating with the community, and high expectations dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey.

\textbf{H}_0\textsubscript{2}: There is no statistically significant difference in effective parent involvement activities mean scores between upper and lower grade levels for soldiers who have children enrolled in a military-affiliated public school as measured by the communication, learning at home, decision-making, collaborating with the community, and high expectations dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey.

Descriptive Statistics

Description of the Sample

The number of children documented by respondents ranged from one to four; the mean number was 1.91 \( (SD = .85) \). The findings in Table 2 show that close to half of the sample consisted of mothers (47.1%). More than half of the respondents had a child or oldest child in the third through fifth grade (60%), were Officers (51.6%), and were Caucasian (54.3%). The largest percentages of respondents had completed some college courses (40%) or held a bachelor’s degree (38.6%).
Table 2

*Frequencies and Percentages for the Demographic Variables (N = 70)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respondent relationship to child</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stepfather</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of child/oldest child</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten to second grade</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third to fifth grade</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest level of education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school diploma</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>38.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate degree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enlisted</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officer</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity of respondent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>54.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biracial</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ethnicity not listed</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Description of the Study Variables**

Descriptive statistics for the major study variables are shown in Tables 3 and 4.
### Table 3

*Descriptive Statistics for Parent Involvement Across Rank*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent Involvement</th>
<th>Enlisted Soldiers (N = 34)</th>
<th>Officers (N = 36)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning at home</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the community</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High expectations</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4

*Descriptive Statistics for Parental Involvement Across Grade Levels*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent Involvement</th>
<th>Kindergarten through Second (N = 28)</th>
<th>Third through Fifth (N = 42)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning at home</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the community</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High expectations</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Assumptions Test for Collinearity

**Correlations Between Measures**

The findings in Table 7 reveal that all the dimensions were significantly correlated with each other. Since none of the correlations are over .80, the assumption of absence of multicollinearity is tenable. The Communication subscale was most highly correlated with the
Learning at Home subscale, $r = .67, p < .001$ (and vice-versa). The Decision-Making subscale was most highly associated with the Collaboration subscale, $r = .65, p < .001$ (and vice-versa). The High Expectations subscale was most highly correlated with the Learning at Home subscale, $r = .41, p < .001$.

Table 5

*Pearson Correlations Between the Study Variables (N = 70)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Learning at home</td>
<td></td>
<td>.67  ***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Decision-making</td>
<td>.52  ***</td>
<td></td>
<td>.65  ***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Collaborating with the community</td>
<td>.44  ***</td>
<td>.59  ***</td>
<td>.72  ***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 High expectations</td>
<td>.25  *</td>
<td>.41  ***</td>
<td>.31  **</td>
<td>.35  **</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.*** p < .01.*** p < .001.

Research Question 1

Checking for Univariate Outliers

Univariate outliers were detected via box plots (see Appendix F). Although there were some univariate outliers, outliers differed across the five dependent measures. As such, outliers were not removed from the analyses.

Assessing Univariate Normality

Univariate normality was assessed via the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. As shown in Table 6, except for the Decision-Making subscale, all the dimensions were highly skewed. Therefore, these variables were transformed using a natural log function (Kline, 2015); these transformed variables were used in subsequent procedures. However, for ease of interpretation, the descriptive statistics reports were based on the original variables.
Table 6

*Kolmogorov-Smirnov Results for the Parent Involvement Dimensions Across Ranks*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent Involvement Dimensions</th>
<th>Enlisted Soldiers Statistic</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Officers Statistic</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning at home</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the community</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High expectations</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Testing the Difference Between Rank and Parent Involvement**

It was hypothesized that rank (enlisted and officers) scores (H1) would differ across the dimensions of communication, learning at home, decision-making, collaborating with the community and high expectations. A MANOVA procedure was conducted to test these five dimensions. Prior to conducting the procedure, the assumptions of multivariate normality, linearity, and homogeneity of variance-covariance were checked. Given that the five dependent variables were distributed normally and given that the scatterplots resulted in a linear pattern, the assumption of multivariate normality was fulfilled (Kline, 2015). As shown in Table 5 and Appendix G, the assumption of linearity was also met; all variables were correlated with each other and all the scatterplots yielded plots suggesting a linear relationship between the variables. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variances indicated that all variances were equal (i.e., all \( p \)-values were non-significant). Similarly, Box’s M was not significant (\( p = .310 \)); as such, covariance matrices were equal and the assumption of homogeneity of covariance is tenable.

Five measures of parental involvement were assessed. Participants were either enlisted soldiers or officers. As shown in Table 9, Communication scores did not differ significantly
across enlisted officers ($M = 4.44, SD = .67$) and officers ($M = 4.34, SD = .68$). Learning at Home scores also did not differ significantly across enlisted officers ($M = 4.44, SD = .71$) and officers ($M = 4.38, SD = .66$). Decision-making scores did not differ significantly across enlisted officers ($M = 4.00, SD = .83$) and officers ($M = 3.79, SD = .81$). Collaborating with the Community scores did not differ significantly across enlisted officers ($M = 4.25, SD = .72$) and officers ($M = 4.13, SD = .72$). High Expectations scores also did not differ significantly across enlisted officers ($M = 4.73, SD = .44$) and officers ($M = 4.71, SD = .40$). The difference between the ranks also was not statistically significant, $F(5, 64) = .23, p = .948$, partial $\eta^2 = .018$; Wilks’ $\Lambda = .98$ (see Table 8). Since two MANOVAs were conducted, a Bonferroni correction was needed to guard against Type I error. The alpha level was calculated to be: $0.05/2 = .025$ (Warner, 2013). All the $p$ values are above the corrected Bonferroni alpha of .025.

Table 7

*Means and 95\% Confidence Intervals for Parental Involvement Across Ranks (N = 70)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent Involvement Dimension</th>
<th>Enlisted Soldiers</th>
<th></th>
<th>Officers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>Upper</td>
<td>$M$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>4.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning at home</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>4.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the community</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High expectations</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>4.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8

MANOVA Results for Parent Involvement Across Ranks (N = 70)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Wilks’ Λ</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>.982</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.948</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td></td>
<td>64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9

ANOVA Results for Parental Involvement Across Ranks (N = 70)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication Rank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.516</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication Error</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning at home</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning at home Rank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning at home Error</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making Rank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.292</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making Error</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the community Rank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.405</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the community Error</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High expectations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High expectations Rank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.832</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High expectations Error</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data presented displays no statistically significant difference in effective parent involvement activity scores of officers and enlisted soldiers who have children enrolled in elementary school according to the communication, learning at home, decision-making,
collaborating with the community, and high expectations dimensions. Therefore, the first null hypothesis (H1) was not rejected.

**Research Question 2**

**Checking for Univariate Outliers**

Univariate outliers were detected via box plots (see Appendix F). Although there were some univariate outliers, outliers differed across the five dependent measures. As such, outliers were not removed from the analyses.

**Assessing Univariate Normality**

Univariate normality was assessed via the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. As shown in Table 10, except for the Decision-Making and Collaborating with the Community subscales (within the kindergarten through second grade group), all the dimensions were highly skewed. Therefore, these variables were transformed using a natural log function (Kline, 2015); these transformed variables were used in subsequent procedures. However, for ease of interpretation, the descriptive statistics report was based on the original variables.

Table 10

*Kolmogorov-Smirnov Results for Parent Involvement Dimensions Across Grade Level*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent Involvement Dimensions</th>
<th>Kindergarten through Second Grade Statistic</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Third through Fifth Grade Statistic</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning at home</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.200</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the community</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.197</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High expectations</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Testing the Relationship Between Child’s Grade Level and Parent Involvement

It was hypothesized (H2) that grade level (lower and upper grade) would differ across the dimensions of communication, learning at home, decision-making, collaborating with the community, and high expectations. A MANOVA procedure was conducted to test these five dimensions. Prior to conducting the procedure, the assumptions of multivariate normality, linearity, and homogeneity of variance-covariance were checked. As noted in the prior section, the assumptions of multivariate normality and linearity were fulfilled. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variances indicated that all variances were equal (i.e., all p-values were non-significant). Similarly, Box’s M was not significant (p = .970); as such, covariance matrices were equal, and the assumption of homogeneity of covariance is tenable.

Five measures of parental involvement were assessed. Participants were either parents of a child in kindergarten through second grade or a child in third through the fifth grades. As shown in Table 11, Communication scores did not differ significantly across parents of a child in kindergarten through second grade (M = 4.39, SD = .66) and parents of a child in the third through fifth grades (M = 4.39, SD = .68). Learning at Home scores also did not differ significantly across parents of a child in kindergarten through second grade (M = 4.38, SD = .69) and parents of a child in the third through fifth grades (M = 4.42, SD = .68). Decision-making scores did not differ significantly across parents of a child in kindergarten through second grade (M = 3.83, SD = .86) and parents of a child in the third through fifth grades (M = 3.93, SD = .80). Collaborating with the Community scores did not differ significantly across parents of a child in kindergarten through second grade (M = 4.04, SD = .74) and parents of a child in the third through fifth grades (M = 4.29, SD = .69). High Expectations scores also did not differ significantly across parents of a child in kindergarten through second grade (M = 4.67, SD = .41)
and parents of a child in the third through fifth grades ($M = 4.75$, $SD = .42$). The difference between the grade levels also was not statistically significant, $F(5, 64) = .76$, $p = .584$, partial $\eta^2 = .056$; Wilks’ $\Lambda = .94$ (see Table 11). Therefore, the second hypothesis was not rejected. Since two MANOVAs were conducted, a Bonferroni correction was needed to guard against Type I error. The alpha level was calculated to be: $0.05/2 = .025$ (Warner, 2013). All the $p$ values are above the corrected Bonferroni alpha of .025.

Table 11

*Means and 95% Confidence Intervals for Parental Involvement Across Grade Levels (N = 70)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parent Involvement Dimension</th>
<th>Enlisted Soldiers</th>
<th>Officers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>95% CI Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning at home</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the community</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High expectations</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>4.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12

*MANOVA Results for Parent Involvement Across Grade Levels (N = 70)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Wilks’ $\Lambda$</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial $\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade level Error</td>
<td>.944</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13

*ANOVA Results for Parental Involvement Across Grade Levels (N = 70)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial $\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade levels</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.991</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning at home</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade levels</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade levels</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.606</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade levels</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High expectations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade levels</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>.306</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data presented displays no statistically significant difference in effective parent involvement activity scores for soldiers who have children in upper or lower grades in elementary school according to the communication, learning at home, decision-making, collaborating with the community, and high expectations dimensions. Therefore, the second null hypothesis (H2) was not rejected.
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

The components of the conclusion of this study are documented in Chapter 5. A discussion of the results from the testing for each research question is the critical component that is the foundation of this chapter and the study. This study revealed that no significant difference existed between the perceptions of effective parent involvement for officers and enlisted. Officers and enlisted soldiers perceived the parent involvement activities were effective to the same degree. Later in the chapter, the same outcome was noted for military parents’ perception who have children in upper and lower grades. There was no significant difference in mean scores when considering the grade level of the child. This chapter also references the current literature as it relates to the concepts and findings from this study. The research states that parents prefer activities that allow their children to learn from home (Ihmeideh et al., 2018). Identifying limitations to this study and how the limitations impact the field of education are factors discussed in Chapter 5. The chapter concludes with the limitations of the study and the recommendations to expand the research on effective parental involvement.

Discussion

The purpose of this causal-comparative study is to determine the perception of effective parent involvement amongst military parents who have children enrolled in a local elementary school near a particular military installation. The results were analyzed and reported according to the soldier’s rank and the student’s grade level. This study was designed to identify the most effective activities or dimensions chosen by military parents when the determining factors are military rank or grade level. Distinguishing whether significant differences exist in the
perception of parent involvement for military parents can be beneficial in creating effective parent involvement activities conducive to enhancing student academic success.

RQ1: Is there a difference in the effective parent involvement activities mean scores between officers and enlisted soldiers who have children enrolled in a military-affiliated public school as measured by the five dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey?

The results from the statistical testing reveal there is no significant difference in military parents’ perception of effective parent involvement in any of the five dimensions. In comparing the mean scores of the dimensions in this study with one conducted by Ihmeideh et al. (2018), the results show the preferences within the dimensions of the studies were similar. Ihmeideh et al. (2018) reported that the highest mean scores in relation to Epstein’s framework were learning at home ($M=4.11$, $SD=.82$) and communication ($M= 4.00$, $SD=.58$) and the lowest were volunteering ($M= 3.81$, $SD=.75$), parenting ($M= 3.71$, $SD=.91$), and decision-making ($M= 3.49$, $SD=.94$). This study found learning at home ($M= 4.41$, $SD=.68$), and communication ($M= 4.39$, $SD=.67$) to be the highest dimensions and decision-making ($M=3.89$, $SD=.82$) was the lowest scoring dimension. In this study the dimension high expectations yielded a low Cronbach’s alpha and the results could not be assumed reliable. Results from the pilot study yielded a low reliability score for parenting, and volunteering, which were omitted from the survey.

Brofenbrenner’s ecological systems theory as described in Table 1 identifies the microsystem as a factor in a child’s environment that affects his or her life directly. The microsystem can be compared to learning at home and communication dimensions from Epstein’s framework. The gist of this comparison relies heavily on the parents and the school behaving as partners in creating productive learning experiences for the student; communication
is the avenue that connects, builds, and fosters this partnership. Therefore, when comparing the findings from Ihmeideh et al. (2018) to this study, the research suggests that schools would benefit from creating parent involvement activities that support learning at home and communication between family and school. Schools, to include military-affiliated ones, should lessen the amount of parent involvement activities that support the dimensions, parenting, volunteering, and decision-making. These dimensions are not as effective or preferred by military parents.

Research conducted by Stitt & Brooks (2014) also supports learning at home. Their research describes how the sample, five working mothers, turned their homes into learning laboratories to further enhance the curriculum taught in schools. The mothers expressed a concern that the curriculum taught at school was packed with information to be used for standardized testing purposes (Stitt & Brooks, 2014). This study supports the Stitt & Brooks study in that learning at home is one of the dimensions that parents deemed beneficial. Although there were no significant differences in the mean scores, learning at home had one of the highest mean scores out of the dimensions. Based on the conclusion from Stitt & Brooks and this study, military-affiliated schools should invest in a curriculum that offers parents supplemental activities that support their child’s ability to think logically, solve real world problems, and learn from their environment.

**RQ2:** Is there a difference in the effective parent involvement activities mean scores for parents with students in third through fifth grades and parents with students in the kindergarten through second grade as measured by five dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey?
The results from this study indicate there is no significant difference in effective parent involvement perceptions for military parents with children in upper and lower grade levels. In conjunction with the research questions above stating that schools should send supplemental parent involvement activities home for parents to do with their child, studies suggest that complex learning skills are what prevent parents from becoming involved in this perspective. As children progress through the grades, parents become less involved in their child’s education due to the challenge the activities present (Goodall 2013; Hill & Taylor, 2004; Hornby, 2011; Wei et al., 2019; Williams & Sanchez, 2012). School personnel should continue to find ways to get parents involved with their child’s education. Therefore, an obvious solution would be for schools to be more creative in how they approach the strategy of equipping parents with the knowledge base or steps needed to provide assistance to their child with home-based supplemental activities. An example would be for the school personnel to provide parents with detailed instructions that accompany homework assignments. Support in this construct can produce the expected outcome: better student academic achievement by way of more parent involvement.

In looking at the principle of the matter, parents who experience difficulty with assisting their child with schoolwork due to rigorous or complex skills should welcome the notion of volunteering, as a classroom tutor or assistant, to learn the curriculum. Unfortunately, the research states that parents do not perceive school-based activities, such as volunteering, as highly effective. Hampden-Thompson and Galindo (2017) reported that low-income families are less likely to participate in parent involvement activities because of parents working multiple jobs and the lack of resources and time. It is unrealistic to expect parents to participate in school-based parent involvement activities that take time away from their jobs (Christianakis,
However, the expectation of teachers is for parents to be helpers in the classroom, assist students with completing assignments, and clean and organize supplies (Christianakis, 2011). Clearly, there exists a difference in perception and expectations. To mesh the disjointed perceptions, schools can utilize communication to get parents involved, especially through social media. Schools can provide homework assistance such as notes, tutoring videos, and classroom discussion boards for parents to access at their leisure. Using social media as a strategy does not assist with the physical presence of the parent helping with the school-based activities, but it does help with increasing student academic achievement. Using online platforms will result in parents and teachers building relationships and attending to student needs.

The findings from this study support the concept that the lack of parent involvement schools experience is not because the activities are not effective. Military parents do not perceive effective parent involvement significantly different according to rank. Effective parent involvement activities for military parents who have children in upper or lower grades do not differ significantly across dimensions either. Therefore, the cause for the lack of parent involvement exists elsewhere. Although this study was not designed to identify the exact cause for the decrease in parent involvement activities nor define the term, it does support learning at home and communication as dimensions that involve parents in their child’s education. The findings from this study indicate that schools should investigate other factors that may play a role alleviating the undisclosed barriers that prevent military parents from being active in their child’s education. The utilization of social media and online platforms can be a springboard for equipping parents with the necessary skills to help their children with schoolwork, supplemental curriculum activities, and deliberate communication with the school.
Implications

The results of this study informed the researcher that rank has no factor in the perception of parent involvement. Therefore, elementary school personnel who desire to increase the amount of parent involvement should not rely on whether the soldier is enlisted or an officer. This finding does not coincide with a recent study; Hampden-Thompson and Galindo (2017) reported that low-income families are less likely to participate in parent involvement activities because of parents’ working multiple jobs and the lack of resources and time. Although enlisted soldiers earn less income than their officer counterparts, the lack of parent involvement in military-affiliated schools is not due to the soldier’s rank.

In addition, the lack of parent involvement for soldiers is not due to the grade of their child. A decrease in parent involvement occurs upon entry into elementary school (Powell et al., 2012). By the time the student is in middle or high school, parent involvement is little to none. It is logical to determine, based upon the results of this study, that elementary personnel who desire to increase the amount of parent involvement should consider other factors. In summary, the results of this study contribute to the research in that decrease or lack on parent involvement for soldiers could be possibly related to military duties and assignments.

Limitations

The researcher identified two limitations to this study. First, the local school district would only approve for the researcher to conduct the study via school newsletter; this was a major limitation. Communicating with parents with school newsletters is a parent involvement activity. Due to the lack of parent involvement the local school district is experiencing, the study had a lengthy timeline. Nevertheless, the action exemplified sending information home by the student in paper form is not as effective as communicating school news through social media
postings or smart phone technology. Secondly, having access to military soldiers was problematic. Due to the long work hours and deployments, access to soldiers was limited. The researcher learned by chance where soldiers populated at specific times of the day. Due to military regulations, the researcher mostly used public places outside the installation to request for soldiers to complete the survey. Results of this study cannot be generalized beyond this population.

**Recommendations for Future Studies**

1. Future researchers can study elementary school parent involvement programs to determine whether the lack of parent involvement is due to a communication issue or some other factor.

2. Research can be conducted on the effects of parent involvement for secondary education student academic achievement by conducting qualitative research using case studies and interviews.
REFERENCES


Contemporary Family Therapy, 37, 321–363.


Herford, W. H. (1916). *Student’s Froebel: Adapted from die menschenerziehung of F. Froebel*. 
London: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, Limited.

Herrell, P. O. (2011). *Parental involvement: Parent perceptions and teacher perceptions* 
(Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database (UMI 3462048)

and parent involvement in preschool programs. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 


achievement: Pragmatics and issues. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 13*(4), 
161–164.

Hoover-Dempsey, K., Walker, J., Sandler, H., Whetsel, D., Green, C., Wilkins, A., & Closson, 


doi:10.1080/09575146.2018.1438374


doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2015.04.001


APPENDICES

Appendix A: Approval Email from Dr. Jackson

Approval Email from Dr. Jackson

August 26, 2017 at 5:42

Your research sounds very interesting and promising. You are more than welcome to use my survey instrument and any other items from my dissertation. Throughout the years, I've had several people use my instrument as part of their research, but I don't know how much expansion of my work they were doing versus going in a different direction. I wish you well in your endeavor, and I hope Liberty is as good to you as it was to me. Good luck!

Tim Jackson, Ed.D.
Principal
Elementary School D

"The only thing that interferes with my learning is my education."---Albert Einstein

Additional correspondence with Dr. Tim Wright
April 21, 2019 at 3:25

Dr. Wright,

In order to progress on my dissertation journey, I need permission to place a copy of your instrument, Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions Survey, in my dissertation. I have done some modifications because of the design of my research. Will you grant me permission to publish your instrument in my paper? Thank you.

Tabatha Ware
Liberty University Dissertation Candidate

April 21, 2019 at 3:26

Absolutely! I hope all goes well for you in your work. Have a blessed Easter!

Tim Jackson, Ed.D.
Principal
Elementary School D

"The only thing that interferes with my learning is my education."---Albert Einstein
Appendix B: Recruitment Letter for Parents

April 9, 2019

Dear Military Parent,

I am in the beginning stages of conducting research at Liberty University. The purpose of this research is to learn the difference between what officers and enlisted soldiers perceive as parent involvement. The survey was used to learn what parent involvement activities are more preferred by military parents whose children are in kindergarten through fifth grades. This study will use a survey called Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions (adapted from Joyce Epstein, 2002). By learning what activities attract parents with children in kindergarten and second grade can lay the foundation for building a working relationship between military parents and the school.

Please complete the survey that was enclosed in the envelope with this cover letter. It is extremely important for the service member to complete the survey because the data collected pertains to their perception of effective parent involvement. In addition, please complete the demographic information located on the survey as well. In the event you have multiple children and have different perceptions, please complete an additional survey. This completion of the survey should take approximately 15 minutes. A Spanish version of the survey is available upon request.

I am very appreciative of your time in completing this survey. Your responses to these questions was kept confidential. Please send the fully completed survey back in the envelope. You may send it back to your child’s teacher within 2 weeks. Another option is to take the envelope to the collection box located in the office. If you have any questions please contact me. You may contact me at teware@liberty.edu. I look forward to learning what military parents perceive as parent involvement.

Sincerely,

Tabatha Ware, Ed. S.
Dissertation Candidate of Liberty University
1971 University Blvd.
Lynchburg, VA 24515
Estimados padres militares de servicio activo,

Como estudiante de posgrado en la escuela de Educación de Liberty University, estoy llevando a cabo investigaciones como un requisito para un grado de doctorado. El propósito de esta investigación es investigar la diferencia en la percepción de la participación efectiva de los padres de los oficiales y soldados alistados. Además, este estudio también investigará la percepción de la efectividad de las actividades de participación de padres para los padres militares que tienen hijos en los grados superior e inferior.

Si usted tiene 18 años de edad o más, es un padre militar de servicio activo, y está dispuesto a participar en este estudio, se le pedirá que complete una encuesta anónima. La encuesta debe tomar aproximadamente de 15 a 20 minutos para completarse. Su participación será completamente anónima y no se recopilará información personal de identificación. Si necesita una versión en Español de la encuesta, por favor pregunte al maestro de aula.

Para participar, por favor complete la encuesta adjunta y devuelva la encuesta en el sobre sellado al maestro de su hijo, o puede tomar personalmente el sobre a la caja de recolección ubicada en la oficina. Las encuestas se recogerán en el transcurso de dos semanas.

Se adjunta un documento de consentimiento a esta carta, pero no necesita ser firmado y devuelto. Este documento de consentimiento describe los antecedentes del estudio y las preguntas de investigación, que fundamentan el estudio. El documento de consentimiento contiene información sobre los procedimientos, riesgos y beneficios del estudio. Estoy muy agradecido de su tiempo en completar esta encuesta. Si tiene alguna pregunta, por favor comuníquese conmigo a teware@liberty.edu. Estoy ansiosa por aprender lo que los padres militares perciben como participación de los padres, y encontrar maneras de involucrarlos en la educación de sus hijos.

Atentamente,

Tabatha Ware, Ed. S.
Candidato Disertación de Liberty University
1971 University Blvd.
Lynchburg, VA 24515
Appendix D: Consent Form for Parents

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use from 9/17/2018 to -- Protocol # 3312.091718

INFORMED CONSENT
PERCEPTIONS OF PARENT INVOLVEMENT OF MILITARY PARENTS WITH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS Tabatha Ware
Liberty University
Education Leadership/School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study on perceptions of effective parent involvement for active duty military parents. This study will identify parent involvement activities parents perceive as effective within seven dimensions. You were selected as a possible participant because you are 18 years or older, an active duty military parent, and are willing to participate in this study. Be sure to read this document and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Tabatha Ware, a doctoral candidate in the School of Education at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to investigate the difference in perception of effective parent involvement of officers and enlisted soldiers. In addition, this study will also investigate the perception of the effectiveness of parent involvement activities for military parents who have students in upper and lower grades. The parent involvement activities are designed around seven dimensions; parenting, communication, learning at home, parent expectations, collaboration, decision-making, and volunteering. The research questions are listed below.

1. Is there a difference in the effective parent involvement activities mean scores between officers and enlisted soldiers who have children enrolled in a military affiliated public school as measured by the 5 dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey?

2. Is there a difference in the effective parent involvement activities mean scores for parents with students in grades third through fifth and parents with students in the kindergarten through second grade as measured by the 5 dimensions of the Effective Parent Involvement: Parent and Teacher Perceptions survey?

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following:

1. Complete the anonymous survey and return it to the teacher. (15–20 minutes)
**Risks:** The risks involved in this study are minimal, which are equal to those experienced in every day life.

**Benefits:** Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from participating in this study. Benefits to society include learning what military parents perceive as parent involvement. Investigating what military parents perceive as effective parent involvement may assist schools in creating more activities where parents can be involved and promoting student academic achievement. This study can contribute to existing research by helping schools identify various methods and unique ways to keep them involved in their child’s education while serving our country. Therefore, the participants in this study should not expect to receive any direct benefits.

**Confidentiality:** The records of this study was kept private. The data was anonymous. No identifying information was collected. Data was uploaded and stored on a password-protected computer. Research records was stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records. After the mandated time of three years, the data was deleted and the survey forms was shredded and disposed of properly.

**Voluntary Nature of the Study:** Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time, prior to submitting the survey, without affecting those relationships.

**How to Withdraw from the Study:** If you choose to withdraw from the study, please discard your study materials prior to returning them to your child’s teacher. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

**Contacts and Questions:** The researcher conducting this study is Tabatha Ware. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact her at teware@liberty.edu. You may also contact the researcher’s faculty chair, Dr. Jessica Talada, at jvanderpool@liberty.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, you are encouraged to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

**Statement of Consent:** I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.
Appendix E: Consent Form for Parents (Spanish)

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use from 9/17/2018 to -- Protocol # 3312.091718

FORMULARIO DEL CONSENTIMIENTO
PERCEPCIONES DE LA PARTICIPACIÓN DE LOS PADRES PADRES MILITARES CON ESTUDIANTES DE LA ESCUELA PRIMARIA Tabatha Ware
Universidad Liberty
Liderazgo en Educación/Escuela de educación

Usted está invitado a participar en un estudio investigatorio sobre la percepción de participación efectiva de padres, militares en servicio activo. Este estudio identificará las actividades de participación de parte de los padres en cuales los padres perciben, dentro de siete deminiciones, que son eficientes. Usted fue seleccionado como posible participante porque usted tiene 18 años o más en edad, eres un padre militar en servicio activo, y está dispuesto a participar en este estudio. Asegúrese de leer este documento y hacer cualquier pregunta que tenga antes de aceptar participar en el estudio.

Tabatha Ware, un candidato de estudios doctorado de la escuela de Educación de Liberty University, está llevando a cabo este estudio.

Información de antecedentes: El propósito de este estudio es investigar la diferencia entre la percepción de la participación efectiva de los padres de los oficiales y de los soldados alistados. Además, este estudio también investigará la percepción de la efectividad de las actividades de participación de padres de familia en los padres militares que tienen estudiantes en los grados superiores e inferiores. Las actividades de participación de los padres fueron diseñados alrededor de siete dimensiones; crianza, comunicación, aprendizaje en casa, expectativas de los padres, colaboración, toma de decisiones y voluntariado. Las preguntas de investigación se enumeran a continuación.

1. ¿hay una diferencia en las actividades efectivas de participación de los padres en puntuaciones medias entre oficiales y soldados alistados que tienen hijos matriculados en una escuela pública afiliada militar, medido por las 7 dimensiones de la participación efectiva de los padres: padres y la encuesta de percepciones del maestro?

2. ¿existe una diferencia en las actividades efectivas de participación de los padres en puntuaciones medias para padres con estudiantes en los grados tercero a quinto y padres con estudiantes en el kindergarten hasta el segundo grado como medidos por las 7 dimensiones del padre efectivo Implicación: ¿encuesta de percepciones de padres y maestros?
Procedimientos: Si usted está de acuerdo en estar en este estudio, por favor haga lo siguiente:
1. Complete la encuesta anónima y devuélvala al maestro. (15–20 minutos)

Riesgos: Los riesgos involucrados en este estudio son mínimos, que son iguales a los que se experimentan en la vida diaria.

Beneficios: Los participantes no deben esperar recibir un beneficio directo de participar en este estudio. Los beneficios para la sociedad incluyen aprender lo que los padres militares perciben como participación de los padres. Investigar lo que los padres militares perciben como una participación efectiva de los padres que puede ayudar a las escuelas a crear más actividades donde los padres pueden participar y promover el logro académico estudiantil.

Este estudio puede contribuir a la investigación existente ayudando a las escuelas a identificar diversos métodos y maneras únicas de mantenerlos involucrados en la educación de sus hijos mientras sirven a nuestro país. Por lo tanto, los participantes en este estudio no deben esperar recibir ningún beneficio directo.

Confidencialidad: Los registros de este estudio serán mantenidos en privado. Los datos serán anónimos. No se recopilará información de identificación. Los datos se cargarán y se almacenarán en un equipo protegido con contraseña. Después de tres años de mandato, los datos serán borrados y los formularios de la encuesta serán triturados y eliminados adecuadamente.

Carácter voluntario del estudio: La participación en este estudio es voluntaria. Su decisión de participar o no no afectará sus relaciones actuales o futuras con Liberty University. Si usted decide participar, usted es libre de hacer cualquier pregunta o retirarse en cualquier momento, antes de enviar la encuesta, sin afectar esas relaciones.

Cómo retirarse del estudio: Si usted decide retirarse del estudio, por favor descarte sus materiales de estudio antes de devolverlos al maestro de su hijo. Sus respuestas no se registrarán ni se incluirán en el estudio.

Contactos y preguntas: La investigadora que realizará este estudio es Tabatha Ware. Puede hacer cualquier pregunta que tenga ahora. Si usted tiene preguntas más tarde, se le anima a ponerse en contacto con ella en teware@liberty.edu. También puede ponerse en contacto con la Presidenta de la Facultad de investigación, la doctora Jessica Talada, a jvanderpool@liberty.edu.

Si usted tiene alguna pregunta o preocupación con respecto a este estudio y le gustaría hablar con alguien que no sea la investigadora, se le anima a ponerse en contacto con el Consejo de revisión institucional, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, va 24515 o correo electrónico a IRB@liberty.edu. Por favor notifíque a la investigadora si usted desea una copia de esta información para sus expedientes.

Por favor notifique al investigador si usted desea una copia de esta información para sus expedientes.
Declaración de consentimiento: He leído y entendido la información anterior. He hecho preguntas y he recibido respuestas. Consiento en participar en el estudio.
Appendix F: Boxplots for the Parent Involvement Dimensions

RANK BOXPLOTS

COMM

ENLISTED

OFFICER

HOME

ENLISTED

OFFICER
GRADE LEVEL BOXPLOTS
Appendix G: Scatterplots for the Parent Involvement Dimensions