Supervisors’ Attitudes toward Family Involvement in Kuwait Middle Schools

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This quantitative descriptive study investigated the attitudes of educational supervisors (i.e., head teachers) in Kuwaiti middle schools toward the involvement of families in the education of their adolescent children. Joyce Epstein’s model of family involvement (1996c) provided the theoretical framework. A survey instrument, *Supervisor’s Attitudes toward Family Involvement in Kuwait Middle Schools*, was adapted and translated into the Arabic language to collect data from male and female Kuwaiti middle schools supervisors in the six school districts.

As anticipated, the results of this study identified (a) any significant differences, by gender and district, in attitudes about family involvement among Kuwaiti middle school supervisors; (b) the level of responsibility for encouraging family-school relationships among administrators, teachers, parents, and students; (c) the level of importance of different types of family involvement; (d) the barriers preventing families from being more involved in their children's middle schools in Kuwait; and (e) the degree of importance of each type of educational involvement for family participation during their children's middle school years.

Independent sample *t*-tests were conducted to compare the mean scores by gender for supervisors’ attitudes. One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district. The results indicated there were no significant differences in supervisors’ attitudes by geographical district. There were some significant differences in supervisors’ attitudes toward family involvement by gender. These findings might be related to traditional culture that affects women in Arabic societies, including the Kuwaiti community.

Frequency distributions were calculated to determine the participants’ responses to the subsequent research questions. The results indicated that administrators and families were perceived as more responsible for initiating family involvement than supervisors, teachers, and students. All six types of family involvement in Epstein’s model (1996c) were important to the supervisors. Lack of time was a serious barrier to family involvement for both teachers and parents and the perceived problem of parent-adolescent conflict during later childhood was an additional barrier. Providing a home environment that supported learning, regular communication with teachers and administrators, and assisting students at home were considered to be highly important.
DEDICATION

To my first instructor, my father
To the soul of my mother in her grave
To my wife Latifah
To my daughters (Aishah, Beebee, and Heind)
To my brothers and sisters
To Dr. Jasem Alhamdan, and Dr. Fahad Alkhezzi
To my country which gave me this valuable opportunity to earn my Ph.D.
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If I am going to say that I have achieved any success in my life, I must say that the credit belongs to ALLAH. He always supports me in every breath and difficulty.

The ideas for this dissertation have been developed during many days of conversation with my advisor Dr. Jean Crockett; her thinking vastly improved my own understanding of mentoring. For this help I am humbly grateful. This work surely could not have been completed without her guidance, advice, and patience.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Administrators, parents, teachers, and even students themselves have long been aware that parental involvement is crucial to young children’s success during the early years of schooling. Unfortunately, that involvement seems to diminish as children approach adolescence (Croninger & Lee, 2001; Epstein, 1996c). However, parents’ involvement must continue through high school in order to ensure their children’s successful completion of the required schooling (MacNeill, 2003). These findings highlight the importance of finding ways to encourage parents to remain involved in their children’s education through middle and high schools and provide the impetus to find out why their involvement declines as their children grow older. Because of the pivotal position of the middle school in a child’s education, it is important to focus on the role administrators and staff play in keeping parents engaged in ensuring the academic success of their children. In the middle schools in Kuwait, supervisors (or head teachers) are the liaisons between the school and parents and, therefore, key to the effort to keep parents involved in their children’s education during the middle school years.

Middle Schools in Kuwait

Although the government of Kuwait took control of education in 1939, it was not until the 1960s that many changes were made to modernize the school system (Kuwait Information Office, 2004). This happened, because the Kuwait Constitution, which was created in 1962, made education a basic right of all citizens and stipulated that the state of Kuwait must assure and promote education. In 2004, changes consisting of the establishment of elementary, middle and high school grade levels (Al-Watan Newspaper, 2004) were made to the schools. As in the United States (U.S.), children 6-10 years old attend elementary schools that have five grade levels (1-5). Children ages 11-14 years attend middle schools that have four grade levels (6-9). Children 15-17 years old attend high schools that have three grade levels (10-12). In the state of Kuwait, approximately 97,640 students are enrolled in 166 middle schools, which are divided into separate schools for boys and girls. These middle schools, which are distributed throughout the six school districts, are staffed by 5,460 female teachers, 4,431 male teachers, and 2,201 supervisors (Al-Thafire, 2004).

Many of the students in these middle schools experience a number of problems. Examples include:
1. a high drop-out rate, 15% for boys, who drop out of middle school to take jobs, usually in the government and 12% for girls, who drop out to stay home or marry, depending on the family culture;
2. absenteeism (9% for boys and 11% for girls), which is a big problem for both families and middle schools; and
3. poor grades, which persist even though the Ministry of Education and teachers’ organizations have established after school programs (Ministry of Education, 2004; Education College, 2002; and Al-Kandari, 2002), and which affect the family’s budget because parents try to hire private teachers to improve their children’s grades.
In addition, there are behavioral problems (Al-Husaini, 2004), as well as potential health problems. Staff of the Middle-East and North Africa (MNA, 2001) reported that 18% of Kuwaiti middle schools students, both boys and girls, smoke cigarettes.

Background of the Study

Several researchers have addressed the problems of students’ academic outcomes and behavior in regard to the Kuwaiti middle schools. Writing about the needs and problems of adolescent middle school students, Muhammad and Morsi (2000) have emphasized that there is a need to study the relationship between family and schools and identify ways to strengthen this relationship, as well as people who can serve as leaders, in order to help students improve their academic skills and demonstrate more positive behaviors. Al-Husaini (2004) and Al-Kathwari (2002) have reported that there is a need to study family involvement in the Kuwaiti schools to help students, parents, teachers, and administrators be more successful in reaching their objectives. After examining the issue of violence among male public high school students in Kuwait, Al-Husaini (2004) has strongly recommended that better relationships should be established between the staff of the Kuwaiti schools and the parents of the students. In addition, he argued that Kuwaiti families should be more involved with their children in order to improve both their behavior and academic skills. Investigating the important relationship between the difficulties of learning and behavior problems of elementary and middle school students in Kuwait, Al- Kathwari (2002) has argued that it is the responsibility of supervisors in Kuwait middle schools to help the teachers in their schools to be more effective in their jobs. Supervisors share leadership with the principals and assistant principals as part of the Kuwaiti school culture (Ministry of Education, 2004).

Examining the supervisor’s mission in schools, Alasadi and Ebrahim (2003) have addressed the role that teachers should assume in order to help families improve their children's academic skills and behaviors more effectively. They identified several strategies to bridge the gap between families and teachers:

1. Are there significant differences, by gender and district, in attitudes about family involvement among Kuwaiti middle school supervisors?
2. School principals and supervisors, who are the executive leaders in the school community, should invite families to be a part of the effort to improve students’ academic skills. There are several methods they can utilize to contact families: (a) send letters to the students’ homes, (b) call the parents directly at home, (c) ask members of social organizations to help school staff contact the families and encourage them to play active roles in the schools, and (d) use different types of media.
3. Supervisors can ask the families to identify the best times, ways, and places to be involved with school communities, and they can determine what kind of activities would be interesting for the parents.
4. The supervisors responsible for the school schedule should find time for teachers to work, meet, and be active with families during the school day. In addition, they should encourage both parents and teachers to become involved with activities and workshops after school or on the weekends.
Statement of the Problem

Because the emphasis on parental involvement in school has been mainly on very young students (i.e., primary and elementary levels), there is little research to review on the topic of parental involvement with their children in middle and high schools (Croninger & Lee, 2001; Epstein, 1986, as cited in MacNeill, 2003). However, some researchers (Becker & Epstein, 1982; Brough & Irvin, 2001; Dauber & Epstein, 1993; Epstein & Dauber, 1991; National Middle School Association, 2000; Stevenson & Baker, 1987) have examined family involvement as children progress beyond the elementary level. In general, what these studies have revealed is that there is a decline in parental involvement at each grade level.

In order to examine the issue of parental involvement with their children in middle schools in Kuwait, the author of this study has attempted to determine the perceptions and opinions of supervisors (i.e., head teachers) toward parents’ involvement with their adolescent children as well as the roles, efficacy, and opportunities for parental involvement in schools (Epstein, 1996b; Gettinger & Guetschow, 1998; Smith, 2002). The supervisors’ viewpoint was chosen because of their pivotal responsibilities in the schools.

In the Kuwait school system, a teacher can attain the position of supervisor if he or she receives good evaluation reports for 10-12 years (Evaluation Department, Ministry of Education, 2002). The responsibilities of middle school supervisors cover some areas of work in the school under the principal’s authority. These areas include (a) developing curriculum, (b) ensuring that the objective of the curriculum is reached, (c) selecting and hiring the teachers, (d) overseeing the maintenance of the learning facility, (e) preparing the learning materials for all subjects and knowing what is available, (f) organizing and presenting workshops, (g) helping the new teachers, (h) improving social relationships in the school community, (h) sharing the educational experiences with those who are involved in the education process, and (i) evaluating the education processes and the quality of the teachers’ work (Ministry of Education, 2004b). The supervisors report to the principals about the status of these areas, and they share their opinions in order to ensure that the educational process is effective during the school year (Evaluation Department, Ministry of Education, 2002b).

This study has focused on the role supervisors play in the Kuwaiti middle school system, with particular attention being given to how they can improve the relationship between families and schools in order to improve students’ academic achievement and behavior. Supervisors were asked to respond to the study questionnaire, which was designed to assess their perceptions toward family involvement in Kuwait middle schools.

The needs and problems of adolescent middle school students in Kuwait, the poor relationship between middle school staff and parents, and the strong role that supervisors have in the Kuwaiti middle schools were the impetus for this current study of the supervisors’ perceptions of parental involvement. This study was the first to focus on family involvement in Kuwait schools. In addition, it was the first step toward an investigation of all types of family involvement in the Kuwait schools at all levels.
Importance of the Study

Several studies (Clark & Clark, 1994; Plank & Jordan, 1997; Smith, 2002) have shown that family involvement impacts not only the academic achievement of students, but also their school attendance and graduation, as well as college matriculation. Although family involvement impacts children at all levels, much of the research has focused on the lower school grades (Epstein, 1985, as cited in MacNeill, 2003; Rutherford & Billig, 1995b) and the role of parents or teachers or parents and teachers play in a child’s successful learning. Therefore, the present study is important, because of the role supervisors or head teachers in Kuwait play in eliciting parental involvement. In Kuwait, the key to understanding the decline of the involvement of parents in the education of their children attending middle school lay in gathering and assessing the opinions of supervisors whose responsibilities include improving relationships in the school community. Their perceptions were an important part of determining why parental involvement declined when children enter middle school and what needed to be done to reverse this decline.

Purpose of the Study

In order to address the lack of family involvement in middle schools in the state of Kuwait, this researcher has focused on the perceptions of the supervisors about this issue. This study was conducted in the Kuwait middle schools, which are distributed throughout the six school districts in the state of Kuwait. The purpose of this study was to investigate the attitudes of Kuwaiti middle school supervisors toward family involvement in the education of adolescents. It was anticipated that the findings from this study would identify the level of responsibility for encouraging family-school relationships among administrators, teachers, parents, and students. Knowledge of the supervisors' attitudes has identified the level of importance of different types of family involvement. Also, it was possible to identify the important barriers that prevent families from being more involved in their children's middle schools in Kuwait. In addition, it was possible to identify the important types of educational involvement which families participate in during their children' middle school years.

Research Questions

Epstein (1996c) conceptualized six types of family involvement during the middle school years: (a) parenting, (b) communicating, (c) volunteering, (d) learning at home, (e) decision making, and (f) collaborating with the community. When these types of involvement are in place, strong and effective relationships between family and school can be built to improve the students' academic outcomes and behaviors. Therefore, the following questions, which are based on Epstein’s six types of family involvement and other factors relevant to the culture of Kuwait schools, guided the investigation conducted in this study regarding family involvement in their child’s middle school education:

1. Do the gender of the supervisor and the school district where he or she works make significant differences in attitudes about family involvement among Kuwaiti middle school supervisors?
2. At what level of responsibility (e.g., administrators, supervisors, families, teachers, and students) is family involvement initiated in Kuwait middle schools?

3. According to supervisors, what is the relative importance of each type of family involvement that Kuwait’s middle schools should primarily focus on practicing (parenting, home learning, decision making and so forth)?

4. What barriers to family involvement do supervisors perceive as challenges?

5. According to supervisors, what is the degree of importance for each type of involvement in regard to family participation in a child’s middle school years?

Brief Overview of the Methods

This study was conducted using quantitative descriptive methods. A survey was used to collect data from the supervisors in Kuwaiti middle schools. SPSS 11.0™ was used to analyze the difference in frequency of the participants’ responses to questions concerning family involvement, and t tests were run to investigate the difference between the supervisors’ attitudes by gender. One-way ANOVA was used to investigate the difference between supervisors’ attitudes by geographical districts, toward family involvement with Kuwait middle school students.

Assumptions and Limitations of the Study

There are three basic assumptions for this study:
1. Kuwaiti middle school supervisors (i.e., head teachers) are expert educators with between 12-15 years of teaching experience.
2. These supervisors have an influence on the education and development of middle school students.
3. The perceptions and behaviors of supervisors have an influence on family involvement during the middle school years.

This study was limited to an investigation of family involvement as perceived by middle school supervisors in Kuwait. This study was conducted using a random sample of supervisors employed in the middle schools of Kuwait’s six school districts. There are approximately 2,200 supervisors; 1,043 are males who work in the boys’ schools, and 1,160 are females who work in the girls’ schools. The focus of the study was on these supervisors’ perceptions about family involvement. Their responses have made it possible to identify which type of family involvement was more important and compare it with Epstein’s (1996c) model. Furthermore, the findings have helped this researcher identify who should be responsible to build the relationship between the family and middle school. The findings from this study are expected to guide the Ministry of Education to understand which kinds of obstacles to the relationship between family and middle schools depend on the supervisors’ perceptions; finally, based on the supervisors’ perceptions, it has been possible to gain a better understanding of the important types of family involvement that are needed in the Kuwait middle schools.

Significance of the Study

The issue of family involvement in schools has not been explored previously in Kuwait. The findings from this study can be used by the Kuwait Ministry of Education as
a guide to gaining a better understanding of the importance of family involvement to supervisors in middle schools and to appreciate the barriers they have encountered in initiating and facilitating this involvement. The results of this study have also provided a better understanding of the important types of family involvement that are needed in the Kuwait middle schools.

In addition, the findings from this study have helped to universalize Epstein's model (1996c) in the Gulf region countries. This, in turn, could benefit families and schools by bettering the understanding of the relationships that are necessary to help the students in the Gulf region countries to improve their grades and behavior, and ultimately their success in school.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the background supporting a study of the supervisor’s attitudes toward family involvement in the middle schools in Kuwait and the statement of the problem and purpose of the study. Chapter 2 provides the review of the literature that addresses the issue of parent involvement in schools. Chapter 3 gives in detail the methods used to conduct this study. Chapter 4 presents the results of the study. Finally, Chapter 5 provides a detailed discussion of the results of the survey, as well as the conclusions drawn from the study and recommendations for future studies.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this study has been to investigate and assess the perceptions of Kuwait’s middle school supervisors (also known as head teachers) toward family and/or parental involvement with their children in order to identify ways of improving students’ academic outcomes as well as encouraging positive behavior in school. The topics that are presented in this review of literature address (a) families and middle school involvement, (b) background of families’ involvement with schools, (c) the factors of family involvement, and (d) supporting studies. Although this study focused on Kuwaiti supervisors as facilitators of family involvement, most of the relevant literature on this subject has come out of research carried out in the U.S.

Families and Middle School Involvement

Several U.S. studies are relevant to the Kuwaiti middle school supervisors’ responsibilities. Rutherford and Billing (1995b), for example, have proposed eight conditions that need to be addressed to tailor middle school programs to meet the needs of both students and their families: (a) turn challenges into opportunities for involvement, (b) build relationships (c) share responsibility and decision making about the curriculum with families and students, (d) create approaches for family and community involvement, (e) acknowledge that school administrators need to provide professional development programs for teachers so that they can use the best family involvement practices, (f) help families to create the kind of home environment in which student success is a valued goal, and (g) use the community as a resource that will lead to increased participation in their schools. Of these conditions, (a), (b), and (d) provide a more detailed description of what the Kuwaiti middle school supervisors responsibilities might be to improve social relationships, including with parents, in the school community. Condition (c) suggests that the parents be included in developing the curriculum, another responsibility of Kuwaiti supervisors. And conditions (f) and (g) suggest ways the Kuwaiti middle school supervisors might share educational experiences with those, including parents, who are stakeholders, another of their responsibilities. Such a daunting challenge requires excellent communication among all the stakeholders (schools, parents, and communities).

Background of Families’ Involvement with Schools

Over the last 30 years, a number of researchers (Bloom, 1964; Comer, 1987; Davies, 1988, 1993; Epstein & Dauber, 1991; Galen, 1991; Gettinger & Guetschow, 1998; Goodsen, et al., 1991; Greenberg, 1989; Lopez, 2002; Philipsen, 1998; Rich, 1985) have conducted studies that provide a background of findings supporting the importance of involving families with their children’s schools. In general, these studies have demonstrated a direct positive correlation between student achievement and family involvement in three areas: (a) an increase in grades and standardized test scores; (b) an increase in high school attendance; and (c) a reduced drop out rate, despite ethnicity, income levels, or other variables. Even though the increase in high school attendance is out of the school level of this study, it is important to note, because poor attendance is a
problem in Kuwaiti middle schools, which suggests more parental involvement is needed at a lower level in Kuwait. Finally, these studies have shown that the more involved the family became, the greater the benefits for both the parents and the schools, as well as the students.

Henderson and Berla (1994) reviewed 66 studies as well as reports, reviews, books, and analyses in order to identify the effects of family involvement on student achievement. They concluded that when school staff supported learning by working with parents, several outcomes occurred: (a) higher test scores as well as higher grades, (b) completion of more homework assignments, (c) improvement in student attendance, (d) improvement in completed homework assignments, (e) decrease in special education placements, (f) improvement in graduation rates, (g) increase in participation in educational programs beyond high school, and (h) improvement in attitudes and behavior. However, according to Henderson and Berla, students’ improvement in attitudes and behavior might have had a positive effect on all of the other factors.

Henderson and Berla (1994) identified six major themes in the area of family involvement and student achievement:

1. When families are included in planning programs and policies, they make important contributions to their children’s achievements, not only in the lower grades, but through high school.
2. When parents are involved at school and at home, there is an increase in student achievement as well as an increase in the number of students who stay in school.
3. Even if a parent is not active, the general student population seems to benefit from other parents’ involvement.
4. The four ways or roles parents can contribute to children’s learning are by being: (a) advocates, (b) teachers, (c) supporters, and (d) decision makers. Epstein (1996c) includes all these roles in her model of six types of parenting, described below.
5. The kind of parent involvement is less important than the amount of variety provided, because there is a degree of correlation between student achievement and the extent of parent involvement.
6. When the members of school, family, and community organizations work together cooperatively, the results for student achievement are the most notable.

In spite of the work that has been done on the issue of parental involvement in schools, the need for more research continues. Jordan, Orozco, and Averett (2001) reviewed and synthesized more than 160 publications, identifying four areas for further research. All four areas were related to the need to define, clarify, identify, and investigate the connection, outcomes, and relationships between schools, families, and communities. They reasoned that these research issues were important to investigate in order to collect and disseminate research-based knowledge so that policymakers, funding agencies, and the like would provide more support for programs that connect families, communities, and schools.

Epstein (1996c) has explored family and community partnerships in middle schools and cited the position paper of the National Middle School Association (1991), titled “This We Believe.” To move from beliefs to action, she addressed three questions:
1. What is a comprehensive program of school-family-community connections in the middle grades?
2. How do family and community partnerships link with the other elements of an effective middle level school?
3. How can schools answer the call for action to develop and maintain productive programs of partnerships? (p. 43)

Epstein (1996c) has developed a framework of six types of involvement that constitutes a comprehensive school initiated program of partnership with families of middle school students. The six types of involvement are briefly described below:

1. **Type 1, Parenting**: this involves practices that assist families with their parenting skills and help them to understand young adolescent development, as well as to create home conditions that support learning at every grade and age level. A middle school can promote this type of involvement through workshops, summaries of important information, and teacher designed activities that invite parents to share information about their children with school staff. When information is transmitted both ways, parents and teachers benefit. Parents should become more confident, and teachers will gain a greater understanding of the parents of the children they teach.

2. **Type 2, Communicating**: this involves an ongoing, two-way communication flow from school-to-home and home-to-school through memos, conferences, newsletters, report cards, open house, and the like. A good example of this type of involvement is a conference that encourages parents to communicate with a team of teachers who work with a student or vice versa. The challenge for the school is to make sure the communications are clear and understandable for all families, including those with limited education or non-English backgrounds. Clear communication will lead to an increase in home-school interactions that enable the families to understand the school programs better and can follow their children’s progress.

3. **Type 3, Volunteering**: this is one way parents can become involved in school. The definition of volunteering can be expanded to mean anyone who supports the goals of the school and students’ learning anywhere, anytime, not just during school hours. Teachers can collect information on parents’ and others’ skills, talents, and interests and see when they are available to participate as language interpreters and speakers on careers, or to make phone calls, organize fund raisers, and so forth. Also possible is an after school program in which parents, who are free in the late afternoon, can act as mentors, tutors, coaches, and the like for after school programs that they can create or they can participate in some ongoing activity. The challenges are to make parents feel welcome, work with their schedules, because many work and are not available during the day, provide training, and enable them to contribute in a productive manner. If these challenges are met, the teacher will have a parent support group that interacts meaningfully with the students and other staff members to support school activities and programs that are enjoyable as well as educational.

4. **Type 4, Learning at Home**: this involves coordinating what is taught at school with learning activities in the home as well as decisions about courses and programs. Long term projects, summer home learning packets, and student led
conferences with parents at home to share their goals are just three examples of such activities in addition to helping with homework assignments on a regular basis. The challenges are to implement a regular schedule and create activities that involve the students and parents on a regular basis for both short and long term goal setting in the areas of attendance, achievement, behavior, talent development, and future plans. If these ideas can be carried out and the challenges can be met, the results should be an improvement in academic achievement, a better understanding on the part of parents of what their children are learning, and an awareness on the part of both students and teachers of the family interest in their child’s work.

5. **Type 5, Decision Making:** this means following Epstein’s (1996c) suggestions that school staff include families in the development of goals and visions for the school as well as other policies and decisions that pertain to their children through parent-teacher organizations, special projects, and teams for school improvement. This may involve some training by the teacher as well as the preparation of information packets for the parents so that they can stay informed. One challenge is to have a fair representation of leadership roles of parents from all ethnic, economic and geographic groups. If this is successful, then more families will have input into decisions that affect the quality of their children’s education, and there will be more awareness on the part of the students that their parents have a say in school policies. Also, teachers will increase their understanding of family perspectives on school policies and programs.

6. **Type 6, Collaborating with the Community:** this involves collaboration with resources in the community to strengthen school programs, family practices, and student learning and development. Also, it provides opportunities for students, school staff, and families to contribute their services back to the community. For example, parents can encourage children to participate in after school recreation programs created by the community and perhaps participate with their child as volunteers. Or businesses can conduct education workshops for families at business locations, perhaps in the evening when more parents are available. The challenges are to overcome and solve the problems associated with such programs, including leadership needs and problems about who is in control. Furthermore, the implementation of programs collaborating with the community will help the schools, students, and families learn more about what the community has to offer, and how these offerings can enrich the school programs as well as extracurricular programs.

Epstein (1996c) has enumerated several ways to develop and maintain school-parent partnerships. As with the six types of involvement, middle school administrators and staff are responsible to both students and parents for initiating and maintaining the partnerships. The characteristics of these partnerships include:

1. **A shared vision or mission statement.** Middle school educators must be committed to promoting a safe learning environment in which middle school educators serve as role models and mentors to guide young adolescents to deal with the sometimes conflicting issues related to love of their family as well as their need for independence;

2. **High expectations for all students.** Middle grade students and their families have very high expectations for success both in school and in life choices.
Responsive middle level school educators must incorporate these expectations with the high expectations of the school for all students;

3. **An adult advocate for every student.** The school staff needs to know every family in order to be effective for every student. By assigning a student the same advocate every year, he or she will get to know the family and serve to facilitate two way channels of communication to deal with issues before they escalate;

4. **A positive school climate.** This means a “safe, welcoming, stimulating, and caring environment” (p. 47) of good partnerships so that parents will be ready to volunteer, children ready to learn, and teachers eager to teach; and

5. **Varied teaching and learning approaches.** Families need to be kept abreast of new methods of teaching, problem solving, learning strategies, and so forth, which may be new to the parents, but which they need to know in order to help their children and understand what is going on at school.

One program that Epstein (1996c) suggested was *Teachers Involve Parents in Schoolwork* (TIPS), which is an interactive homework program that promotes and demonstrates what students are learning. There are four factors in TIPS, which like Epstein’s other suggestions, must be school initiated:

1. **Assessments and evaluations that promote learning.** Parents must be kept informed about the various ways their children are tested and assessed, about the report card criteria, and other standards used by the school to determine their child’s progress;

2. **Flexible organizational structures.** Parents need to understand their children’s schedules, team approaches, electives, and other programs used in the middle grades. There must be annual group meetings as well as individual family meetings to ensure that families understand how classes are organized and to allow their input into decisions that affect their children’s middle school experiences and education;

3. **Programs and policies that foster health and safety.** Even though their children are in school, families feel responsible for their children’s safety both in and out of school. Families, including the students, as well as community members need to review and help develop safety policies, dress codes, lunch menus, equipment, and so forth. Also, when a child needs special services, families must be part of the decision making process; and

4. **Comprehensive guidance and support services.** Families need to be informed about guidance programs at schools, including names, telephone numbers and email addresses of their children’s counselors and teachers, as well as other pertinent information.

Epstein (1996c) also called for action. She invited the members of schools, districts, and state departments of education to join the National Network of Partnership 2000 Schools, which helps schools to develop an action approach that addresses the six types of involvement she identified. Membership is free, and membership forms can be obtained from the author, whose address was provided at the end of the article.

In summary, Epstein stated:

School-family-community partnerships must link with all of the elements of effective middle level schools to ensure the families will remain important,
positive influences in their young adolescents’ education as well as in their daily lives (p. 48).

At the center of all Epstein’s suggestions and observations is the need for schools to assume the lead in promoting and maintaining parental involvement in their children’s middle school education. Her call for action has underscored the importance of the role educators must play to fulfill their obligation to ensure the academic success of each child. Her work has highlighted the need for educators to enlist parents and communities as partners in the effort to provide the help and guidance students need to successfully complete middle school. It has also provided an example of the kind of guidance the supervisors of Kuwait’s middle schools need to help them fulfill their obligation to improve social relations in the school community and share educational experiences with those, including parents, who are part of the educational process.

The Culture of Family Involvement in Kuwait

The concept of family involvement in their children’s schools has the support of the members of the Education Committee of the Kuwaiti Parliament. Recognizing the need to provide support to the Kuwaiti families of children developing normally as well as families of children with disabilities (Education Committee, 2003b), the members of the Education Committee support ideas that help to build strong relationships between families and schools. Furthermore, they have recommended that the Kuwaiti Minister of Education encourage school staff to invite parents to be part of their children’s education, because a study they sponsored (Education Committee, 2003a) found that there were roles for families in Kuwait schools, but they were not informed about them. Therefore, the Education Committee has suggested that: (a) there is a need to create ways and times for teachers and families to be together in order to share ideas about improvement in the students’ learning; (b) in-service training programs for principals, assistant principals, supervisors, teachers, and parents be developed to ensure that the students have a positive academic experience and improve their behavior; (c) the Education Ministry needs to fund in-service training programs through the use of government resources; and (d) it is necessary to find a way to research and conduct studies on this subject, as well as all educational issues to ensure the future of all Kuwaiti children.

In addition, the issue of schools providing support to families of school children takes on special significance for families of children with disabilities. Al Kourafi, the head of the Kuwaiti Parliament, emphasized the need to study the affairs of children with disabilities in Kuwait society, when he stated during the parliamentary session: “Supporting the disabled people and their families is our constitutional and legal duty” (Citizens’ Service System, 2003, p. 14). In the moral constitution section of the special education system (Citizens’ Service System), which has four chapters devoted to 20 subjects related to special education affairs, Paragraph 1-4, provides a description of parents’ role in the special education system:

1. Develop ways for effective communication between parents and specialists in which the specialists use simple language to help parents understand what is going on with their children in the school environment.

2. Identify and use the parents’ knowledge and experience to plan, implement, and evaluate the educational services that support the students with disabilities.
3. Support open communication between the specialists and parents, while respecting family privacy and secret information.
4. Facilitate enough opportunities to train the parents by using correct information and effective training methods.
5. Inform the parents about their child’s educational rights, while protecting those rights from any attack.
6. Understand the social and financial levels and cultural differences between the different families with special needs children.
7. Understand the relations between the families and society that have an effect on children’s behavior and their future. (p. 236)

Although this description focuses on interaction between families of children with disabilities and specialists who work with these children, these are the kinds of practices the schools need to adopt for all parents to involve them in the process of their children’s education at all academic levels, but especially at the middle school level where attrition rates are high and attendance and academic performance are poor.

Although Kuwaiti policies acknowledge the need for family involvement in schooling, there is a need to fund activities linking home and school. There is also a need to better understand the practices used in schools. In this study these practices have been examined from the perspective of the Kuwaiti middle school supervisors. In the next section of this chapter, literature from the U.S. and other countries is reviewed to provide a better understanding of the multiple factors impacting family involvement in middle schools.

The Factors of Family Involvement

The involvement of families in the education of their older children may look different, but is no less important than their involvement during the elementary school years. For example, Sanders and Epstein (2000) studied family involvement at two urban middle schools and two urban high schools interviewing 22 educators, parents, and students. These 22 participants emphasized the importance of family participation. While they recognized the need for more independence for adolescents than for elementary aged children, they acknowledged that the older children still needed support and guidance from adults in the home, school, and community.

Cooperation and Communication

Support and guidance necessitate ongoing cooperation and communication among the adults and between students and adults, because youths can experience difficulties in both middle school and high school. Therefore, this is not the time to withdraw support, simply because teachers and families think older students can cope better than younger students (Sanders & Epstein, 2000). For students anticipating attending college or finding jobs after high school, this is a time when support from these adults might be crucial to their future. However, not unexpectedly, professional educators and parents have pointed out that they have limited time, but with the right support from schools and communities, they could build effective partnerships that would benefit high school students. Because students in Kuwait often drop out of middle school to take jobs or marry, cooperation and communication between adults (teachers and parents) and students as well as community
are important factors in assuring the successful completion of the middle school years. The burden of this endeavor falls on the middle school supervisors.

Reviewing 200 studies which focused on programs for Grades K-12, Christenson and Peterson (1998) identified positive influences family, school, and community have on children’s well being. They also found that self-esteem coupled with the motivation to learn was likely to reduce the drop out rate. They examined studies using grades and standardized tests, as well as teacher ratings and school adjustment. School adjustment measures included improvement in school attendance and classroom participation, a decrease in suspensions from school, and perhaps most importantly, an improvement in self-esteem coupled with the motivation to learn.

Although most of the correlations between family, school, or community influences on positive school performance were in the low-moderate to moderate range, rather than in the higher ranges, Christenson and Peterson (1998) concluded that there were six factors at home, in school and within the community which led to improved student performance: (a) structure, (b) standards and expectations, (c)support, (d) relationships, (e) modeling, and (f) opportunity to learn. Each of these factors seemed important in and of itself but together they formed a close network of communication, cooperation, and motivation for every stakeholder to become involved in children’s education.

Benefits for Stakeholders

Earlier work from the 1970s and 1980s also revealed factors related to family involvement in schooling that provided benefits to all the stakeholders—students, parents, school, and community. Bronfenbrenner’s (1974, as cited in Epstein, 1996c) Head Start program report has made the suggestion that when parents became involved in their young children’s education, their involvement in community activities seemed to increase as well (as cited by Epstein, 1996a). Additionally, when the parents became heavily involved in the Head Start program, the parents themselves demonstrated more self-confidence and greater assurance about their own future.

Comer’s (1987) work in low income schools in New Haven has suggested that many parents who became active participants in their children’s education returned to school to finish their own education. Comer thought that the influence of parental involvement in their child’s education had a positive effect on the parents’ own desire for more education. Some of these parents found jobs that they would have had neither the credentials nor the confidence to attempt before their participation. Parents seeking to better themselves as a result of outreach programs designed to engage them in their children’s education benefited not only themselves but also the community. An increase in parental confidence produced an upward, positive spiral.

Although family involvement programs seemed benefit parents and students the most, there are research findings that support the fact that schools benefited as well from parental involvement (Brandt, 1989; Haynes & Comer, 1996; Hornby, 2000; Simon, 2000). Some of these benefits to schools included (a) more positive attitudes toward teachers and schools from the parents, (b) more support for the schools through fundraising, and (c) other parental efforts such as an increase in the donation of time and goods (e.g., computers). Greater parental involvement encouraged teachers to better their teaching skills and increased teachers’ satisfaction in their jobs, all of which contributed
to the improved academic achievement of students. Family proved to be a cost effective way to raise teachers’ morale and improve student academic success. Essential to this kind of outcome was mutual support and respect among parents, teachers, and the school community in general. As the ones responsible for establishing communication and partnerships between schools and the school community (i.e., parents, teachers, and students), supervisors in Kuwaiti middle schools can serve as facilitators for programs that will have a positive impact on schools and teachers as well as students and their parents and the community in general.

Supporting Studies

The studies reviewed above have advocated for family involvement in a child’s education and highlighted the positive results of this involvement to child, teachers, parents, school and community. The studies reviewed in this section provide more support for the importance of family involvement by looking specifically at: (a) professionals’ perceptions (head teachers, counselors, and teachers) toward family involvement; (b) relationships that affect family involvement; and (c) student achievement and social growth.

Professionals’ Perceptions of the Family Involvement

Because of complex cultural issues in Kuwait that all too often make it difficult to collect data that reflects parents’ opinions, the present study was confined to the opinions and perceptions of professional educators. The literature reviewed below, therefore, represents their attitudes toward family involvement in a child’s education. The review of research on this issue in Soweto represents an attempt to look at what countries other than the U.S. are recommending or doing to encourage parental involvement.

Head Teachers’ Perceptions of Family-School Relationships

Mlowanazi (1994) synthesized data from numerous British and American studies and applied the results to provide a better understanding of parent involvement in Soweto, South Africa, where like Kuwait, the schools have head teachers (supervisors) and deputy head teachers as well. Because the issue of parental involvement was considered crucial to both the state and those opposed to the state, Mlowanazi’s goal was to distinguish between rhetoric and reality. Therefore, Mlowanazi stated that the purpose of this study was to uncover the situation . . . in the context of repeated reference by the progressive movement to the involvement of parents through Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) and Parent Teacher Student Associations (PTSAs). As part of the purpose, it is necessary to understand what parent involvement means (p. 24). In other words, although Mlowanazi was investigating the nature of parental involvement, because of the political implications, the concept of the nature of this involvement differed from what guides U.S. studies.

Citing the findings of a number of researchers (Cyster 1979; Craft, Rayner, & Cohen, 1980; Green, 1984; Long, 1986; Sharp & Green, 1973; Taylor Committee Report, 1977; Wolfendale, 1989; all cited in Mlowanazi, 1994), Mlowanazi concluded that
parents were involved in the schools of Soweto in a *willy-nilly* manner. In other words, they lacked any real plan of action. Also, Mlowanazi paraphrased Morrison (1988, as cited in Mlowanazi) who maintained that the home was actually the child’s first classroom. Therefore, parents played a fundamental role in their children’s foundation for future effective learning, because the home was the place in which the attitude towards learning was first developed and on which learning depends. Further, he cited other researchers (Sharp & Green; Long; Taylor Committee Report) who reported that parents had vital information to provide to their child’s teacher and that they had a right to be involved and contribute to decision making.

Mlowanazi (1994) conducted his study in two phases. The first phase consisted of a questionnaire survey distributed to the head teachers and assistant head teachers of 11 primary and 9 secondary schools in Soweto, South Africa. The first part of the questionnaire, which included questions about the size of the school and the formal structures used to involve parents, was distributed to the head teachers at the 20 schools and had of response rate of 91%. The second part of the questionnaire, which research assistants administered, was distributed to deputy head teachers at the 20 schools and had a 100% response rate. This part of the questionnaire was used to collect information about the involvement of parents with their own children in the areas of reading, homework, and other aspects of the curriculum, as well as their involvement in school functions such as fund raising and similar activities. Three overall goals in regard to contact between home and school were:

1. To provide the means for parents to intervene in educational issues at both local and national levels;
2. To gain assistance in the discipline of their children in order to restore a culture of learning in the schools; and
3. To draw parents together in national activities that would support them in their rights in education.

While PTAs and PTSAs had been established in 17 of the 20 schools surveyed, these programs were not yet strong, and in one school, there was a total rejection of state structures (Mlowanazi, 1994). In addition, some of the interviewed parents wanted to assist their children’s progress, but could not do so because of the lack of stability in the South African economic and political infrastructure. At the same time, South African educators have worked to develop initiatives to involve parents for the purpose of crisis management.

The head teachers’ responses provided more information than Mlowanazi (1994) anticipated. According to the responses, less than half the parents came to school to discuss the work and progress of their children. Those who did come were mainly parents of elementary school children. The head teachers identified illiteracy and living conditions (e.g., children living with grandparents) as two of the reasons for the lack of parent involvement. At 17 of the 20 schools, they reported interaction with parents in regard to discipline problems because of (a) the high rate of orphaned children; (b) the high rate of children who did not live with their parents, but with grandparents who had lost control; and (c) the high rate of negligence and alcohol in some of the families. At 13 of the schools, the head teachers reported that parents often attended functions such as prize days and sports days as well as fund raising activities connected to these events. A shortage of textbooks provided parents with the impetus to hold fund raisers in order to
buy the books for their children. In 10 of the 20 schools surveyed, parents, not head teachers or deputy head teachers, had initiated activities to fund the purchase of textbooks.

Mlowanazi (1994) reported that government officials equated parental involvement with financial responsibility, although many parents refused to finance the schools because they felt it was the responsibility of the government. One teacher noted that the reason for this was that the government did not replace the materials readily; instead it was expected that parents would raise the money. One of the unforeseen results of the survey was the report of vandalism. Parents provided a night watch at two of the schools, and some of them raised funds to cover the costs of damage from vandalism. While funds for text books and repairs necessitated by vandalism are not an issue in Kuwait, funding for programs to teach parents to be involved in their children’s education is the government task.

When school staff was asked about the degree of involvement by parents in school activities to benefit their child, only three reported that there was more than 50% involvement. Several reasons were given: (a) poverty, (b) lack of resources to communicate with parents, (c) the broader context of educational crisis that results in not really knowing the parents, (d) factional fighting among parents along tribal lines, (e) different political affiliations that result in intolerance among parents, (f) breakdown of communication between schools and parents, and (g) unstable school environments. Like school children in Soweto, those in Kuwait also suffer from (a) the effects of schools lacking resources to communicate with parents, (b) the collision of different tribal cultures and the resulting intolerance among parents, (c) unstable school environments caused by school violence and (d) a breakdown of communication between schools and parents.

Based on the findings from this study, Mlowanazi (1994) concluded that “parental involvement in Soweto schools as evidenced in the survey cannot be considered significant” (p. 28). The central issue of parents’ involvement in the governance of education consisted of their ability to influence the key decision making areas of management. Instead of being involved on a day-to-day level in such areas as helping with homework, parents seemed to be involved in activities that should be the responsibility of the administration. While crisis management at the school was an important parental function, it did not directly involve them with the teachers and children. The administrators seemed to blame of lack of parental involvement on such factors as illiteracy and unemployment.

The author’s conclusion that there was a need for programs for parents to learn to read, which was considered a major obstacle to parent involvement, bears on the situation in Kuwait where programs are needed to help overcome obstacles to parental involvement. In addition, there was a need to train teachers on how to cooperate with parents, just as there is in Kuwait, and teachers must acknowledge the importance of parent involvement, something they seemed reluctant to do in Soweto. Mlkwanazi identified three factors in his conclusion that related to the overall implications for all the key players and stakeholders in the educational arena: (a) a need to commit to the development of ways to enhance parent involvement, (b) a need to support and strengthen PTAs/PTSAs through training programs that will help parents and teachers participate effectively, and (c) a need for training programs so that parents can become involved in their children’s curriculum.
The real root of the problem of involving parents in their children’s education in Soweto was two-fold:

1. There was a lack of government support for the schools.
2. The schools did not provide any initiatives to engage parents in assisting with the academic progress of their children.

The first is not a problem in Kuwait, but the second is. In fact the second problem tends to be a factor in both developing and developed countries, including the U.S., where researchers have looked at the issue of family-school partnerships in some detail.

**School Counselors’ Perceptions of Family-School Relationship**

U.S. researchers Bryan and Holcomb-McCoy (2004) have investigated school counselors’ perceptions of the importance of nine school-family-community (SFC) partnership programs as well as their degree of involvement in them and the barriers they perceived to that involvement. The nine partnership programs consisted of (a) mentoring, (b) parent centers, (c) family and community members as teachers’ aides, (d) parent and community volunteer programs, (e) home visit programs, (f) parent-education programs, (g) school-business partnerships, (h) parents and community members in site-based management, and (i) tutoring programs. Bryan and Holcomb-McCoy pointed out that although there is a growing body of literature on SFC partnerships, “no primary research could be found addressing the perceptions, roles, or involvement of the school in relation to these SFC partnerships” (p. 163).

This partnership program was part of a larger mandate from a U.S. Congressional program called Goals 2000 (National Educational Goals, as cited in Bryan & Holcomb-McCoy, 2004). In Goal 8, both administrators and faculty were encouraged to promote programs that would increase parental involvement and participation. In their questionnaire for school counselors Bryan and Holcomb-McCoy’s identified six barriers to determine the extent to which they prevented the counselors from being involved in the partnerships: (a) lack of time, (b) lack of opportunity, (c) too many counseling responsibilities, (d) lack of school policy, (e) inadequate training, and (f) inconsistent with the counselor’s role.

Bryan and Holcomb-McCoy (2004) developed a questionnaire to assess school counselors’ perceptions of their roles and practices as partners in partnership programs. Prior to the design of the instrument, a focus group of three school counselors and two counselor educators met to discuss school issues. Then the instrument was constructed and tested in a pilot study by 10 master and doctoral level counseling students who taught in the school system. The responses from the pilot study confirmed the validity of the instrument, although some revisions were made to the final draft used in this study. The survey was made up of four parts: (a) demographic data, such as teaching certification, years of experience, ethnic background, type of school worked in, highest degree earned, and gender; (b) rating of counselors’ perceptions about the importance of their involvement in the nine SFC partnership programs, with all the ramifications including the importance of their personal role in the program; (c) questions about the extent to which the six barriers hindered their involvement and their willingness to be involved in the nine partnership programs; and (d) a feedback section so that counselors could offer any additional comments. A Likert scale was used for part (c) of the survey.
Bryan and Holcomb-McCoy (2004) used a random sampling of school counselors from 72 South Carolina elementary, middle, and high schools to conduct their study. The South Carolina State Department of Education listing of school counselors provided the source for a random sample of 300 school counselors from these 72 schools. The sampling was stratified through a random selection of 99 (33%) high school counselors, 132 (44%) elementary counselors, and 69 (23%) middle or junior high school counselors. The survey was mailed to the 300 counselors with a cover letter attached to explain (a) the definition of a school-family-community partnership, (b) that the survey responses would be anonymous, and (c) that participation was voluntary.

The 75 surveys that were returned represented a response rate of 25%; of the respondents, 86% were female and 12.5% were male. Even though only 75 counselors responded, the percentage representation of the counselors from each school level was quite close to sample percentages, in that 37.5% of the respondents were from elementary schools, where 44% of the total sample of counselors receiving the questionnaire worked, 26.4% were from middle schools, where 23% of the total sample worked; and 26.4% were from high schools where 33% of the total sample worked. Thus, the responses proved to be representative of the entire random sampling. Although only 72 of the 75 responses were usable, these 72 constituted a sufficiently large sample to detect large effect sizes or differences. No follow up was done because of lack of funding.

In general, the respondents reported that their involvement in SFC partnerships was very important. An ANOVA determined there was no variance by school level (Bryan & Holcomb-McCoy, 2004). The respondents all agreed that counselors should play a major role in these partnerships. However, the counselors differed significantly ($f = 3.07, p = .054$) by their school level in their perceptions of the importance of the partnerships. The elementary school counselors reported that the nine elementary school SFC partnerships were more important than did the high school counselors. Similarly, elementary counselors thought their roles in these partnerships to be more important than did the high school counselors. Despite this, there were no differences in the school levels in regard to the counselors’ willingness to be involved in the partnerships, although significance was found ($f(2, 62) = .322, p = .726$) within the subjects-effect for the program. Although the elementary, middle and high school counselors identified different obstacles that hindered their involvement in SFC partnerships (Bryan & Holcomb-McCoy), in general, across all levels, they all reported too many counseling responsibilities and lack of time as the two most common barriers.

Although the study was limited by being conducted only in SC and by its self-reporting nature, Bryan and Holcomb-McCoy (2004) concluded that the findings were important despite the limitations, because this was the first time that empirical data had been provided to address these questions, and because these findings can provide a basis for future research on this topic in other states. In general, Bryan and Holcomb-McCoy (2004) indicated that the respondents, at all levels, believed that these partnerships were important, although the elementary counselors considered the partnerships to be more important than counselors at other levels. This finding supported those from previous studies (Christenson & Conoley, 1992; Davies, 1993; Epstein, 1992; Merz & Furman, 1997; Ritchie & Parin, 1994; Swap, 1992, as cited in Bryan and Holcomb-McCoy) in which it was found that elementary teachers and school psychologists were more involved in school-family-community partnerships than their middle or high school
counterparts. Also, for this study, the high school counselors perceived a higher level of hindrance than either the elementary or middle school counselors.

Perhaps the most valuable finding from the Bryan and Holcomb-McCoy (2004) study was that all of the counselors at all school levels believed their involvement in school-family-community partnerships was important, especially when these partnerships were considered to be part of the overall school reform movement. However, the counselors were more willing to be involved in some types of programs than others, namely, parent education and mentoring programs. Bryan and Holcomb-McCoy, therefore, recommended school counselor education programs to train counselors to advocate for partnership programs. Counselors needed to learn to take a more proactive position in the definition of their roles within the school system so that they were not forced to renounce their important functions that should include collaboration in SFC partnerships.

**Teachers’ Perceptions and Parent Involvement**

After looking at the opinions of head teachers (supervisors) in Soweto and school counselors in South Carolina, who all recognized the need for parental involvement in their children’s schools, it is also important to examine the perceptions of teachers on this subject. Because literacy education is an ideal area for parental involvement, Linek, Rasinski, and Harkins (1997) have studied teacher perceptions of this issue and determined that it has received support and direction in the last few years. Parents’ support can range from helping children at home to actually working in their children’s classrooms. However, the problem was that while there seemed to be great potential for parent involvement in this area, the effects were minimal without the support, encouragement, and coordination of teachers. According to Linek et al., previous studies had indicated that many teachers did not feel parents were sufficiently concerned about their children’s education for them to provide the support needed for parental involvement. Therefore, Linek et al. explored and described the perceptions teachers had of parent involvement in literacy education in both elementary and middle schools. The questions that guided their study were:

1. Do teachers perceive parent involvement in literacy education as important?
2. How do teachers actually involve parents in reading instruction?
3. How satisfied are teachers with their attempts at parent involvement in reading curriculum?
4. How do teachers view the role of the parent when it comes to making decisions about reading instruction in their own schools and classrooms? (p. 92)

The Linek et al. (1997) sample consisted of 64 teachers from a group of schools in a Midwestern metropolitan area. Of these, 38 taught primary grades, 22 taught middle school grades, and 4 were specialists who worked with both the elementary and middle school students. The years of teaching experience ranged from 0-36 years.

After interviewing the teachers who volunteered for the study, Linek et al. (1997) utilized preservice teachers as interviewers and observers in order to obtain a more objective view of parent involvement, because they thought the teachers might be more guarded if they did the interviews. In their role as observers, these preservice teachers conducted a minimum of 10 observations at least twice before the actual interview and at
least four times after the interview. In the interview, they asked the teachers to rate the importance of parent involvement in reading instruction in their classrooms and whether, currently, the teachers involved the parents. Also, the teachers were asked to rate their levels of satisfaction with past parent involvement, and if they did not involve the parents, why not.

In addition, the interviewers were given instructions to notice the degrees of consistency between the teachers’ self-reported behavior and their observed behavior. Finally, to complete their assignment, the preservice teachers submitted a paper in which they analyzed the data collected in the interview and the actual observed behavior of the teachers. If a teacher’s answers were inconsistent with the observed behavior, his or her interview was omitted from the study.

Linek et al. (1997) divided the results into four sections: (a) perceived importance of parent involvement, (b) the actual involvement of parents by teachers, (c) teacher satisfaction with parent involvement, and (d) the issue of teacher beliefs as they related to parent empowerment in literacy education. The ratings ranged from very important, important, neutral, somewhat important, somewhat unimportant to very unimportant. The majority of teachers who saw involvement as important cited such factors as parents’ expectations influenced students’ attitudes, motivation, and performance. Those who held neutral perceptions noted that parents seemed to lack reading and writing skills of their own. Middle school teachers noted that parents seemed to become less involved as the children became older. Almost two-thirds of the teachers gave a positive answer about their acceptance of current parent involvement. Surprisingly, almost 50% of the primary teachers answered negatively, while only 16% of the middle school teachers answered negatively. Most of the teachers reported that parent involvement meant sending reading material home, and about 30% noted they had in-class volunteers. The middle school teachers reported three kinds of involvement that primary teachers did not list:

1. They communicated through reports, interim reports, notes and telephone calls.
2. They asked parents to take children to the library.
3. They opened their classrooms to parent visits.

When Linek et al. (1997) asked the teachers why they did not involve parents, 40% reported that there were no parents available to volunteer, and surprisingly, this response was from the primary school teachers. More than 45% of the primary school teachers responded that they were dissatisfied with past parent involvement, while 47% of the middle school teachers were more likely to be ambivalent. Linek et al. reported that primary school teachers placed more emphasis on parents as volunteers, although these same teachers placed more emphasis on involving parents with reinforcing skills and an understanding of the reading process itself. With regard to decision making, the majority of teachers “appeared to support systemic professional exclusion of parents from the decision-making process” (p.102).

At the same time, however, parents expressed a desire to be involved in the discipline and evaluation or assessment of their children’s learning as well as in the decision-making process. Linek et al. (1997) framed the two questions based on their findings:

1. To what extent are parents not involved because they feel rejected or alienated or both from school because they are not the “experts” in education and literacy?
2. To what extent might teachers’ own definitions of and beliefs about what constitutes appropriate parent involvement erect barriers and be factors in their own anxiety and frustration? (p. 103)

These two questions may hold the key to the lack of parent involvement in many schools, because they articulate the problem of the conflict between the perceptions of parents and teachers over parental involvement. Linek et al. concluded with another question: “How can teachers come to see parents as partners in literacy education?” (p. 103). Once again, it is the responsibility of the educators to initiate programs designed to change teachers’ attitudes toward parental involvement.

In addition, Linek et al. (1997) drew the following conclusions:
1. There is a continuing gap between the values that teachers place on parent involvement and the amount and kind of involvement that actually occurs.
2. There are barriers to open communication between parents and teachers.
3. There is a lack of knowledge about how to bring about this active involvement on the part of parents in literacy education. (p.104-105)

These last statements clearly indicate the belief of Linek et al. that active parental involvement was crucial in the 21st Century and that barriers to change needed to be removed. Learning to think and how to solve problems, which parents can help their children do, may be more important than remembering specific information as part of learning. The focus of standardized tests on skills and factual information has not encouraged teachers to teach children how to think for themselves or children to learn how to think. Finally, Linek et al. believed that there must be literacy experiences to benefit all members of society. Although there may be real obstacles to this, such as lack of funding and resources, teachers needed to be careful not to hold onto perceptions about parents that limited their ability to include ongoing, meaningful parent involvement in their children’s literacy education.

Teachers’ Perceptions of Parent Involvement in Middle School

Looking at literacy education has provided some useful insights into teachers’ perceptions of parental involvement in one area of a child’s education. Smith’s (2002) study focuses on the “feelings, beliefs, and practices of 333 South Carolina middle school teachers regarding parent involvement in their schools” (p. 59), a school level highly relevant to the present study’s focus on the perceptions of Kuwaiti middle school supervisors. Although academic achievement is a top concern in schools today, Smith noted a decrease in academic achievement starting in the middle school years along with a decrease in parental involvement after the elementary years. Consequently, Smith questioned whether these decreases were merely a coincidence and proposed parental involvement, both active (i.e., participation in school activities) and passive (i.e., providing a home structure that supports learning), as an effective way to help reverse this trend.

To find out what these teachers’ perspectives and practices were concerning parent involvement, Smith (2002) posed five research questions:
1. Do middle school teachers value parental involvement?
2. How do middle school teachers characterize “effective” parent involvement?
3. What do teachers recommend to parents for becoming involved?
4. To what extent are parents involved in schools?
5. What do middle school teachers perceive as barriers to parental involvement? (p. 61)

These questions reflect Smith’s belief that the burden for involving parents in their children’s middle school education falls on the teachers and echo Epstein’s (1996c) argument that the schools are responsible for making parents a part of their children’s academic success. Adjusted for the Kuwaiti middle schools, it means the supervisors are responsible for creating and overseeing practices of teachers that encourage them to believe in the efficacy of involving parents in their middle school children’s education.

Smith (2002) designed a survey consisting of 25 items. To check for content and clarity, Smith had 10 middle school teachers respond to the questionnaire and then revised it per their instructions. Fifteen items were scored on a 1-5 range of 1, Strongly disagree to 5, Strongly agree. Eight open-ended items allowed the teachers to expand their answers from the first 15. In addition, there was one forced-choice item in which the teachers were asked to choose whether they made most of their parent contacts from home or from school and one item that was a checklist for teachers to report how they were most effective in reaching the parents.

Smith’s (2002) sample consisted of 400 South Carolina teachers from 20 middle schools (i.e., Grades 6-8) which were randomly selected from 213 schools. First, the principal of each middle school was asked to provide a contact person to distribute a packet containing the survey, a postage paid envelope and notice of the deadline (2 weeks) for returning the survey to each of the selected middle school teachers. A follow-up telephone call was made a week after the packets were distributed to be sure the teachers had received them and to encourage a quick response. Ten days later, there was a second follow-up phone call. Of the 400 surveys that were distributed, 333 were returned, a response rate of 83.25%.

Smith (2002) found the teachers most frequently reported that parental involvement was academically and behaviorally motivational for their students. The other benefits most frequently reported included:

1. Parents show concern for their children.
2. Parents gain an understanding of the way the school is organized and operated.
3. The relationship between the school and the community is strengthened.

As a result of the teachers’ responses, Smith developed a profile (from most to less frequent) of parental involvement. Parents (a) served as chaperones for school trips and events; (b) worked as aides to the teacher, helped in the office, escorted students, delivered messages, and made copies; (c) tutored; (d) worked on fund-raising; and (e) did noncurricular tasks. Also, the teachers reported that they believed parents were effective when they (a) were involved in PTO/PTA and fundraising, (b) worked as classroom aides with nonacademic tasks, (c) helped with disruptive children, and (d) provided materials for teachers to use in class.

As this profile shows, the teachers perceived parental involvement mainly in terms of non-academic functions. This contrasted with the report of the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (CCAD, 1989, as cited in Smith), which reported that involvement happened when parents had meaningful roles in school governance, everyday class activities, and special school activities. In other words, according to members of the CCAD, parents became involved when they felt a sense of ownership.
The teachers who responded to Smith’s (2002) survey identified parents’ work schedules as the greatest barrier to involvement. Some of the teachers reported that parents had a negative attitude about school. In addition, 12% of the teachers indicated that some parents seemed to be unconcerned about their child, while 33% of the teachers noted it was difficult to contact parents when they had concerns about their child. However, Smith (2002) found that parents were not offered meaningful roles in the lives of their children at school and suggested ways to ameliorate the problem with parents’ work schedules, such as the use of extended hours for parent-teacher conferences. In addition, parents could be trained to work and counsel new parents as their children entered middle school.

Based on his findings, Smith (2002) has suggested several corrective steps that need to be taken if middle schools educators are to be successful in their pursuit of effective parent involvement. The staff of each school should have a highly valued vision of desired parental involvement. Communication between teacher and parent must not be judgmental or negative; rather the teachers must seek to increase positive interactions. The teachers must provide parents with meaningful roles for effective involvement. Also, parents must be allowed to participate in more than nonacademic roles with a sense of ownership, trust, respect, and partnership between the teachers and parents.

In addition, new nontraditional ways of working with parents need to be explored, which means that Smith’s (2002) study needs to be extended. This idea of a shared vision among schools, communities, and families is still in the infancy stage and needs to be nurtured in order for this idea to grow. Nontraditional approaches to creating a shared vision may be one way to involve Kuwaiti parents in their children’s middle school education, because such approaches might be the most effective way to cope with tribal restrictions that make it difficult for families to become partners with teachers in their children’s education. Unlike U.S. schools, Kuwaiti schools have supervisors who could facilitate the use of nontraditional approaches to achieve this goal.

**Teacher Perceptions of Roles, Efficacy, and Opportunities**

According to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, as cited in Gettinger & Guetschow. 1998), parents become involved in their children’s education because of three factors: (a) role preferences, (b) perceived effectiveness, and (c) perceptions of opportunities and barriers to this involvement. Gettinger and Guetschow, therefore, examined these three important areas of parental involvement in school from the perspective of both teachers and parents, because as they stated, “achieving our national goal of increased parental involvement and participation, although complex and demanding, has potential to improve the quality of education for students of all ages and to benefit both parents and staff.” (p. 38). The authors referred to the 1994 National Education Goals in which it was reported that, by the year 2000, schools in the U.S. would emphasize increased partnerships (i.e., involvement and participation) between parents and schools in order to promote the social, academic, and emotional growth of children. Parental involvement includes (a) the establishment of a home environment that supports learning, (b) reciprocal communication between homes and schools, (c) volunteering in classrooms, (d) helping children with homework and other school activities at home, (e) involvement in decision making as well as advocacy and
committee work, and (f) collaboration with community to improve all children’s education.

The Gettinger and Guetschow (1998) study involved parents and teachers from six schools in three districts in southern Wisconsin. The sample consisted of teachers from Grades K-5 in three elementary schools and all of the teachers from Grades 6-12, as well as a random sampling of one-third of the parents in each of the schools. Although the sampling procedure resulted in a total of 351 prospective teacher respondents from all grade levels and 1,399 prospective parents, the authors noted that this was a restricted sample, because the participating schools served predominantly Anglo American, middle class, suburban communities.

Gettinger and Guetschow constructed two parallel forms of the questionnaire, one for the parents and one for the teachers. A total of 142 teachers (41%) and 558 parents (40%) responded to their respective questionnaires. Of the teacher respondents, 69% taught Grades 6-12; of the parents, 60% represented students in Grades K-5. The gender of the parents’ children was almost equally divided between boys ($n = 253$) and girls ($n = 283$). While only a small number of the respondents returned the background information sheet ($n = 57$), which was part of the packet, as was a consent form and cover letter of invitation, there seemed to be no notable differences between respondents and nonrespondents in regard to variables such as income and educational levels of the parents.

The questionnaire (Gettinger & Guetschow, 1998) included 25 parent involvement roles or activities, which four graduate students trained in educational psychology had reviewed. An example of a direct activity was when a parent attended individual conferences with the teacher; an example of an indirect activity was when a parent attended an open house. Each activity was rated according to how much teachers would like parent participation in the role or activity on a Role Scale from 1, lowest to 5, highest. Also, the teachers rated the degree that they felt parents were effective on a 1-5 rating in an Efficacy Scale. The Barrier Scale consisted of 16 items designed to help identify opportunities as well as barriers to involvement as perceived by the parents. The last part of the questionnaire consisted of two open-ended questions designed to elicit general comments concerning parental involvement and what would facilitate or encourage parents to become more involved. These questions were directed at both the parents and the teachers. Total scale reliability was calculated for the role, efficacy, and barrier scales. The estimates for internal consistency reliability were .90 for the role scale, .83 for the efficacy scale, and .73 for the barrier scale. In general, teachers and parents had similar ratings of involvement or role preferences for parents; the Role Scale total mean was 3.1 for parents and 3.3 for teachers.

There was some variability among the specific activities in terms of preferred level of involvement (Gettinger & Guetschow, 1998). For parents’ ratings, the mean scores for items ranged from 2.5-3.6, while teachers’ ratings ranged from 2.8-3.8. The differences between direct and indirect involvement were statistically insignificant. A 2 X 4 (i.e., respondent by grade) multivariate analysis (MANOVA) was conducted for the role scale ratings. Although allowances were made for the differentially higher representation of the upper grades over the lower grades in the teacher sample, the results from the MANOVA did not reveal any significant main effects with regard to role preferences perceived by both parents and teachers.
For the difference between parents and teachers in the efficacy scale ratings a 2 X 4 (i.e., respondent by grade) MANOVA was conducted. Teachers gave higher efficacy ratings. There was a main effect for respondent ($F(1,445) = 11.9$, $p < .001$) and a main effect for grade ($F(3,445) = 8.5$, $p < 0.1$). For the barrier scale, both parents and teachers rated time constraints and inflexible working schedules highest, while both minimized background differences. The results from a 2 X 4 (i.e., respondent by grade) MANOVA did reveal a significant main effect for the respondents on the Barrier Scale ratings ($F(1,445) = 22.9$, $p < .001$); the teachers gave higher ratings than the parents. Also, there was a main effect for grade ($F(3,445) = 32.7$, $p < .001$). However, the respondents for the elementary schools reported fewer barriers than the middle and upper grade respondents, which seemed to be consistent with other studies that found parental involvement diminished after the elementary grades (Gettinger & Guestschow, 1998).

Gettinger and Guestschow (1998) used a correlation matrix designed to show ratings across parents’ and teachers’ perceptions. The strongest correlation was the one between perceptions of barriers to involvement and ratings of current levels of involvement ($r = .69$). When parents and teachers perceived more opportunities and fewer barriers to involvement, the ratings of overall parental involvement were higher. While not as strong, there was also a positive relationship between effectiveness perceptions and current involvement, based on parents’ efficacy ratings ($r = .38$) and global ratings of effectiveness of parental involvement ($r = .45$). High ratings of level of parental involvement were associated with high effectiveness ratings and with more positive beliefs about efficacy.

Approximately 70% of the parents and 60% of the teachers responded (Gettinger & Guestschow, 1998) to the two open-ended items. The first item addressed general beliefs about parental involvement; the second item was designed to identify one thing that would facilitate increased opportunities for parental involvement. Responses to the first item fell into four categories: (a) identification of barriers, such as too little time; (b) specific facilitators, such as a course syllabus; (c) positive or neutral appraisal of current parental involvement; and (d) negative appraisal, such as difficulty being able to rely on parents. While 40% of the parents identified barriers in their general comments, only 17% of the teachers did so. Thirty-two percent of the teachers’ responses gave a positive appraisal, compared to only 9% of the parents. Based on Bandura’s 1986 self-efficacy theory (as cited in Gettinger & Guestschow, 1998), a strong correlation between role preferences and efficacy ratings for both parents ($r = .58$) and teachers ($r = .66$) was demonstrated.

Because a large number of parents and teachers responded to the open-ended questions, Gettinger and Guestschow (1998) concluded that this showed evidence of a commitment by both educators and parents to work toward more effective partnerships between school and home to benefit the students. They did point out the limitation (mentioned earlier) that the sample was quite homogeneous, which might mean a sampling bias. Also, the data were based on voluntary self-reports by teachers and parents, which might mean that those who responded were the ones most interested in involvement. Another limitation was the low response to the background information. Finally, the questionnaire items reflected a rather traditional approach to involvement. Despite these limitations, Gettinger and Guestschow maintained that they provided a framework to gather information about (a) role preferences, (b) perceived effectiveness,
and (c) perceptions of barriers or opportunities for involvement. Based on their findings, the researchers concluded that parents need to have personal roles for successful involvement, and they must feel a sense of efficacy for helping their children. Finally, efforts need to be made to incorporate more positive opportunities and fewer barriers for parental involvement. Gettinger and Guestschow explained that “the challenge for researchers, educators, and parents is to find ways to overcome barriers and increase opportunities to create positive home-school partnerships” (p. 50).

The purpose of this section has been to build a better understanding of the importance of family involvement. Although most of the studies focused on educators’ perspectives of family involvement in the education of their children, all of them emphasized the role schools need to play to initiate and support efforts to encourage the involvement of parents to help their children to improve academically and behaviorally. In addition, these studies identified some of the obstacles facing family involvement, including lack of understanding from both family and school about their roles in this relationship, lack of time, lack of family education, and lack of training of both family and school staff about their roles in this special relationship. However, the biggest barrier was the lack of a definition of family-school partnerships. Family, school, and community, as stakeholders in the future of each child, need to work together to help each child achieve academic success.

Past research has tended to focus on family involvement with elementary school students, because this has always been considered the make-or-break period in a child’s academic development. However, because middle school is a risky time for adolescents, especially in Kuwait where the drop-out rate is high, more research needs to be done to identify the part parent-teacher partnerships have in ensuring a child’s successful completion of middle school. For this to happen, teachers need to set aside any negative perceptions they have of parental involvement. Schools need to take the initiative in providing families direction about the best ways to involve themselves with their children to be sure they understand and complete the work the school expects of them. Past research also highlighted the need to improve communication between home and school not only when a student is having problems, but also when he or she achieves academic success. On the one hand, families should become involved in school activities and be responsible for establishing a home environment that encourages students to study and take pride in their achievements; on the other hand, schools should facilitate family involvement by encouraging families to be part of the school community. Finally trust and respect should form the core of the partnership between families and schools.

Relationships that Affect Family Involvement

The studies analyzed in this section address the issues of communication between parents and professionals as well as how family involvement can redefine school and community relations. Communication is an essential part of the job responsibilities of supervisors in Kuwaiti middle schools as they seek to improve social relationships in the school community and share educational experiences with those involved in the educational process. In other words, theoretically these supervisors should serve as the facilitators of partnerships between the schools, parents and communities.
Communication between Parents and Teachers

Meretzky (2004) examined the issue of communication between parents and teachers to determine the role of parent-teacher relationships in creating and maintaining a “democratic school community” (p. 814) that eventually would lead to school improvement. In order to do this, Meretzky developed five questions:

1. What kinds of feelings do parents and teachers attach to their encounters and interactions with each other?
2. What are the educational issues that parents and teachers are concerned with, and do they share similar concerns?
3. If they felt they had a choice, what kinds of collaborative relationships would parents and teachers choose to have with each other?
4. How can parent-teacher discussions inform or expand an understanding of how parent-teacher communication and collaboration can be improved?
5. How can parents and teachers become agents in shaping their interactions toward optimal collaborative support of children’s success and resolution of shared concerns? (p.815).

Meretzky’s (2004) sample consisted of parents and teachers from three elementary schools in Chicago. Each school, designated by the letters W, J, and R, had a different profile:

1. The students at W School were 50% Hispanic and 50% Anglo American (i.e., mostly Eastern European); 30% had limited English proficiency; and 75% were low income.
2. Students at J school were almost evenly divided between Asian and African American; 35% had limited English proficiency; and 95% were low income.
3. At R school, the students were 90% African American, and 99% were low income.

Meretzky indicated that the R school was the biggest challenge to assess, because the students had poor test scores and were from low socioeconomic homes. Also, there were frequent changes in faculty, and the morale was low.

Meretzky (2004) used a qualitative research design for this study. Also, the five questions listed above were used as the basis for open-ended discussions of four parent and teacher focus groups, totaling 10 hours, which the participants were asked to attend. Prior to the interviews and focus groups, Meretzky spent 3 months observing the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meetings as well as school events, such as open houses. The purpose of the observations was to obtain a sense of the culture of the schools before the interviews or the focus groups took place. Because of the difficulty time presented in reaching the parents and teachers, the sample consisted of 17 parents and 21 teachers who were interviewed. The focus groups highlighted the issue of communication, because although the number of participants varied, usually it was quite small, often with as few as 6 attendees; 6-8 participants would have been preferable.

Meretzky (2004) found that there was often defensiveness and hostility between parents and teachers; frequently, parents felt left out of the decision making concerning their child. The teachers tended to see themselves as authority figures and the parents as volunteers for school activities, rather than partners in the education of their child. There was a great deal of diversity between parents and teachers concerning educational issues, although members of both groups regretted the lack of parental involvement. Teachers
expected more parental responsibility directed toward their child’s education, even though often the teachers themselves had few ideas about how to support the parents so that they could be more responsible in terms of their child’s educational needs. Meretzky noted that in many teacher education programs, preservice teachers were not taught about the importance of parent-teacher relationships or how to communicate with them.

Also, Meretzky (2004) observed that some teachers did not want parents in the classroom, because they felt it might reduce their autonomy. While the teachers felt that parental relationships were important, they reported that time constraints limited their availability to the parents as well as parents’ availability to them. The teachers admitted that they usually contacted a parent only when there was a problem, rather than to report that the child was doing well.

In addition, teachers reported that without administrative support, they were unclear about how important parent-teacher relationships were or how much emphasis should be placed on these relationships (Meretzky, 2004). On the one hand, if the teacher has no understanding about the importance of the relationship with parents, she or he cannot be expected to work on establishing and nurturing it; on the other hand, if parents do not receive appropriate signals from the teacher, they have no incentive to become involved in their child’s school.

Although teachers wanted to be acknowledged as professional, parents wanted to have their efforts, insight, and knowledge respected as well. What Meretzky (2004) identified from her observations, interviews, and focus groups was that there was a need for more open and face-to-face communication between parents and teachers to reduce the barriers and to develop a better mutual understanding in order to support their goal of better education and adjustment of the child they jointly shared. The use of face-to-face discussions helped to remove or alleviate some of the erroneous assumptions of parents and teachers.

Parents and teachers needed to be allies in the education of their children. Although simply talking to each other seemed to be too simple, Meretzky (2004) found that this simple form of communication was effective. However, for teachers to find time to talk to parents seemed to be harder than teaching better ways to take standardized tests, which most schools emphasize as the way to measure student success. Finding the time for personal contact also needed to be prioritized in order to keep parents informed about their child. Regular personal communication between parents and teachers enables them to know each other on a comfortable level so that they can become allies in the child’s education.

Meretzky (2004) noted that people have become more disengaged from one another, which means that these personal contacts must be reestablished in a positive environment in order to close the gap between home (i.e., the parents) and school (i.e., the teachers) and produce young citizens who are prepared to live and work in society and make a positive contribution. If students see that their parents and teachers can communicate effectively in a community environment, then they can take this attitude of positive communication out in the world as young adults and create a society that is less disengaged.
Dunlap and Alva (1999) examined a successful parent involvement initiative called, El Instituto Familiar, in which parental involvement was viewed as a source of strength with the following guiding principles to help parents to (a) value their own knowledge, (b) share this knowledge with others, (c) learn new skills that will benefit themselves and also their families, and (d) become involved in the school on their own terms. The study was an exploratory one designed to examine teachers’ attitudes and beliefs about parent-school relations. In particular, the study focused on the parent involvement that developed over time through El Instituto Familiar.

The sample consisted of 12 teachers from a large school district in Southern California where approximately 95% of the parents were Hispanic Americans, who experienced the daily economic, social, cultural, and linguistic challenges typical of a large urban setting. They were asked to answer six questions that addressed the issues of (a) parents’ and teachers’ expectations, (b) the home-school partnership concept, and (c) the benefits that the teachers perceived from the parental involvement in El Instituto Familiar. Following their open-ended response to each question, the teachers were asked to rank their responses in order from least to most important.

Dunlap and Alva (1999) found a common pattern in the teachers’ responses. However, the ranked responses fell into two distinct groups: those of veteran teachers with 13 or more years of teaching experience and those of newer teachers with 8 or fewer years of experience. Those with longer teaching experience held educentric views; that is, involvement was focused on school education matters. In contrast, the teachers with fewer years of experience held the view that parental involvement not only helped the child, but also was a way to improve conditions for the families and the community at large, because they defined parent involvement in terms of a broader context beyond the classroom. Dunlop and Alva mentioned that this idea coincided with the concept of transformative education proposed by Freire (1973) in which teachers are called upon to develop a critical social consciousness.

All of the respondents recognized as values of parent involvement (a) the promotion of student success, (b) parental support in the areas of discipline and attendance, and (c) a general encouragement of parent-school cooperation. However, the family-community oriented teachers (i.e., those with fewer years of experience) saw parent involvement from the viewpoint of benefits that accrued not only to the students, but also to the parents and the community, in general. An example of a teacher’s opinion about parent involvement was that the presence of parents creates accountability at school and in the community. However, teachers also commented about the problem of parents’ high expectations for teachers to be responsible for solving all of the child’s and family’s problems and to act more like a social worker than a teacher. The veteran teachers were more likely to agree with this, while the newer teachers attempted to understand the parents’ expectations within their cultural perspective, given that most of the parents were Hispanic American with different views of the teacher. For example, many of the parents had little formal education and looked to the teacher as a resource for problem solving, which veteran teachers interpreted as being beyond their responsibility.

However, all of the teachers recognized that language and education impacted parent involvement. On the one hand, the family and community-oriented less
experienced teachers focused on systemic issues (e.g., social, political, academic, and cultural aspects), which affected how the parents felt about becoming involved (e.g., minority parents’ feelings of alienation from the schools). These included such aspects as changing the ways in which school business was done; for example, school staff should be less bureaucratic and impersonal with parents to try to overcome the political, social, academic barriers to parental involvement. On the other hand, the veteran teachers listed as the ways to overcome barriers items such as (a) more ESL classes for parents, (b) variation of meeting times to accommodate parents’ schedules, and (c) more home visits.

While all the teachers agreed that the El Instituto Familiar program produced many benefits, some of their comments were not entirely positive. For example, even though the teachers’ comments on the day parents came to a computer class were positive, they complained in a way that indicated they still held old beliefs that the parents really did not care. The cultural distribution of the sample, in which most of the veteran teachers were Anglo American, while one-third of the nonveteran teachers were Hispanic American, might explain some of the less than positive comments. Dunlop and Alva (1999) explained that teachers tended to view the world through their own cultural point of reference. Therefore, it might have been difficult for the Anglo American teachers to see school issues through the Hispanic American parents’ eyes. As a result, they were less able to understand and address the learning needs of their students and the family and community issues that surrounded the school.

Dunlap and Alva (1999) found that these teachers did not share a common view about parent involvement, even at the same school. There was a broad range of attitudes and beliefs which challenged administrators who tried to help teachers change their long-held perceptions about parents, especially as partners in the child’s education. Although the most striking differences were between the views of the veteran teachers and the less experienced teachers, the newer teachers yielded to the veteran teachers’ viewpoint, which did not embrace the concepts of El Instituto Familiar. In fact, the veteran teachers seemed to have negative attitudes toward parents as well as a much narrower concept of what constituted parental involvement, especially in comparison to the less experienced teachers.

This situation caused the researchers to ask “what predisposes some teachers to be blind to change as it occurs around them” (p. 130) and “what will predispose teachers to understand parent involvement in a context that goes beyond school boundaries and extends to the social and political contexts” (p. 130). The challenge of changing teachers’ perceptions is one that should start at the teacher training level. There might need to be dissenting voices to challenge those teachers who stay within edcentric borders where teacher involvement is concerned. The researchers recommended a combination of university coursework and classroom and community experience to expand teachers’ perceptions of the interconnectedness of parent involvement in the broadest sense and combine the life of the school as well as the family and community. Parents should be able to voice their needs and wants to teachers in a forum of cooperation that includes helping parents to develop their confidence, talents, skills, and knowledge to make a difference in their child’s education and in the community. In this way, the students, the teachers, the schools, the family, and the community will all benefit.

The issues addressed in this section highlighted problems of communication between parents and professional educators. Because these impact the relationship
between family and school, most of the research made a case for building democratic
dialogs in the school community to help teachers and parents understand the students’
needs and problems. Open-ended communication would help teacher and family to
become a cooperative venture sharing the role of guide to student implementations in
both the school and home. Communication provides a chance to understand parents
concerns and helps them be part of academic decision making concerning their children.
In fact, communication has the potential of helping to build trust and respect between all
the people who affect the children’s future and breaking down the defensiveness and
hostility between school staff and parents. Communication can assist both teachers and
parents to become important figures in a child’s education, because they all share the
burden of assuring a child’s academic growth and improving his or her behavior.

The research reviewed in this section also highlighted the need for administrative
guidelines that stress the importance of two-way communication between teachers and
parents and provide teachers with information for engaging parents in the educational
process of their children. Parents also needed to understand the importance of
communicating with their children’s teachers so that they have a positive influence on
their children’s path to academic success. Face-to-face communication was one
recommended method of opening the way to parental involvement, because it can help
alleviate intellectual and cultural barriers, thereby increasing the benefits to all the
stakeholders. The research has advocated flexible schedules for teachers to accommodate
parents’ work schedules and acceptance without prejudice of parents’ education levels
and cultures, which was sometimes difficult for veteran teachers for whom test scores
were the principle measure of academic achievement. Finally, successful communication
between parents and teachers can provide the students with a model for learning how to
communicate and establish positive relationships that will lead to their becoming useful
members of their community.

Interestingly, the common thread that runs through most of the literature reviewed
to this point is that schools must undertake the responsibility of opening avenues of
communication. Administrators, such as the supervisors in the middle schools in Kuwait,
need to provide the teachers with guidelines for opening and sustaining communication
with parents, and teachers must set aside their prejudices. In other words, although most
of the studies have shown that teachers agreeing in theory that communicating with the
families of their students was an important part of the educational process, their tendency
to intellectual snobbism and cultural bias often prevented them from making the effort to
communicate with parents. Conversely, parents needed to understand that teachers’ time
was at a premium and that teachers were not social workers trained to solve the family’s
problems. However, involving parents in their children’s education had the potential of
defusing family problems that stemmed from truancy and children who drop out of
school.

**Student Achievement and Social Growth**

The studies analyzed in this section focus on ways to assist families support
student achievement and social identity, two factors that can help prevent the attrition,
aspecteeism, and poor grades that plague families of children in Kuwaiti middle schools.
Because helping children with homework is one activity that provides the opportunity for
families to become involved in their children’s academic success, the analysis of issues
related to student achievement and social growth begins with a discussion of family involvement with homework. This is followed by an in-depth examination of the relationship between parental involvement and the achievement and social growth of adolescent students.

*Family Involvement with Children's Homework*

Balli, Demo, and Wedman (1998) have investigated the effect of parents’ involvement in their adolescent children’s mathematics homework. They compared three groups of students who received prompts or no prompts from the teacher in regard to parents’ help with homework. An underlying reason for the study was that very little research had been done to examine the role that teachers play in the facilitation of parent involvement.

The sample of the Balli et al. (1998) study consisted of 31 Anglo-American sixth grade boys and 43 Anglo-American sixth grade girls for a total of 74 middle school students. Although some had working class parents, most of the participants had middle class parents. Each of the students attended one of three mathematics classes that met daily and were taught by the same teacher. After an ANOVA was conducted, the researchers determined that the groups were equivalent in their prior mathematics achievement \(F(2, 71) = .001, p < .99\). Basically, this meant that they all started their participation in the study at the same level of math ability.

The students were randomly assigned to one of three groups for which the homework consisted of 20 assignments over a period of weeks that covered basic mathematics concepts such as decimals, measurements, integers, and so forth. The 20 mathematics assignments were developed by Epstein (1988) as part of the TIPS program, and each of the assignments included (a) instructions on the skill to be learned, (b) examples of skills with sample problems, and (c) practice with application activities. The parents received introductory letters appropriate to each of the three groups.

In group 1, the teacher gave the students or their parents no prompts about asking for or offering homework assistance. In group 2, the teacher told students to ask parents and other family members for help with their math homework. In group 3, the teacher prompted both the students and family members to be involved with the homework assignments.

Because the Balli et al. (1998) study was based on homework assignments, the general methods of questionnaires, observations, and interviews to collect data were not used. However, after the assignments were completed, the students were surveyed to determine whether members of their family had helped them. These data were qualitative. A posttest was also administered to obtain quantitative data to determine which of the three groups of students did best in mathematics and to collect parent feedback. The quantitative data were used to judge the effects of the study.

Balli et al. (1998) reported that all 74 of the students completed the 20 assignments, a completion rate of 100%. The researchers hypothesized as follows:

Hypothesis 1 assumed that family should be highly involved with mathematics so that group 2 students would report a higher level of family involvement than group 1 students, who received no prompts from the teacher.

Hypothesis 2 assumed that prompts of involvement were used only in mathematics homework so that students in groups 2 and 3 would report...
significantly higher levels of family involvement with mathematics homework than with other homework.

Hypothesis 3 assumed that the prompts of involvement were used only with mathematics homework so that students in group 3 would score higher on the posttest than students in either group 1 or 2.

Hypothesis 4 was subdivided into three elements and made the following assumptions:

1. Students whose parent(s) had a 4 year college degree would be more involved with homework, and students would reach a higher level of achievement.
2. Students who lived in two parent households would have more family involvement and higher levels of achievement than single parent families.
3. Students with either no siblings or one sibling would experience higher levels of family involvement with mathematics homework and higher student achievement than students with two or more siblings (p.152).

Based on the student reports, 90.6% of the family involvement was with parents, and 9.4% was with other family members, such as grandparents and siblings. An ANOVA was used to compare the data from the three groups, and parents and other family members were found to be statistically significant ($p < .01$). Subsequently, Scheffe’s post hoc test was applied to individual group means. Students in groups 2 and 3 supported the hypotheses, because they were more significantly ($p < .01$) involved with mathematics homework than students in group 1. However, groups 2 and 3 contradicted hypothesis 1 (i.e., group 3 would show the greatest level of involvement); there was no significant difference between the students in groups 2 and 3 in reported family involvement. However, students’ reports on their homework assignments indicated that family members in group 3 were more involved than those in group 2. Therefore, there was mixed evidence for groups 2 and 3 in regard to differences in family involvement, while the findings for group 1 supported the hypothesis that the family involvement of students in group 2 was greater than in group 1.

A two factor ANOVA was conducted to examine the extent of family involvement with mathematics homework compared to other homework to determine whether there was interaction between the three groups and the two types of homework (i.e., mathematics and other subjects). This interaction was significant ($F(2.66) = 8.92$, $p < .01$). Because of this interaction, each group was examined for group differences from within. Students in groups 2 and 3 reported more family involvement with their mathematics homework than with their other homework at a significant level: (a) group 2, $F(1.21) = 11.39$, $p < .01$; (b) group 3, $F(1.21) = 11.39$, $p < .01$; and (c) group 1, $F(1.24) = 7.61$, $p < .051$. However, it should be noted that the students in group 1, the unprompted group, did report significantly ($p < .01$) more family involvement with other homework than with mathematics homework.

Another ANOVA was used for the posttest scores. While correlations between posttest and prior achievement scores on tests administered to make sure the students were equivalent in their mathematical levels were strong and positive for each group, the ANOVA showed that there were no significant differences on the posttest among the three groups $F(2,70) = .15$. This means that hypothesis 3 was not supported. Another statistical result involved the mean scores on the 20 homework assignments. For groups 2 and 3, the student and family groups prompted by the teacher, the homework score was
79.3% and 81.8%, respectively, while for group 1, the group not prompted by the teacher, the homework averaged 75.7%. These findings seemed to support hypotheses 1-3, although Balli et al. (1998) concluded that the differences were not large, and the small sample size was not statistically significant. The findings fulfilled the predictions of the three parts of hypothesis 4. For part 1, students, whose parents held college degrees, did significantly ($p < .01$) better on the posttest. For part 2, while there was no significant difference in student achievement based on family structure, students from two parent families did report significantly ($p < .01$) more involvement with mathematics homework than students from single parent families. For part 3, no differences were reported for student achievement based on family size.

Finally, Balli et al. (1998) conducted follow-up interviews of 24 of the families of the participating boys and girls with various educational backgrounds, family structures, and family sizes. The responses seemed very positive, although some parents were concerned that they could not give appropriate help because they had been away from school too long or the methods for teaching mathematics had changed. The families identified time constraints as the biggest challenge, although the interviewees indicated that homework was a priority. Also, the parents indicated that a homework hotline or workshops for them provided by the school would be beneficial.

According to Balli et al. (1998), family involvement with homework seemed to be on a continuum of various degrees of helping and effectiveness. Still to be determined is what constitutes quality in terms of family involvement and how that quality of involvement influences student achievement. An important project for future researchers would be to investigate quality versus quantity of family involvement. The Balli et al. findings indicated “that student and family involvement prompts were associated with higher levels of family involvement with middle-grades homework” (p. 156). Balli et al. suggested that a family involvement initiative from teachers with student and family prompts can have a positive impact on the involvement of parents with their students in the middle grades.

The findings of Balli et al. (1998) also suggested that parents’ educational and socioeconomic resources were good predictors of student achievement. Based on the data collected from the interviews and telephone calls, the researchers concluded that parents with less education were likely to need more guidance from the school to become involved in ways that helped their children than parents with more education. To this end, they suggested that teacher training, parent training, parent education, and more use of other family members might be helpful, rather than relying solely on classroom interventions to boost academic achievement. In other words, a workable, flexible partnership between teacher and family is needed to give students the best education possible.

Finally, like the majority of studies reviewed so far, the Balli et al. (1998) study continues the theme of the need for schools and teachers to take the lead in initiating ways to involve parents with the academic success of their children. Although their study demonstrated that the middle children of college educated parents did better with parental help on their mathematics homework than the children of less educated parents, the overall results indicated that any parental involvement with mathematics homework improved the students’ success rate. It showed that prompting by a teacher worked well
for encouraging parental involvement. This, of course, highlights the importance of good communication between schools and parents.

The Relationship between Parental Involvement and Student Achievement

Sartor and Youniss (2002) examined the relationship between parental involvement and student achievement at the high school level by focusing on the developing identities of adolescent youth. The purpose of the study was: (a) to explore the interrelationship of connectedness, demanding-ness, and psychological autonomy without sacrifice of the relatedness of parents to adolescents and their identity development; (b) to examine gender differences in identity achievement; and (c) to compare high school sophomores to high schools seniors to determine whether there was a higher level of identity achievement among seniors that the empirical research seems to support. Sartor and Youniss emphasized the factors of individuation and connectedness as they related to adolescent identity development. The authors stated that:

The individuation process is a cooperative effort between parent and child that involves the child asserting and parents granting independence while both maintain their connectedness. . . . Ideally, parents remain involved without being imposing, thus providing support and sufficient leeway for adolescents to choose and commit to ideological beliefs and personal goals. (p. 222)

During the 1995-1996 academic year, Sartor and Youniss (2002) conducted this study with a total sample of 1,012 students, consisting of 293 sophomores and 719 seniors from two suburban Catholic high schools in Washington, D.C. Of the sample, 70% were Anglo American, and 51% were female. Most students came from middle class families, 70% of which had both mother and father. The students responded to a survey that was part of a larger one administered by members of a research team at The Catholic University of America.

The Identity Scale of the Ericson Psychological Stage Inventory ([EPSI]; Rosenthal, Gurney, & Moore, 1981, as cited in Sartor and Youniss, 2002) was used to survey the students. The EPSI is a 5 point Likert scale used to assess the degree to which identity achievement versus identity confusion had been successfully negotiated by the students. Items measured included (a) parental support, (b) parental social monitoring, and (c) school support. Literal quotations from the students were included in the report. The descriptive analysis resulted in an overall mean identity achievement of 3.70. Also, t tests were used to understand the difference between genders and grades. It was found that males and females had similar grades. A comparison between girls and boys showed girls reporting higher parental levels of (a) support ($t(932) = -3.82, p < .001$), (b) social monitoring ($t(954) = -4.56, p < .001$), and (c) school monitoring ($t(957) = -2.73, p < .01$).

As Sartor and Youniss predicted, there was a significant positive correlation between identity achievement and the three factors of parental support, parental social monitoring, and school support, which held true for both grades and for both males and females by gender ($f(2, 930) = 27.91, p < .001$) as well as grade ($f(2, 955) = 32.77, p < .001$). However, the association between support and identity was stronger for boys than for girls. In addition, there was a relationship between social monitoring and identity. For identity, there was a significant interaction by gender ($f(2, 952) = 21.66, p < .001$) and by grade ($f(2, 977) = 21.44, p < .001$). Social monitoring and identity relationships
were more strongly significant for girls than boys, and tenth grade was stronger than twelfth grade.

The results for school monitoring and identity found by gender \( f(2,955) = 21.21, p < .001 \) and grade \( f(2, 980) = 20.76, p < .001 \) indicated four major aspects of the relationship between parenting and adolescent development:

1. Higher identity achievement was associated with parents’ knowledge of daily activities;
2. Identity achievement was positively related to emotional parental support;
3. Identity achievement did not differ by gender; and
4. Differences in identity achievement between tenth and twelfth grade students were not evident in this sample, even though there was evidence that the relationship between identity achievement and parental support/monitoring changed with age.

In addition, Sartor and Youniss (2002) described two kinds of parental control: (a) psychological (e.g., guilt induction and love withdrawal) and (b) behavioral (e.g., parental monitoring, as in reasoning and encouragement). According to these researchers, behavioral control served as a social function which led to self-regulation in adolescents.

Sartor and Youniss, (2002) found that even though youth became more peer focused during adolescence, parents were still an important source of emotional support. Instead of disrupting the individuation process, parental support nourished it. Also, while gender differences were not found in this sample, Sartor and Youniss cited previous findings, including those by Guerrero and Afifi, 1995, and Holmbeck and Hill, 1986, suggesting that males and females take different paths toward identity achievement. The girls in this study showed a higher level of parental support, although this did not mean higher identity scores, despite the fact that parental support often leads to higher scores on the EPSI, according to Ericson (1988, as cited in Sartor and Youniss). What the authors did suggest was the possibility that the parent-adolescent relationship served as a launching pad for adolescents to develop their sense of self, and that as they moved into later adolescence, nonpeer influences played a larger role in identity development. These findings supported the idea that the formation of adolescent identity led to a restructuring of the parent-adolescent relationship instead of a break in family ties. Sartor and Youniss stated that the findings have provided “evidence that the individuation process involves a delicate balance between freedom and relatedness to parents” (p. 232). Because adolescence is a period of exploration, it should take place within a secure (i.e., parental) base.

Sartore and Youniss (2002) emphasized that adolescents even beyond the middle school years, at the ages of 15 to 17 years, still needed the support of their parents in positive ways. Such support allowed them to develop their identity and become young adults who can function and adjust well to the demands of life.

**Parental Involvement with Adolescent Education**

If Kuwaiti middle school supervisors are going to initiate successful outreach programs designed to involve parents in their children’s education, it is important to understand the differences between parental interaction with their male and female children, because this difference can affect the focus of these programs. Because
Kuwait’s middle schools are divided into separate schools for boys and girls, parental involvement might have to take a different form for each gender, depending on the tensions and conflicts between boys and girls and their parents.

Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000) conducted a comparative study to determine whether parental involvement was different for girls than for boys for several reasons. First, they recognized that while parents’ involvement in their children’s education has been the subject of research for several decades, very little information seemed to have been gathered about whether parents’ involvement differed for daughters and sons. Secondly, while the authors acknowledged that there has been a greater degree of gender equality expressed over the last few decades, recent studies, such as the one by Harris and Morgan (1991, as cited in Carter & Wojtkiewicz) seemed to suggest that parents favor sons over daughters in certain situations. They provided the example that fathers, who have sons, seem to be more involved with their children.

The third reason Carter & Wojtkiewicz (2000) provided for their study was that the current literature (Lorber, 1994; Wellesley College Center for Research on Women, 1992; both as cited in Carter & Wojtkiewicz) on gender role socialization had indicated that parents continued to treat daughters and sons differently because of the still persistent patriarchal values of society, which placed a greater emphasis on the success of males than of females. For example, Carter and Wojtkiewicz reported that, in traditional social practices, sons were provided with greater opportunities for personal autonomy and achievement than were daughters. According to the typical socialization of gender roles, females were taught to be more dependent and focused. These researchers also suggested that parents expected their male children to do better in mathematics and science than their female children, which led to gender bias in school and resulted in girls’ lower self-esteem in the area of their perceived mathematical abilities. They acknowledged that females earned higher grades and were slightly more likely to finish their high school education than males were and entered and graduated from college at about the same rate as boys. However, after college, women still seemed to have a lower status on the job, which the societal emphasis on girls being obedient and pleasing others might explain. Yet, because girls were discouraged from enrolling in mathematic and science courses in school, they were not prepared for employment in these fields after college and have had to take the lower income level jobs available to them.

Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000) referred to Bogenschneider’s 1997 study, one of the few studies that focused on gender differences, which suggested that while fathers’ involvement with their children did not differ in terms of gender, mothers were more involved with their daughters than with their sons. They also referred to other researchers (Muller, 1993, 1998; Sui-Chu & Willms, 1996) who had shown that daughters talked more with their parents about school matters than did sons, although there was some indication that parents talk more frequently with their children if their grades were good, regardless of gender, and of the fact that females were generally better students with higher grades. In addition, parents seemed to communicate more with their sons than with their daughters on school matters. Also, they were more involved with their sons than their daughters in nonacademic activities. At the same time, it was noted that daughters were more strictly supervised than sons, which reflected the traditional concept that females were socialized to be more dependent and obedient, while sons were socialized to be more independent and self-willed.
Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000) hypothesized that daughters would talk more than sons about educational issues with their parents, which might lead to the differences in the parental help that they received. Also, because parents seemed to have higher expectations for sons than for daughters, the authors decided to investigate this issue further.

For their study, Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000) used data used drawn from 1,052 schools in the U.S. with approximately 25,000 eighth grade students. These data were originally obtained by staff of the National Educational Longitudinal Study ([NELS]; 1988, as cited in Carter & Wojtkiewicz) funded by the National Center for Educational Statistics. In this study, parental involvement was analyzed from the perspective of the adolescent; that is, “the students’ accounts were considered important indicators of how they experienced parental involvement with their education” (p. 34). Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to check reliability. The seven dependent variables in this study were (a) school discussion, (b) parent-school connections, (c) parental expectations, (d) parental supervision, (e) parental attendance at school events, (f) parents’ limitations about going out, and (g) parents’ limitation on watching television.

The independent variables were grades, test scores, and aspirations (Carter & Wojtkiewicz, 2000). Although the authors demonstrated that parental involvement was related to gender differences in schools’ test scores as well as educational aspirations, the relationship between academic performance and parental involvement remained unclear. It is possible that parents are more involved with adolescents who struggle with school or with those who do well, because the students’ higher aspirations mean they ask for more help.

Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000) identified some important gender differences in regard to parents and their adolescent girl and boy children. While three of the hypotheses supported the idea that parents helped daughters in some ways and sons in others, the results suggested that daughters received more attention from their parents than did the sons on four of the seven measures of involvement (i.e., the dependent variables). The findings also supported the authors’ hypothesis that daughters engaged in discussions about educational matters more frequently with their parents than did sons. In addition, contrary to a previous hypothesis about parental expectations, the parents had higher expectations for their daughters’ educational attainment.

In regard to parent-school connections, Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000) reported that parents appeared to be more involved in school with their sons, which placed daughters at a disadvantage, especially when the involvement was positive in nature and not driven by a behavioral problem. The results also indicated that parents were less likely to check their daughters’ homework than their sons’. According to Carter and Wojtkiewicz, because females were generally socialized to be good students, it was possible that parents felt less inclined to check their homework and trusted them to be good girls who always did their homework. No gender differences were found in regard to the amount of time that boys and girls were allowed to watch television, although, girls were more likely than boys to have their parents limit the time spent socializing with their friends. However, contrary to the original hypothesis, parents spent more time at school in attendance at events for their daughters than for their sons. Although when academic factors were controlled, and the differences were less, there was an indication that the
daughters’ performance as better students contributed to parents’ high attendance at more of their daughters’ school events.

Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000) demonstrated that some of the previous hypotheses about gender differences and parental involvement did not apply for this study. In three of the hypotheses, it was suggested that parents help daughters differently than sons, but in contrast to generally held educational beliefs, the results indicated that daughters received more attention from their parents than did sons on four of the seven involvement measures, not on academic factors. However, this involvement might indicate that these adolescent females were still more dependent on their parents than were adolescent males, an indication of the persistence of traditional gender socialization. Another possibility might be that there existed a more reciprocal arrangement between daughters and parents, especially for those daughters who were more obedient traditional females than were their male counterparts. In general then, but not because of academic factors, parents seemed to be more involved with their adolescent daughters than their adolescent sons, which the authors believed raised questions about whether parents were more involved with their daughters because they perceived women to be at a disadvantage in the securing a high-paying or prestigious job. Possibly parents helped daughters more for this reason. However, if this is the case, what other mechanisms keep women from achieving as much success as men in the work place?

What is called for is a further investigation to clarify parents’ motivation for their stronger involvement with daughters than sons. Is their uneven involvement a result of a reaction to social changes for women or is this involvement simply a continuation of traditional socialization practices? The answers to these questions would contribute to a greater understanding of gender differences in both the experiences and outcomes of male and female students.

*Parent-Adolescent Relationships and Identity Formation*

The purpose of the Allison and Schultz (2004) study was to (a) extend the current knowledge of parent-adolescent conflict during the transitional years of later childhood and early adolescence, (b) identify the domains of conflict between parents and young adolescents, and (c) examine both gender and age related variations in parent-adult conflict in these domains during this period. They noted that most studies have been done with older adolescents (e.g., 12-18 years) and insufficient research had been conducted on early adolescence (e.g., 11-14 or 11-16 years). Steinberg and Hill (1978, as cited in Allison & Schultz) reported that the changes in the relationship between parents and children during early and middle adolescence led to greater conflict than they did during preadolescence and later adolescence. Allison and Schultz proposed to look more carefully at the areas of conflict to extend the knowledge of this problem.

The Allison and Schultz (2004) sample consisted of 357 youths, 165 boys and 192 girls in Grades 6, 7, and 8, who ranged in age from 11.8-14.1 years and attended four middle or junior high schools in Ohio. Approximately 82% were Anglo Americans, 15% were African Americans, and the remaining 3% were Hispanic, Asian, and Native Americans. The majority (80%) lived with two parents or one parent and another adult, and 20% lived in single parent homes.
Allison and Schultz (2004) used the Issues Checklist developed by Printz and Brooks-Gunn (1979, as cited in Allison & Schultz), which consisted of 40 items that represented areas of conflict between young adolescents and parents (Allison & Schultz). The student was asked to rate the conflict or no conflict issue on a 3 point scale, ranging from 1 (calm) to 2 (a little angry) and 3 (angry). The checklist had two scores: one for the total number of issues discussed (i.e., range = 0-40) and one for the average intensity of the conflicts (i.e., range = 1-3). Higher scores indicated more intense or frequent conflict, while low scores indicated less frequent or intense conflict.

Allison and Schultz (2004) reported that student responses indicated that almost all had some kind of parental conflict (99.2%), from 1 issue to all 40; the average was 14.44 issues (SD = 7.50). Parent-son conflicts were highest in Grade 7 where \( M = 20.29 \) while in Grade 6 \( M = 16.72 \) and in Grade 8 \( M = 16.53 \). No differences were found in the frequency of conflict between parents and daughters in the three grades, although throughout the study, the authors indicated that the daughter-mother conflict seemed to be higher than other combinations, such as mother-son and father-daughter. Allison and Schultz (2004) found that the 1 (calm) to 3 (angry) range averaged as moderately intense (\( M = 1.77, SD = 0.40 \)). Girls (\( M = 1.81 \)) rated more intense conflicts than boys (\( M = 1.69 \)) across all three grade levels. There was no main effect for grade (\( F (2,351) = 0.07, p = .929 \)) and no Grade x Gender interaction (\( F (2,351) = 0.82 \)). Students reported 13 areas or domains of conflict on the list: (a) substance abuse, (b) personal autonomy or jurisdiction or both, (c) negative personal or moral characteristics or both, (d) meal choices or table manners or both, (e) personal appearance, (f) punctuality or curfews or both, (g) personal hygiene, (h) television viewing, (i) irritating or disruptive behavior or both, (j) homework or school performance or both, (k) household chores, (l) room care, and (m) inconsiderate behavior at home (p. 110).

The most frequent conflicts during the early adolescent years, that is, those that had more than a 45.46% rating across the domains, were identified as household chores, room care, and homework or school performance or both (range = 61-79%; Allison & Schultz, 2004). Other high conflict areas included (a) punctuality or curfews or both, (b) inconsiderate behavior at home, (c) television viewing, and (d) irritating or disruptive behavior or both at home. Less frequently chosen factors included (a) personal autonomy or jurisdiction or both, (b) personal appearance, (c) negative personal and moral characteristics, and (d) substance abuse. The most intense conflicts, with a rating of more than 1.74 out of 3, were (a) irritating or disruptive behavior at home or both, (b) negative personal or moral characteristics or both, and (c) homework or school performance or both (range = 1.92-1.95). Less intense conflicts, with a rating below the overall mean, occurred over (a) room care, (b) household chores, (c) inconsiderate behavior, (d) television viewing, and (e) personal hygiene. The least intense choices involved meal choices or table manners or both and substance abuse.

According to Allison and Schultz (2004), there seemed to be sufficient evidence to support the position that parent-adolescent conflict was at its peak in early adolescence, with a significant decline through mid-adolescence to its lowest levels in late adolescence. In the early adolescence, from 11-14 years old, the youths reported parental conflicts related to nearly half of the 40 discrete issues in the Issues Checklist. Females reported more intense conflicts than males, and although no differences were
found between boys and girls in the frequency of parental conflicts, the frequency of conflicts between parents and their sons was highest in Grade 7.

Because the focus of this study was adolescent conflicts in general, there was not a more discriminating analysis of mother-daughter and father-son conflicts, but the results suggested that the gender of the adolescent was a differentiating factor that was reflected in the level of intensity or emotionality. In addition, gender was a factor in the frequency of conflict over some of the items on the checklist, with more frequent conflict occurring between parent and daughter than between parent and son, which Allison and Schultz have suggested might be an indication of gender-typing in the socialization of boys compared to girls. For example, household chores and personal appearance were high on the conflict list for girls, an indication that parents identified these items as feminine factors. The authors noted that the more interesting results pertained to the issues in which there was discord between levels of frequency and intensity (e.g., frequent but not intense, such as chores, room care, and TV viewing) and the issues that generated frequent but not intense conflicts (e.g., personal autonomy or jurisdiction or both and negative or personal characteristics or both).

In summary, Allison and Schultz’s (2004) results seemed to demonstrate the productiveness of differentiating both the frequency and the intensity of parent-adolescent conflict. This approach seemed to yield a more complete picture of this issue. Investigation of each of the discrete issues was considered to be a more productive approach than just the total level of conflict, because there was a great degree of variance when each issue was rated. In addition, Allison and Schultz identified gender-typing in both frequency and intensity of conflict between parents and their daughters. Despite the limitations of the study (e.g., not a random sample, predominantly Anglo American participants from one Midwestern state, lack of representation of the full spectrum of socioeconomic statuses, and data collected exclusively from the adolescents), the results clearly indicated a “pressing need” (p. 116) to examine conflict across more diverse and representative samples to see if these results hold true in other cases of frequent and intense conflict between parents and early adolescents.

This final section of the literature review addressed helping families with ways to support student achievement and social identity. Most of the studies in the previous sections of this review focused on educators’ roles in initiating and facilitating family involvement in their children’s education. But for parents to become involved in the academic success of their children, it was also necessary to understand child-parent interaction outside of the school. Therefore, there is need to study family involvement by focusing on the quality and quantity of this involvement.

The parents’ educational levels and socioeconomic resources can have an impact on their children’s achievement. These can play a part in protecting the students and guiding them to a safe and productive future. No matter what the education and resources of the parents are, it is important they involve themselves with student homework, even if it is just ensuring that the homework is completed, and they establish an environment to support the students’ development at home. However, it is not easy for parents to act on these goals without the leadership and initiatives from the schools. One of the most important keys for preparing parents to target these goals is to create training programs that teach them how to become involved in their children’s academic progress.
The relationship between parental involvement and the achievement and social growth of adolescent students is significant, because it helps to shape an adolescent’s identity. This, in turn, enables the adolescent to establish a trusting relationship with his or her parents under the home roof.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, issues of family involvement were addressed from many aspects in order to understand (a) the involvement of families and middle schools, (b) the background of families’ involvement with schools, (c) the multiple factors related to family involvement, and (d) how family involvement with adolescent children has been studied over time. Studies from Africa and the U.S. were discussed to provide information about educating middle school students for supervisors and other educators in Kuwait as well as internationally in order to better understand the importance of family involvement with middle schools students.

The research reviewed in this chapter has provided the foundation and structure to support the areas to be examined in the present investigation of “Supervisors’ Attitudes toward Family Involvement in Kuwait Middle Schools.” The variables of interest in this study, including issues related to gender, responsibility for encouraging family involvement, the relative importance of different types of family involvement, the barriers that challenge this involvement, and practices that families use to support the achievement and social growth of their adolescent children, have been examined closely. Chapter 3 presents the plan to investigate family involvement from the perspective of supervisors in Kuwaiti middle schools. The study's design and data management procedures are described in depth.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides an overview of the methodology used in this study as well as the rationale for using a quantitative descriptive design. An overview and a detailed description of the procedures used for collecting, analyzing, and managing the data follow.

Overview of the Methods

Although the intent of this inquiry was to examine the involvement of families with their children in middle schools in Kuwait, the specific purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes of supervisors (head teachers) toward the involvement of Kuwaiti families in the education of their middle school age children, as well as their attitudes regarding the roles, efficacy, and opportunities for family involvement in schools (Epstein, 1996b; Gettinger & Guetschow, 1998; Smith, 2002). This study was limited to ascertaining the opinions and perceptions of middle school supervisors for two reasons:

1. As the majority of literature reviewed in chapter 2 indicated, initiatives to involve families in their children’s education must come from the schools; and
2. Depending on the culture of a Kuwaiti family, it can be very difficult for any researcher to ask parents directly about their children when investigating family issues in general or issues specifically related to schools (Alkhaldi, 2004).

Supervisors’ attitudes toward the involvement of families with middle school students in Kuwait was examined because supervisors play a major role in the relationship between families and teachers. In accordance with a supervisor’s job description, a middle school supervisor in Kuwait serves as a troubleshooter and facilitator who manages every aspects of the family-school relationship (Ministry of Education, 2004b). Within the schools, supervisors directly and closely lead teachers, and they have the right to report teachers’ implementations and problems to school principals (Evaluation Department, 2002).

Research Questions

The following questions, which were based on the six types of family involvement proposed by Epstein (1996c), guided the investigation conducted in this study regarding family involvement in middle school education:

1. Are there significant differences, by gender and district, in attitudes about family involvement among Kuwaiti middle school supervisors?
2. At what level of responsibility (administrators, supervisors, families, teachers, students) is family involvement initiated in Kuwait middle schools?
3. According to supervisors, what is the importance of each type of family involvement that Kuwaiti middle schools should primarily focus on practicing?
4. What barriers do supervisors perceive as important challenges to family involvement?
5. According to supervisors, what is the degree of importance for each type of involvement in regard to family’s participation in their child’s middle school years?
Procedures

Quantitative descriptive methods were used in this study to analyze survey data collected from the supervisors in Kuwaiti middle schools in order to find out their attitudes toward family involvement. The procedures used in this study and reasons for their uses are detailed in the sections that follow.

Design of the Study

According to Miller (1984), direct observation, tests or surveys can be utilized to collect data. For this study, the researcher used a survey instrument to collect data. This survey was originally developed by MacNeille (2003), who utilized it in her study examining family involvement in high schools in Navajo County, Arizona. MacNeille has granted permission to use this instrument in the present study (see Appendix A). In order to address the goals of this study and the requirements of the researcher’s scholarship from Kuwait University, the researcher has adapted the focus of the survey items to make them applicable to middle school supervisors in Kuwait.

Setting for the Study

The study was conducted in the state of Kuwait, specifically with a sample of supervisors who worked in the middle schools. This group of educators was selected because they have an important role in the middle schools and work to help the school staff reach their goals. One of the important roles of supervisors is to bridge the gap between families and schools to help assure a good education for adolescent students (Ministry of Education, 2004b).

Because family involvement is a new area of interest in the field of education in the state of Kuwait, research in this area allowed the author to fulfill his scholarship obligations to Kuwait University, which required the study of a new and unique subject. The author’s reading in the areas of leadership, supervision, and the involvement of families in the education of their children led him to the decision to write his dissertation on this subject. During the middle school years, there is a greater increase in students’ academic and behavioral problems than there is during the elementary and high school years in Kuwait (Al Kandari, 2002; Ministry of Education, Education College, 2002). In addition, there is a need to help adolescent students achieve success during this stage of life in order to ensure their progress toward becoming useful members of Kuwaiti society (Al-Kathwari, 2002; Muhammad & Morsi, 2000). Because of cultural issues that make it difficult to survey a representative sample of the families of middle school children, the researcher decided to focus on the responses of a sample of middle school supervisors (head teachers), because according to their job description, they serve as liaisons between the school and the school community, which includes not only school staff but also students and their parents (Ministry of Education, 2004b).
Table 3.1

Number of Schools, Teachers, and Students in Kuwait Middle School Districts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Al-Ahmadi</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>1,937</td>
<td>19,094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Asemah</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1,932</td>
<td>17,598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Farwaniya</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1,895</td>
<td>17,292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Jahra</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1,581</td>
<td>16,491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawalli</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1,306</td>
<td>14,080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moubark Al-Kabeer</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1,240</td>
<td>13,085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>166</td>
<td>9,891</td>
<td>97,640</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3.2

The Number of Male and Female Middle School Supervisors (N = 2,201) by School District

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Male head teachers</th>
<th>Female head teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Al-Ahmadi</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Asemah</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Farwaniya</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Jahra</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawalli</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moubark Al-Kabeer</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1043</td>
<td>1158</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The sample surveyed consisted of supervisors in middle schools in the six Kuwait school districts, Al-Ahmadi, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, and Moubark Al-Kabeer. These districts represent rural, suburban and urban areas. Al-Ahamadi district, which is located in the countryside south of Kuwait City, has 37 middle schools and serves 19,094 students with 1937 teachers. Al-Jahra, which is located in the countryside
west of Kuwait City, has 27 middle schools and serves 16,491 students with 1581 teachers. Hawalli, which is one of the urban districts and is located in the middle of the state of Kuwait, has 21 middle schools serving 14,080 students with 1306 teachers. Al-Asemah district, located in Al-Asemah, the capital of Kuwait, is another urban district which has 35 middle schools serving 17,598 students with 1932 teachers. Al-Farwaniya, a suburban district located in the southwest of Kuwait City, has 28 middle schools serving 17,292 students with 1895 teachers. Moubark Al-Kabeer, a new suburban district located south of Kuwait City, has 18 middle schools serving 13,085 students with 1240 teachers. Table 3.1 on page 92 illustrates these data.

The study was conducted using Kuwaiti middle school supervisors who were employed in these six districts, which had 166 middle schools with a total enrollment of 97,640 students in 2004 (Ministry of Education, 2004 b). Of the 9,891 teachers working in these middle schools, approximately 2,200 serve as middle school supervisors or head teachers. There are 1,043 male supervisors who worked in the boys’ middle schools, and 1,158 female supervisors who worked in the girls’ middle schools (Al-Thafire, 2004). Table 3.2 on page 93 illustrates these data.

Selection of the Sample

For this study, the randomly stratified, proportional sample (i.e., based on the number of the supervisors employed in each district) consisted of 447 (\(N = 447\)) supervisors who were selected from the six Kuwaiti school districts (See Table 3.3). There were 215 male supervisors who worked in the Kuwaiti middle schools for boys and 232 female supervisors who worked in the Kuwaiti middle schools for girls.

Table 3.3
The Randomly Stratified Proportional Sample (\(N = 447\)) of Middle School Supervisors by District

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Male supervisors</th>
<th>Female supervisors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Al-Ahmadi</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Asemah</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Farwaniya</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Jahra</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawalli</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moubark Al-Kabeer</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>215</strong></td>
<td><strong>232</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Collection

Initial permission to conduct the study was granted by the Institutional Review Board at Virginia Tech. Additional letters of support from the Chair of the Department of School Administration and Planning and the Dean of the College of Education at Kuwait University were used to secure permission from the Ministry of Education allowing the researcher to distribute the survey to supervisors in middle schools throughout the six identified districts. (See Appendixes B, C, and D.)
Once permission to conduct the study had been granted, the researcher randomly selected schools within each district, meeting personally with the principals to describe the study and urge them to encourage their supervisors to participate in the survey. The principals were contacted by telephone a week later to determine the number of supervisors from their schools who would be participating in the study. The researcher then hand delivered the survey instruments to each principal for random distribution to the supervisors. Instructions were given for supervisors to return the surveys anonymously in a brown envelope to the school office. A time frame of 30 days was given participants to complete the survey, but most returned their surveys within 20 days of distribution. The researcher then collected the completed survey instruments from the school offices.

**Development of the Instrument**

As noted above, the instrument used to collect data for this study was an adaptation of a survey developed by MacNeill (2003), who constructed the items addressed in the survey from Epstein’s six types of family involvement. MacNeill used the Chi-square statistic to analyze the data, but encountered difficulties due to low response frequencies among various categories in the survey. Therefore, in the revised version of the survey developed for this study, questions were rephrased to a Likert scale format to increase the likelihood of a distributed response pattern. The participants were given four options to choose from in their responses, usually in the form of phrases such as (1) Strongly agree, (2) Agree, (3) Disagree or (4) Strongly disagree (Suskie, 1996). To ensure the validity and reliability of this revised survey, a pilot study was conducted in Kuwait and subsequent revisions to the survey were made.

The design of the survey, titled *Supervisors’ Attitudes toward Family Involvement in Kuwait Middle Schools*, was simple to make response easy, thereby encouraging participants to complete all the questions. It was anticipated that no more than 10 minutes would be required for the supervisors to complete the survey. Appendix F provides the English version of the survey; Appendix H provides the Arabic version actually used to survey the participating Kuwaiti middle school supervisors.

In the demographic information section, the participants were asked to identify their school district and gender. Each district was given a numerical code (1) Al-Ahmadi, (2) Al-Asemah, (3) Al-Farwaniya, (4) Al-Jahra, (5) Hawalli, and (6) Moubark Al-Kabeer). Each supervisor’s gender was coded as (1) male, or (2) female. The survey instrument consisted of 16 questions addressing issues of family involvement in Kuwait middle schools. The first 12 questions were designed to allow the researcher to test whether the Kuwaiti middle school supervisors’ attitudes toward family involvement were contingent on their gender and their school district. In other words, these questions answered the question of whether or not supervisors’ attitudes toward family involvement were independent of their gender and their districts. Statistical tables are presented in Chapter 4 to illustrate the responses to questions 1 through 12.

In Question 13, the participating supervisors were asked to give their opinion about who is responsible for initiating parental involvement in Kuwaiti middle schools. Participants indicated the level of responsibility across five subitems: (a) administrators, (b) supervisors, (c) parents, (d) teachers, and (e) students. Participants responded to the
question using four Likert type response choices: very responsible, responsible, less responsible, and not responsible.

In Question 14, the participating supervisors were asked to identify the degree of importance for each type of family involvement on which school staff should focus. Participants indicated the types of family involvement across six subitems, which were related to Epstein's (1996c) six types of family involvement: (a) parenting, (b) communicating, (c) volunteering, (d) learning at home, (e) decision making, and (f) collaborating with the community. Participants responded to the question using four Likert type response choices: very important, important, less important, and not important.

In Question 15, the participating supervisors were asked to identify the importance of each barrier to families being more involved in their child’s middle school education. Participants indicated barriers to family involvement across six subitems: (a) parents’ lack of time, (b) teachers’ lack of time, (c) administrators’ lack of encouragement, (d) students’ increasing independence, (e) multiple teachers with large numbers of students, and (f) adolescents’ reduced need for parental support. Participants responded to the question using four Likert type response choices: very important, important, less important, and not important.

In Question 16, the participating supervisors were asked to identify the degree of importance for each type of involvement in regard to parents’ participation during their child’s middle school years. Participants indicated the degree of importance across five subitems derived from Epstein's (1996c) six types of involvement: (a) providing a home environment that supports learning, (b) communicating regularly with school personnel, (c) volunteering at school, (d) assisting students at home, and (e) being involved with parent organizations and school decision-making. Participants responded to the question using four Likert type response choices: very important, important, less important, and not important.

Linking the Instrument to Epstein’s Conceptual Framework

Of the first 12 questions on the survey, the first three were introductory and the remaining nine were based on Epstein’s (1996c) framework of family involvement in education. Questions 1 and 2 introduced the supervisors to the subject of family involvement and asked them about the importance of family involvement during the middle school years of education. The purpose of Question 3 was to determine whether or not supervisors were aware of and believed the research findings that family involvement with school increased academic success for middle schools students (MacNeill, 2003).

Questions 4-12 were based on Epstein’s six major types of family involvement linked to the relations between schools, families, and communities that improved students’ academic achievement, especially for the middle grades. These six types support family involvement with their adolescents’ learning and school success (Epstein, 1996a). Type 1 in Epstein’s model, which focuses on parenting, was addressed in Questions 4 and 5. Type 2, which addresses basic obligations of schools, was investigated in Questions 5, 6, and 7. Type 3, which addresses involvement at school, was the focus of Question 9. Type 4, which focuses on learning at home, was addressed in Question 10. Type 5, which focuses on decision making, and Type 6, which focuses on collaborating with the community, were addressed in Questions 11 and 12 (MacNeill, 2003).
Linking the Instrument to the Research Questions

The instrument was developed so that one or more of the questions in the survey addressed each of the research questions guiding this study. Questions 1-12 were designed to elicit Kuwaiti middle school supervisors’ responses to the first research question: Do the gender of the supervisor and the school district where he or she works make significant differences in attitudes about family involvement among Kuwaiti middle school supervisors?

Question 13 on the survey was designed to elicit a response to the second research question: At what level of responsibility (administrators, supervisors, families, teachers, and students) is family involvement initiated in Kuwait middle schools? Survey question 14 was constructed to elicit supervisors’ opinions on the third research question: According to supervisors, what is the relative importance of each type of family involvement that Kuwait’s middle schools should primarily focus on practicing? This question was designed to find out which of Epstein’s (1996c) six types of involvement were considered important for Kuwait middle schools to practice.

Question 15 addressed the fourth research question: What barriers do supervisors perceive as important challenges to family involvement? Survey question 16, which asked the supervisors to rank the importance of each type of family involvement, addressed the fifth research question: According to supervisors, what is the degree of importance for each type of involvement in regard to family’s participation in their child’s middle school years?

Testing the Instrument

A pilot study was conducted to determine whether the survey would be valid to use with the supervisors in the Kuwait middle schools. This pilot study consisted of three elements:

1. The survey was translated into Arabic by an authorized translator, and the survey was translated back into English by another authorized translator to ensure accuracy and face validity of the English-Arabic translated version of the original survey.
2. To check for content validity, three professors from the Administration and Planning Department in the College of Education at Kuwait University (2 males, 1 female) as well as three Kuwaiti middle school supervisors (2 females, 1 male), who were not part of the sample, reviewed the instrument to make sure that the questions accurately reflected or assessed the specific concept that the author was attempting to measure. These six educators provided feedback to the author. According to the three professors, the academic language used in the survey was correct. However, the supervisors offered the practical suggestion of re-wording the term family involvement in Arabic to convey the more positive and practical meaning of parents being involved, or actively participating, in their child’s education. The questions on the survey instrument were altered to reflect this feedback.
3. To check for instrument reliability, meaning the degree to which question sets on the survey were consistent and stable in measuring the intended constructs, a sample similar to the intended sample was given the survey. This sample consisted
of a proportional sample of male and female supervisors based on the number from the stratified, proportional sample \(N = 447\) of supervisors in Kuwait middle schools. A total of 99 supervisors took part in the pilot study; of these, 47 were males and 52 were females. Cronbach’s alpha was used to assess whether each item set was a reliable indicator of that construct. In the sample, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.88 which means that the instrument was reliable.

The pilot study and analysis of the collected data were conducted during December, 2004. During January and February of 2005, this researcher administered the survey to the entire sample of middle school supervisors and began the analysis of the collected data.

Data Analysis

After the data were collected from the Kuwaiti middle school supervisors, SPSS 11.0™ was used to conduct the analysis. This statistical analysis program was used to report the frequencies of the participants’ responses to questions concerning family involvement. The \(t\)-test was used to examine if there was a significant difference in scores of the mean attitudes about family involvement (i.e., items 1-12) between male and female supervisors. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine if there was a difference in attitudes towards family involvement scores (i.e., items 1-12) for the six districts (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer).

Typical questions in the survey, which uses a Likert Scale, provided the respondents with four possible answers from which to choose. For example, they were asked to indicate whether they Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, or Strongly Disagree (Suskie, 1996) by circling the response that best reflected their opinion. Considerable scholarly debate exists about whether parametric or nonparametric methods should be used to analyze responses based on a Likert scale. Some researchers have contended that the Likert scale incorporates direction but not equal intervals, thus rendering these data ordinal in nature. Because means cannot be legitimately derived from ordinal data, parametric tests of significance such as \(t\)-tests and ANOVAs are not indicated. Other researchers, however, have contended that directionality and equal intervals can be assumed. Accepting this assumption also requires that the data not exhibit a significant departure from normality, which frequently cannot be met using a Likert scale instrument.

In chapter 4, results are presented in tabled form indicating (a) the independent sample \(t\) tests conducted to compare the mean scores by gender for supervisors’ attitudes, (b) the results of the one–way ANOVA conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district, and (c) the results of the frequency distributions for the participants’ responses.

The data for this study were considered confidential and restricted to analysis only by this researcher. The completed surveys were kept in a locked file cabinet; only this researcher had access to it. In addition, after 3 years, the original surveys will be destroyed.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the methodology applied in this study as well as the rationale for the use of a quantitative descriptive design. It has also provided a detailed description of the procedures used for the collection, analysis, and management of
the data. The development of the instrument was also described as were the links between the survey items, Epstein’s (1996c) conceptual framework, and the research questions. The next section provides a detailed description of the results of the analysis of the data gathered from the 447 male and female middle supervisors selected from the six Kuwaiti school districts.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the attitudes of Kuwaiti middle school supervisors toward family involvement in the education of middle school students. The questions guiding this study were based on the six types of family involvement proposed by Epstein (1996c). Quantitative descriptive methods were used to conduct this analysis. The survey instrument was developed so that one or more of the questions addressed each of the research questions guiding this study. The survey instrument was also designed to allow the researcher to test whether or not the Kuwaiti middle school supervisors’ attitudes toward family involvement were contingent on their gender and their school district. The tables that follow were developed to illustrate the results for each research question.

Each of the five sections of this chapter reports on the results of the analyses of the responses to each of the study’s five research questions. The first section addresses responses to questions 1-12 of the survey, which were designed to answer the first research question, and reports on the mean difference, by gender and by district, in attitudes about family involvement among Kuwaiti middle school supervisors. The remaining sections address the frequency of responses to questions 13-16 of the survey. The second section provides a description of the level of responsibility (e.g., administrators, supervisors, families, teachers, and students) at which family involvement was initiated in Kuwaiti middle schools. The third section gives a description of how participants rated the importance of each type of family involvement that Kuwaiti middle schools should primarily focus on practicing. The fourth section provides the ranking of the barriers that supervisors perceived as important challenges to family involvement. The fifth and final section give a description of the degree of importance for each type of involvement in regard to a family’s participation in their child’s middle school years. It should be noted that the percentage of missing data to questions 13-16 ranges from .4% - 3.8%. It is not estimated that these missing data were systematically related to the questions asked.

Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward Family Involvement

Demographic Statistics by District and Gender

Before responding to items 1-12 on the survey, the participants were asked to identify their school district (i.e. Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) and gender so that this information could be used to find out if there was a significant difference between male and female attitudes regarding parental involvement. Items 1-12 were designed to elicit Kuwaiti middle school supervisors’ responses to the first research question: Do the gender of the supervisor and the school district where he or she works make significant differences in attitudes about family involvement among Kuwaiti middle school supervisors?

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward item 1: Parent(s) should be involved in their child's middle
school. There was no significant difference for males \((M = 1.15, SD = .428)\), and females \((M = 1.17, SD = .379)\), \(t(445) = -.618, p = .54\). Table 4.1 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.1
*Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 1: Parent(s) Should Be Involved In Their Child's Middle School*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(M)</th>
<th>(SD)</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>(t)</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>1.115</td>
<td>.428</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>-.618</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>.379</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 1 (i.e., Parent(s) should be involved in their child's middle school). There was not a statistically significant difference at the \(p < .05\) level in item 1 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.2 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.2
*Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward Parental Involvement In Their Child's Middle School*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(SS)</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>(MS)</th>
<th>(F)</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts</td>
<td>.856</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>1.056</td>
<td>.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(between Groups)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts</td>
<td>71.546</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(within Groups)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample \(t\)-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors' attitudes toward item 2: Parental involvement during the middle school years of education is as important as during the primary school years of education. There was no significant difference for males \((M = 1.28, SD = .587)\), and females \((M = 1.30, SD = .506)\), \(t(444) = -.373, p = .709\). Table 4.3 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.3
Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 2: Parental Involvement During the Middle School Years of Education is as Important as During the Primary School Years of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>444</td>
<td>-.373</td>
<td>.709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.506</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 2 (i.e., parental involvement during the middle school years of education is as important as during the primary school years of education). There was not a statistically significant difference at the \( p < .05 \) level in item 2 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.4 on page 108 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.4
Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward Parental Involvement During the Middle School Years of Education is as Important as During the Primary Years of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts (between Groups)</td>
<td>1.850</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>1.246</td>
<td>.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts (within Groups)</td>
<td>130.673</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>.287</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample \( t \)-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward item 3: Parental involvement improves middle school students’ academic success with higher grades and test scores, better attendance, more completed homework, and higher graduation rates. There was no significant difference for males \((M = 1.26, SD = .490)\), and females \((M = 1.30, SD = .554)\), \( t (438) = -.776, p = .438 \). Table 4.5 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.5
Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 3: Parental Involvement Improves Middle School Students’ Academic Success with Higher Grades and Test Scores, Better Attendance, More Completed Homework, and Higher Graduation Rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.490</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>-.776</td>
<td>.438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 3 (i.e., parental involvement improves middle school students’ academic success with higher grade and test scores, better attendance, more completed homework, and higher graduation rates). There was not a statistically significant difference at the \( p < .05 \) level in item 3 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.6 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.6
Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward Parental Involvement Improves Middle School Students’ Academic Success with Higher Grade and Test Scores, Better Attendance, More Completed Homework, and Higher Graduation Rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts</td>
<td>.635</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.459</td>
<td>.806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(between Groups)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts</td>
<td>119.981</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(within Groups)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample \( t \)-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward item 4: It is not necessary for parents with limited education to become involved in their child's schooling. There was a significant difference for males (\( M = 3.05, SD = .996 \)), and females (\( M = 3.26, SD = .770 \)), \( t (441) = -2.41, p = .016 \). Table 4.7 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.7
Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 4: Parents with Limited Education Become Involved in Their Child's Schooling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.996</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>-2.41</td>
<td>.016*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.770</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* *p < .05

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 4 (i.e., it is not necessary for parents with limited education to become involved in their child's schooling). There was not a statistically significant difference at the *p < .05* level in item 4 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.8 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.8
Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward It Is Not Necessary for Parents with Limited Education to Become Involved in Their Child's Schooling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts (between Groups)</td>
<td>4.499</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>1.135</td>
<td>.341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts (within Groups)</td>
<td>346.440</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>.793</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample *t*-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward item 5: Involved parents undermine the authority and effectiveness of the schools. There was no significant difference for males (*M* = 3.25, *SD* = .901), and females (*M* = 3.24, *SD* = .84), *t*(441) = .035, *p* = .972. Table 4.9 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.9
Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 5: Involved Parents Undermine the Authority and Effectiveness of the Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( M )</th>
<th>( SD )</th>
<th>( df )</th>
<th>( t )</th>
<th>( \text{Sig} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.901</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 5 (i.e., involved parents undermine the authority and effectiveness of the schools). There was not a statistically significant difference at the \( p < .05 \) level in item 5 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.10 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.10
Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward Involved Parents Undermining the Authority and Effectiveness of the Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( SS )</th>
<th>( df )</th>
<th>( MS )</th>
<th>( F )</th>
<th>( \text{Sig} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts (between Groups)</td>
<td>2.869</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.574</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td>.577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts (within Groups)</td>
<td>328.801</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>.752</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample \( t \)-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward item 6: Our school encourages parental involvement on a consistent basis. There was no significant difference for males (\( M = 1.67, SD = .698 \)), and females (\( M = 1.64, SD = .658 \)), \( t(438) = .480, p = .631 \). Table 4.11 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.11
*Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 6: Our School Encourages Parental Involvement on a Consistent Basis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>.698</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>.480</td>
<td>.631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>.658</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 6 (i.e., our school encourages parental involvement on a consistent basis). There was not a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in item 6 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.12 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.12
*Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward School Encourages Parental Involvement on a Consistent Basis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts (between Groups)</td>
<td>1.470</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td>.639</td>
<td>.670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts (within Groups)</td>
<td>199.709</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>.460</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample $t$-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward item 7: Our school provides suggestions for home conditions that support learning. There was no significant difference for males ($M = 1.91$, $SD = .763$), and females ($M = 1.84$, $SD = .698$), $t(438) = .959$, $p = .338$. Table 4.13 on page 113 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.13
*Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 7: Our School Provides Suggestions for Home Conditions that Support Learning*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>.959</td>
<td>.338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.698</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 7 (i.e., our school provides suggestions for home conditions that support learning). There was not a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in item 7 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.14 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.14
*Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward School Provides Suggestions for Home Conditions that Support Learning*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts (between Groups)</td>
<td>2.810</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.562</td>
<td>1.057</td>
<td>.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts (within Groups)</td>
<td>230.805</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>.532</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

An independent sample $t$-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward item 8: Our school provides effective forms of communication that reach all parents. There was a significant difference for males ($M = 1.91$, $SD = .745$), and females ($M = 1.77$, $SD = .657$), $t (443) = 2.110$, $p = .035$. Table 4.15 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.15
Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 8: Our School Provides Effective Forms of Communication that Reach All Parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>.745</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>2.110</td>
<td>.035*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>.657</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p < .05

One way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 8 (i.e., our school provides effective forms of communication that reach all parents). There was not a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in item 8 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.16 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.16
Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward School Provides Effective Forms of Communication that Reach All Parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts (between Groups)</td>
<td>1.341</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.268</td>
<td>.539</td>
<td>.747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts (within Groups)</td>
<td>218.354</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>.497</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample $t$-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward item 9: Our school does a good job of recruiting and organizing parental help and support. There was a significant difference for males ($M = 1.97$, $SD = .706$), and females ($M = 1.78$, $S = .595$), $t (439) = 2.970$, $p = .003$. Table 4.17 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.17
Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 9: Our School Does a Good Job of Recruiting and Organizing Parental Help and Support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.706</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>2.970</td>
<td>.003*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>.595</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p < .05

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 9 (i.e., our school does a good job of recruiting and organizing parental help and support). There was not a statistically significant difference at the *p* < .05 level in item 9 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.18 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.18
Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward School Does a Good Job of Recruiting and Organizing Parental Help and Support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts (between Groups)</td>
<td>1.006</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td>.464</td>
<td>.803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts (within Groups)</td>
<td>188.627</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample *t*-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward subitem 10: Our school provides ideas to parents on how to help children at home. There was a significant difference for males (*M* = 1.194, *SD* = .829), and females (*M* = 1.79, *SD* = .684), *t* (438) = 2.110, *p* = .035. Table 4.19 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.19
Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 10: Our School Provides Ideas to Parents on How to Help Children At Home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>1.194</td>
<td>.829</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>2.110</td>
<td>.035*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p < .05

One way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 10 (i.e., our school provides ideas to parents on how to help children at home). There was not a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in item 10 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.20 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.20
Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward School Provides Ideas to Parents on How to Help Children at Home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts (between Groups)</td>
<td>1.124</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>.387</td>
<td>.858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts (within Groups)</td>
<td>252.139</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>.581</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample $t$-test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward item 11: Our school encourages parents to become involved in advocacy groups or other parent organizations. There was no significant difference for males ($M = 2.36$, $SD = .863$), and females ($M = 2.30$, $SD = .806$), $t(443) = .680$, $p = .497]$. Table 4.21 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.21
Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 11: Our School Encourages Parents to Become Involved In Advocacy Groups or Other Parent Organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>.863</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>.680</td>
<td>.497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>.806</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawaili, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item 11 (i.e., Our school encourages parents to become involved in advocacy groups or other parent organizations). There was not a statistically significant difference at the p < .05 level in item 11 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.22 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.22
Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward School Encourages Parents To Become Involved In Advocacy Groups Or Other Parent Organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts (between Groups)</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.854</td>
<td>1.233</td>
<td>.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts (within Groups)</td>
<td>304.170</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>.693</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An independent sample t- test was conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes toward item 12: Our school includes the community and provides information to families on community support services. There was no significant difference for males (M = 2.08, SD = .822), and females (M = 2.08, SD = .773), t (444) = .019, p = .984. Table 4.23 illustrates these statistics.
Table 4.23
Levels of Agreement by Gender for Item 12: Our School Includes the Community and Provides Information to Families on Community Support Services

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td>444</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>.733</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district (i.e., Al-Ahmadi, Al-Asemah, Al-Farwaniya, Al-Jahra, Hawalli, and Moubark Al-Kabeer) for item12 (i.e., our school includes the community and provides information to families on community support services). There was not a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in item 12 scores for the six district groups. Table 4.24 illustrates these statistics.

Table 4.24
Analysis of Variance by District for Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward School Includes the Community and Provides Information to Families on Community Support Services

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Districts (between Groups)</td>
<td>.695</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.139</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>.955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Districts (within Groups)</td>
<td>281.235</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>.639</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responsibility for Initiating Family Involvement

Item 13 on the survey was designed to elicit a response to the second research question: At what level of responsibility is family involvement initiated in Kuwait middle schools? Frequencies and descriptive analysis were used to address this question. Participants were asked to indicate whether administrators, supervisors, families, teachers, or students held the responsibility for initiating family involvement. For each level, they were provided with a four point scale from which to choose: very responsible, responsible, less responsible, and not responsible.

A total of 444 responses was used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 13.1: the administrators’ responsibility for initiating family involvement in Kuwait middle schools. Of the responding supervisors, 92.5% regarded this subitem as an administrative responsibility, with 68.2% indicating that administrators were very responsible for initiating family involvement and 24.3% indicating that administrators were responsible. Only 6.3% indicated that administrators were less responsible, while
1.1% responded that initiating family involvement was not an administrative responsibility at all. Table 4.25 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.25
*Frequency Distribution for Subitem 13.1: the Administrators` Responsibility for Initiating Family Involvement in Kuwait Middle Schools*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Responsible</th>
<th>Responsible</th>
<th>Less Responsible</th>
<th>Not Responsible</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Frequency</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percent</strong></td>
<td>.7%</td>
<td>67.8%</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>99.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Valid percent</strong></td>
<td>68.2%</td>
<td>24.3%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 441 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 13.2: the supervisors' responsibility for initiating family involvement in Kuwait middle schools. Of responding supervisors, 75.1% regarded this subitem as a supervisory responsibility, with 29.5% indicating that supervisors were very responsible for initiating family involvement and 45.6% indicating that supervisors were responsible. However, 19.7% indicated that supervisors were less responsible, while 5.2% responded that supervisors were not responsible for initiating family involvement. Table 4.26 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.26
*Frequency Distribution for Subitem 13.2: the Supervisors` Responsibility for Initiating Family Involvement in Kuwait Middle Schools*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Responsible</th>
<th>Responsible</th>
<th>Less Responsible</th>
<th>Not Responsible</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Frequency</strong></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percent</strong></td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>29.1%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>98.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Valid percent</strong></td>
<td>29.5%</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 438 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 13.3: the families' responsibility for initiating family involvement in Kuwait middle schools. Of responding supervisors, 83.8% regarded this initiating involvement with the school as the responsibility of families, with 52.1% regarding families as very
responsible and 31.7% regarding families as responsible. Only 12.6% regarded families as less responsible, while 3.7% responded that initiating family involvement with the school was not the responsibility of the families at all. Table 4.27 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.27  
*Frequency Distribution for Subitem 13.3: the Families’ Responsibility for Initiating Family Involvement in Kuwait Middle Schools*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Responsible</th>
<th>Responsible</th>
<th>Less Responsible</th>
<th>Not Responsible</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>31.1%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>52.1%</td>
<td>31.7%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 444 responses was used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 13.4: the teachers’ responsibility for initiating family involvement in Kuwait middle schools. Of responding supervisors, 73% regarded initiating family involvement with the school as the responsibility of teachers, with 39.9% indicating that teachers were very responsible for initiating family involvement and 33.1% indicating that teachers were responsible. However, 23.4% indicated that teachers were less responsible, while 3.6% responded that teachers were not responsible for initiating family involvement at all. Table 4.28 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.28  
*Frequency Distribution for Subitem 13.4: the Teachers’ Responsibility for Initiating Family Involvement in Kuwait Middle Schools*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Responsible</th>
<th>Responsible</th>
<th>Less Responsible</th>
<th>Not Responsible</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>.7%</td>
<td>39.6%</td>
<td>32.9%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>39.9%</td>
<td>33.1%</td>
<td>23.4%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, a total of 444 responses was used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 13.5: the students’ responsibility for initiating family involvement in Kuwait middle schools. Of responding supervisors, 55.9% regarded initiating family involvement
as a student responsibility, with 30% indicating that students were very responsible and 25.9% indicating that students were responsible. Twenty-nine percent indicated that students were less responsible, while 14.9% responded that students were not responsible for initiating family involvement at all. Table 4.29 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.29

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Responsible</th>
<th>Responsible</th>
<th>Less Responsible</th>
<th>Not Responsible</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>.7%</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
<td>25.7%</td>
<td>29.1%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>99.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>25.9%</td>
<td>29.3%</td>
<td>14.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Importance of Each Type of Family Involvement

Designed to incorporate the six types of involvement from Epstein’s model (1996c), item 14 of the questionnaire focused on the importance of family involvement. This item consisted of six subitems which addressed research question 3: According to supervisors, what is the importance of each type of family involvement that Kuwait middle schools should primarily focus on practicing?

To answer all parts of this question, frequencies and descriptive analysis were used. The participants were asked for their opinions about the level of importance of six types of family involvement. For each type, they were provided with a four point scale to choose from: very important, important, less important, and not important.

A total of 447 responses was used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 14.1: the importance of providing information to families on how to establish home environments that support learning in Kuwait middle schools. Of the responding supervisors, 96.2% regarded this subitem as important, with 70.7% indicating that providing information to families was very important and 25.5% indicating that it was important. Only 3.8% indicated that providing information to families on how to establish home environments that support learning was less important or not important. Table 4.30 illustrates these frequencies.
Table 4.30
*Frequency Distribution for Subitem 14.1: Importance of Providing Information to Families on How to Establish Home Environments that Support Learning*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>447</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>70.7%</td>
<td>25.5%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>.9%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>70.7%</td>
<td>25.5%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>.9%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 447 responses was used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 14.2: the importance of designing effective forms of communication to reach all parents in Kuwait middle schools. Of the respondents, 95.8% regarded this subitem as important, with 53.7% indicating that designing effective forms of communication to reach all families was very important and 42.1% indicating that it was important. Only 4.2% indicated that designing effective forms of communication to reach all families was less important or not important. Table 4.31 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.31
*Frequency Distribution for Subitem 14.2: Importance of Designing Effective Forms of Communication to Reach All Parents*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>447</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>53.7%</td>
<td>42.1%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>.4%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>53.7%</td>
<td>42.1%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>.4%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 439 responses was used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 14.3: the importance of recruiting and organizing parental help and support at Kuwait middle schools. Of the respondents, 92.7% regarded this subitem as important, with 37.6% indicating that recruiting and organizing parental help and support was very important and 55.1% indicating that it was important. Only 7.3% indicated that recruiting and organizing parental help and support was less important or not important. Table 4.32 illustrates these frequencies.
Table 4.32  
*Frequency Distribution for Subitem 14.3: Importance of Recruiting and Organizing Parental Help and Support at the School*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>36.9%</td>
<td>54.1%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>98.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>37.6%</td>
<td>55.1%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 445 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 14.4: the importance of providing ideas to parents on how to help children at home. Of responding supervisors, 95.5% regarded this subitem as important, with 66.7% indicating that providing ideas to parents on how to help children at home was very important and 28.8% indicating that it was important. Only 4.5% indicated that providing ideas to parents on how to help children at home was less important or not important. Table 4.33 on page 126 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.33  
*Frequency Distribution for Subitem 14.4: Importance of Providing Ideas to Parents on How to Help Children at Home*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>.4%</td>
<td>66.4%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>.7%</td>
<td>99.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>.7%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 447 responses was used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 14.5: the importance of providing parents and others in the community with opportunities to participate in school decision making. Of these respondents, 75.2% regarded this subitem as important, with 34.5% indicating that providing parents and others in the community with opportunities to participate in school decision making was very important and 40.7% indicating it was important. However, 24.9% indicated that providing parents and others in the community with opportunities to participate in school decision making was less important or not important.
decision making was less important or not important. Table 4.34 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.34  
*Frequency Distribution for Subitem 14.5: Importance of Providing Parents and Others in the Community with Opportunities to Participate in School Decision Making*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>40.7%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>40.7%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 447 responses was used to calculate the frequency distribution for subitem 14.6: the importance of establishing appropriate connections with the community that will enhance and assist the school. Of these respondents, 93.2% regarded this item as important, with 57.9% indicating establishing appropriate connections with the community that will enhance and assist the school was very important and 35.3% indicating that it was important. Only 6.7% indicated that establishing appropriate connections was less important or not important. Table 4.35 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.35  
*Frequency Distribution for Subitem 14.6: Importance of Establishing Appropriate Connections with the Community that will Enhance and Assist the School*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>57.9%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>57.9%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Importance of Barriers to Family Involvement**

With its design based Epstein’s model (1996c) in mind, item 15 asked the participating supervisors to rate the importance of specific barriers to family involvement in order to find out their opinions on this issue. This item consisted of six subitems which
addressed research question 4: What barriers do supervisors perceive as important challenges to family involvement?

To answer all parts of this question, frequencies and descriptive analysis were used. The participants were given six types of barriers to families being more involved in their child's middle school and were asked to identify the importance of each. They were provided with a four point scale to choose from: very important, important, less important, and not important.

A total of 440 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 15.1: parents’ lack of time as a barrier to involvement. Of the respondents, 88.9% regarded this subitem as important, with 57.5% indicating that parent’s lack of time was very important and 31.4% indicating that it was important. Only 11.1% indicated that parents’ lack of time as a barrier was less important or not important. Table 4.36 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.36
Frequency Distribution of Subitem 15.1: Supervisors’ Perceptions of the Importance of Parents’ Lack of Time as a Barrier to Family Involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>56.6%</td>
<td>30.9%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>98.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td></td>
<td>57.5%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 437 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 15.2: teacher’s lack of time as a barrier to family involvement. Of the respondents, 94.5% regarded this subitem as important, with 59.7% indicating that teacher’s lack of time was very important and 34.8% indicating that it was important. Only 5.4% indicated that teachers’ lack of time was less important or not important. Table 4.37 illustrates these frequencies.
Table 4.37  
*Frequency Distribution of sub-item 15.2: Supervisors’ Perceptions of the Importance of Teachers’ Lack of Time as a Barrier to Family Involvement*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>58.4%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>97.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>59.7%</td>
<td>34.8%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 430 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 15.3: Administrators do not provide encouragement or ideas to teachers and parents or both. Of responding supervisors, 77.6% regarded this subitem as important, with 37.4% indicating that the barrier of administrators not providing encouragement or ideas to teachers and parents or both was very important and 40.2% indicating that this was important. However, 22.1% indicated that the barrier of administrators not providing encouragement or ideas to teachers and parents or both was less important or not important. Table 4.38 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.38  
*Frequency Distribution of Subitem 15.3: Supervisors’ Perceptions of the Importance of Administrators Not Providing Encouragement or Ideas to Teachers and/ or Parents as a Barrier to Family Involvement*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>38.7%</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>92.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>37.4%</td>
<td>40.2%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 436 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 15.4: Students become independent and do not want parent involvement. Of the respondents, 63% regarded this subitem as important, with 33% indicating that the barrier of students becoming independent and not wanting parental involvement was very important and 30% indicating that it was important. Thirty-seven percent indicated that students becoming independent and not wanting parent involvement was less important or not important as a barrier. Table 4.39 illustrates these frequencies.
Table 4.39
*Frequency Distribution of Subitem 15.4: Supervisors’ Perceptions of the Importance of Students Becoming Independent and Not Wanting Parental Involvement as a Barrier to Family Involvement*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>32.2%</td>
<td>29.3%</td>
<td>26.4%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>97.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 441 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 15.5: There are multiple teachers, and each has a large number of students, which makes it harder for teachers or parents or both to be involved. Of the responding supervisors, 82.6% regarded this subitem as important, with 46.3% indicating that having multiple teachers with a large number of students made it harder for teachers or parents or both to be involved was very important as a barrier and 36.3% indicating that it was important. Only 17.4% indicated that having multiple teachers with a large number of students was less important or not important as a barrier to teacher or parental involvement. Table 4.40 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.40
*Frequency Distribution of Subitem 15.5: Supervisors’ Perceptions of the Importance of Multiple Teachers Having a Large Number of Students as a Barrier to Family Involvement*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>35.8%</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>98.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>46.3%</td>
<td>36.3%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 440 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 15.6: Adolescents should be more independent, and parental involvement is, therefore, not particularly necessary during middle school. Of the respondents, 70% regarded this subitem as important, with 39.8% indicating adolescent independence reducing the need for parental involvement was very important as a barrier and 30.2%
indicating that it was important. Thirty percent indicated that adolescent independence reducing the need for parental involvement was less important or not important as a barrier. Table 4.41 above illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.41
*Frequency Distribution of Subitem 15.6: Supervisors’ Perceptions of the Importance of Adolescent Independence in Middle School as a Barrier to Family Involvement*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Less Important</th>
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<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>39.1%</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>98.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>39.8%</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>18.9%</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Importance of Family Participation in Their Child’s Middle School Years*

Designed to reflect Epstein’s model (1996c), item 16 of the questionnaire focused on having the supervisors rate the importance of family participation in their child’s middle school years in order to find out the supervisors’ opinions on this issue. This item consisted of five subitems which addressed research question 5: According to supervisors, what is the degree of importance of each type of involvement in regard to a family's participation in their child's middle school years?

To answer this question, frequency analysis was used. The participants were asked for their opinion about the degree of importance of five types of involvement in regard to a family's participation in their child's middle school years. For each type, they were provided with a four point scale to choose from: very important, important, less important, and not important.

A total of 422 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 16.1: the importance of families providing a home environment that supports learning. Of the respondents, 97.1% regarded this subitem as important, with 83.3% indicating that families providing a home environment that supports learning was very important and 13.8% indicating that it was important. Only 3% indicated that families providing a home environment that supports learning was less important or not important. Table 4.42 illustrates these frequencies.
Table 4.42
Frequency Distribution of Subitem 16.1: Supervisors’ Opinions of the Importance of Families Providing a Home Environment that Supports Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Missing data</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>82.3%</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
<td>.7%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>83.3%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>.7%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 441 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 16.2: the importance of regular parental communication with teachers and administrators. Of the responding supervisors, 95.3% regarded this subitem as important, with 63.3% indicating that regular parental communication with teachers and administrators was very important and 32% indicating that it was important. Only 4.8% indicated that regular parental communication with teachers and administrators was less important or not important. Table 4.43 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.43
Frequency Distribution of Subitem 16.2: Supervisors’ Opinions of the Importance of Regular Communication with Teachers and Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Missing data</th>
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<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>62.4%</td>
<td>31.5%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 439 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 16.3: the importance of parents or other family members volunteering at the school. Of the responding supervisors, 75.6% regarded this subitem as important, with 31.2% indicating that having parents or other family members volunteer at the school was very important and 44.4% indicating that it was important. However, 24.3% indicated that having parents or other family members volunteer at the school was less important or not important. Table 4.44 illustrates these frequencies.
Table 4.44
Frequency Distribution of Subitem 16.3: Supervisors’ Opinions of the Importance of Having Volunteers at the School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>30.6%</td>
<td>43.6%</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>98.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>31.2%</td>
<td>44.4%</td>
<td>19.1%</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 443 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 16.4: the importance of assisting students at home by doing such things as encouraging them to do homework and helping them schedule out-of-school time wisely. Of the respondents, 93.7% regarded this subitem as important, with 65.5% indicating that assisting students at home was very important and 28.2% indicating that it was important. Only 6.4% indicated that assisting students at home was less important or not important. Table 4.45 illustrates these frequencies.

Table 4.45
Frequency Distribution of Subitem 16.4: Supervisors’ Opinions of the Importance of Assisting Students At Home by Encouraging Them to Do Homework and Helping Them Schedule Out-Of-School Time Wisely

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>.9%</td>
<td>64.9%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>99.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid percent</td>
<td>65.5%</td>
<td>28.2%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lastly, a total of 443 responses were used to calculate the frequency distribution of subitem 16.5: the importance of involving families in school decision making or parent organizations or both. Of the respondents, 78.1% regarded this subitem as important, with 43.8% indicating that family involvement in school decision making or parent organizations or both was very important and 34.3% indicating that it was important. However, 21.9% indicated that family involvement in school decision making or parent organizations or both was less important or not important. Table 4.46 illustrates these frequencies.
Table 4.46
*Frequency Distribution of Sub-item 16.5: Supervisors’ Opinions of the Importance of Family Involvement in School Decision Making and/or Parent Organizations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Frequency</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percent</strong></td>
<td>.9%</td>
<td>43.4%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>99.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Valid percent</strong></td>
<td>43.8%</td>
<td>34.3%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This chapter has provided a detailed analysis of the results of the study. First, tables were used to present the results of the independent sample *t* tests conducted to compare the scores for supervisors’ attitudes by gender toward questions 1-12. Secondly, the results of one-way ANOVA conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the mean scores by district for questions 1-12 were presented. Thirdly, the results of the frequency distributions for the participants’ responses were identified for questions 13-16. Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the results.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the attitudes of Kuwaiti middle school supervisors toward family involvement in the education of adolescents. Research questions guiding this study were based on the theoretical framework of Epstein’s (1996c) model of family involvement. It was anticipated that the results of this study would identify (a) whether there were significant differences, by gender and district, in attitudes about family involvement among Kuwaiti middle school supervisors; (b) the level of responsibility for encouraging family-school relationships among administrators, teachers, parents, and students; (c) the level of importance of different types of family involvement; (d) the barriers that prevented families from being more involved in their children's middle schools in Kuwait; and (e) the degree of importance for each type of educational involvement in which families participated during their children's middle school years.

This study is unique in applying Epstein’s family involvement framework (1996c) to educational settings within Kuwait. The issue of family involvement in schools had not been explored previously in Kuwait. The results are intended to be helpful to the Kuwait Ministry of Education by demonstrating the importance of family involvement to supervisors in middle schools and by identifying the barriers encountered by these supervisors in initiating this involvement.

The objectives of this chapter are to (a) summarize the research limitations, (b) discuss the findings, (c) present the conclusions drawn from the study, (d) discuss the implications, and (e) present recommendations for further research.

Limitations of the Study

The sample group of 447 Kuwaiti middle school supervisors has imposed several limitations on the study. Although the supervisors in this study were randomly selected as representative of male and female supervisors in the six school districts of Kuwait, this study was limited to investigating family involvement as perceived only by middle school supervisors. The results of this study are not intended to be generalized to the attitudes of Kuwaiti supervisors at other levels of schooling.

When considering the results of this study, it is important to note that supervisors in Kuwaiti schools hold positions of instructional leadership. The middle school supervisors (i.e., head teachers) who participated in this study were considered to be expert educators with 12-15 years of teaching experience. Within Kuwait, these supervisors have an influence on the education and development of middle school students and their attitudes have an influence on family involvement during the middle school years.

Discussion of the Results

Responses to the first research question (i.e., are there significant differences, by gender and district, in attitudes about family involvement among Kuwaiti middle school Supervisors?) revealed that all participating middle school supervisors, regardless of their gender, were aware of and interested in the notion of family involvement. There were no
significant differences in supervisors’ attitudes by district. However, male and female supervisors seemed to have different views of how their current schools practice family involvement according to the dimensions of Epstein’s model (1996c). The following discussion addresses the results for survey questions 4, 8, 9, and 10, for which statistically significant differences by gender were found. Responses to these four questions showed that male supervisors had more positive attitudes than female supervisors toward (a) family involvement of parents with limited education, (b) communication with parents, (c) recruiting and organizing parental help, and (d) assisting parents to help their children at home. These findings seemed to be related to traditional culture that affects women in Arabic societies, including the Kuwait community. Tabarh (2004) reported that Arab women were driven away from the males’ world because men and women lack the ability to communicate with one another in public arenas such as a conference about a child.

Differences by Gender

*Attitudes toward the Involvement of Parents with Limited Education*

Responses to item 4, which addressed the first research question, indicated that as a whole, female supervisors had a more positive attitude toward family involvement of parents with limited education than did their male counterparts (see Table 4.7). Other researchers have discussed issues related to parents with limited education (Carter & Wojtkiewicz, 2000), although the results were not discussed with regard to gender attitudes. Gettinger and Guetschow (1998) and Meretzky (2004) noted that these parents need more guidance and support from schools to help their children with both non-academic and academic activities. Balli et al. (1998) noted that parents with limited education should not be overlooked when planning for family involvement. Mlowanazi (1994) concluded from his study that mothers and fathers who have limited reading skills need more support from school personnel through the creation of training programs for them. Al-Hendi (2001) reported that parents with limited education have the right to inform schools about their children’s improvement as well as to be involved with their children’s educational process.

In Kuwait the limited education of some parents is not associated with low socio-economic status as it is in the United States. Each Kuwaiti citizen receives financial support from the government and completing middle school is a national requirement. Limited education is more the result of personal decisions made by parents because of career choices or because of limited literacy. From my experience as a teacher in Kuwait, I met many parents struggling with illiteracy, and they needed support to be involved with schools to help their children learn to read. In addition, many Kuwaiti youths leave schools early to start jobs and to marry, which are choices that limit parents’ education as well as affect their children’s future. Although female supervisors were somewhat more positive in their responses to this question, it should be noted that the cultural and religious restrictions in Kuwaiti society might limit female supervisors’ direct involvement with male parents, who usually take care of family business outside the home, while female parents take care of family needs within the home (Khoother, 1997).
Attitudes toward Communication with Parents

Responses to item 8, which addressed the first research question, indicated that female supervisors were slightly more positive than male supervisors about the forms of communication that their schools provided (see Table 4.15). In line with observations by Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000), this result might reveal more about parents’ expectations related to boys and girls respectively. Research regarding parental involvement and the gender of their children has mixed outcomes, as Carter and Wojtkiewicz noted. These authors observed that in fact daughters received more attention from their parents than did sons but sons received more attention with regard to academic factors. Their findings, as well as the findings from this study, raise the question of whether parents want some things for their daughters and other things for their sons. This finding reflected how a traditional culture, such as Kuwaiti society, looks at gender issues (Al-Husaini, 2004) and differentiates between the roles and behaviors associated with boys and girls.

It is important to note that communication between parents and supervisors varies not only because of who the communication is about—daughters or sons, but who the communication is with—the mother or the father. In schools for girls, female teachers usually communicate with their students’ mothers, but the final decisions are made by the fathers. In the schools for boys, male teachers usually communicate directly with the fathers. This finding, then, echoed that of Radowan (1988), who found that male teachers in Egypt preferred to communicate with fathers who acted as social monitors about the students’ education issues. In other words, in Arabic culture fathers, rather than mothers who are involved with home tasks, lead and regulate the family future, including family involvement in their children’s education and behavior.

Attitudes toward Recruiting and Organizing Parental Help

Responses to item 9, which addressed the first research question, indicated that, as a whole, female supervisors had a more positive attitude than their male counterparts toward their schools’ efforts in recruiting and organizing parental help and support (see Table 4.17). These positive attitudes supported the findings of Balli et al. (1998), who examined the role of schools in facilitating parental involvement, especially those practices that support the quality not just the quantity of involvement Balli et al. suggested that flexible partnerships between parents and teachers are needed to give students the best education possible. Alqudsi (2002) found that the Arabic culture obstructed the ability of Kuwaiti women to affect their society because their participation was less meaningful than that of men. Even though women might be recruited and organized to help in their daughters’ schools, they were not in positions to make decisions about their daughters’ education.

It should be noted that the ministry of education requires that the schools for boys and for girls address positive relationships with families by recruiting and organizing some activities such as open door day, lectures, instruction on how to help students at home, and workshops. The ministry of education also addresses training the schools’ staff to support and to encourage parents and students. The findings in this study differ from those of Alasadi and Ebrahim (2003) who noted that Arabic boys’ schools had positive attitudes about communicating with home and providing suggestions to parents about
teaching the students at home, but Arabic girls’ schools were less interested in doing more to help students at home. The current findings do not support this last statement.

*Attitudes toward Assisting Parents to Help their Children at Home*

Responses to item 10, which also addressed the first research question, indicated that male supervisors were more positive than female supervisors toward the school’s providing ideas to parents on how to help their children at home (see table 4.17). Mlowanazi (1994) noted that schools can provide activities and ideas that support students’ education in school and at home. In Kuwait society, female supervisors had creative ideas to help families and students. Nevertheless, Alqudsi (2002) believed that like the women in other Arabic countries, Kuwaiti women, including female middle school supervisors, were still affected by the traditional culture, which imposes restrictions on a woman’s ability to communicate and, therefore, complicates the issue of female supervisors’ involvement in assisting parents to help their children. In this culture, women must neither receive male strangers nor communicate with them without their husbands’ approval. Therefore, it is very difficult for female supervisors of girls’ middle schools to offer ideas to female teachers about ways to improve family involvement, because the father usually represents the family at school conferences.

**Differences by District**

No significant difference was found by district for survey questions 1-12. Again, this result confirmed that the notion of family involvement does not differ from district to district because of a predominate subcultural background (Al-Husiani, 2004). However, in contrast to the results by gender, there was agreement across localities among the participants’ attitudes toward the practice of family involvement (see tables 4.2, 4.4, 4.6.4.8, 4.10, 4.12, 4.14, 4.16, 4.18, 4.20, 4.22, and 4.24). The centralized authority, which has been controlling education in Kuwait since 1939, is one possible explanation for this similarity in the participants’ responses (Kuwait Information Office, 2004). Alasadi and Ebrahim (2003) have noted that it was well established in the literature of leadership that such centralization created similar norms and values, including the relationship between home and school.

**Differences in the Frequencies of Responses**

*The Level of Responsibility for Initiating Family Involvement*

Responses to the second research question, which focused on investigating the level of responsibility to initiate family involvement in Kuwait middle schools (e.g., administrators, supervisors, families, teachers, and students), indicated that both administrators and families were perceived as very responsible for initiating family involvement. Supervisors, teachers and students were also perceived, to varying extents, to be responsible for initiating family involvement. This finding agreed with previous studies (e.g., Meretzky, 2004; Mlowanas, 1994) which reported positive attitudes toward the roles of administrators, families, supervisors, and teachers in family involvement. This perceived responsibility challenged all parties to help teachers and parents become
involved together in order to help students academically and behaviorally (Dunlap and Alva, 1999, and Meretzky, 2004). This emphasis on all relevant parties with respect to family involvement in the middle schools revealed that adolescent students needed a great deal of attention from all parties concerned with their learning (Sartor & Youniss, 2002).

**The Important Types of Family Involvement**

In response to the third research question (i.e., According to supervisors, what is the importance of each type of family involvement that Kuwait middle schools should primarily focus on practicing), the findings showed that all six types of family involvement found in Epstein’s (1996c) model were important to the supervisors. Therefore, Epstein's model that has provided a comprehensive program of partnership with families of middle school students can be generalized to other contexts, such as the Gulf region countries including Kuwait. Moreover, including supervisors as a possible resource of how family involvement was perceived and how it could be applied has become an issue of utmost importance, because supervisors have an influence on the education and development of middle school students (Alasadi & Ebrahim, 2003).

**The Important Barriers to Initiating Family Involvement**

In response to the fourth research question (i.e., the barriers that supervisors perceive as important challenges to family involvement ) supervisors, as experts in the educational process in Kuwait, were able to identify some serious barriers that they perceived as hindrances to the practice of family involvement in Kuwait middle schools. First, the lack of time imposed a serious barrier on both teachers and parents to the deliberate practice of family involvement. As was the case with the findings of previous studies, this lack of time decreased family-teacher communication opportunities such as reports, phone calls, and so forth (Bryan & Holcomb-Mccoy, 2004). First, among possible factors contributing to the lack of time for teacher communication with families were excessive duties teachers have during the school day (Bryan & Holcomb-McCoy, 2004). Secondly, on the same level of perceived responsibility that the supervisors attributed to the administrators, the supervisors perceived administrators as actual barriers to family involvement (Mlowanazi, 1994). Thirdly, the perceived problem of parent-adolescent conflict during traditional years of later childhood represented a barrier to the practice of family involvement (Allison & Schultz, 2004). In other words, because students thought of themselves as independent entities, they did not need parental involvement in their schooling (Carter & Wojtkiewicz, 2000).

**The Degree of Importance for Each Type Involvement**

In response to the fifth research question (i.e., the degree of importance for each type of involvement in regard to family’s participation in their child’s middle school years), the supervisors’ frequencies of responses showed that providing a home environment supporting learning, regular communication with teachers and administrators, and assisting students at home were highly important. Although being involved in school decision making and parent organizations and volunteering at the
school both had lower frequencies of responses, they still had considered a critically important influence on students’ education. This finding accorded to Epstein’s study (1996c), which tested the importance of the six types of involvement (i.e., parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision making, and collaborating with the community). Mlowanazi (1994) recognized the need to provide a supportive home environment for students and a supportive parent organization for the school. Also, Linek et al. (1997) and Smith (2002) reported that teachers’ communication with parents helped students to learn better and parents volunteering at schools helped give teachers enough time for their academic tasks.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to use Epstein’s model (1996c) to examine family involvement in Kuwaiti middle schools. The results of this study indicated that there was a need for family involvement in Kuwaiti middle schools to improve students’ academic success and behavior. This involvement was also found to be possible through the application of Epstein’s model. In addition, the Kuwaiti supervisors in middle schools showed positive attitudes toward family involvement. They believed that administrators and supervisors were the most responsible for initiating family involvement in the middle schools. In other words, even though the country was Kuwait, the supervisors’ responses echoed the findings of most of the literature reviewed in chapter 2, which highlighted the need for educators to take the initiative in addressing the issue of parental involvement in their children’s education. This study, therefore, has confirmed that the problem of engaging parents in their children’s school is an international issue.

Implications and Recommendations for Practice

The findings of this study identified the need for family involvement in schools in Kuwait. They have also provided additional data to re-culture the educational system at all levels to support the need for further collaborative efforts to enhance family involvement in Kuwaiti middle schools. Moreover, this study of family involvement highlighted the need for a transfer from authoritative styles to substantial leadership, which engages educators and parents in more democratic conversations. Based on the findings of this study, which have shown the importance of family involvement in the educational system, several recommendations need to be developed to translate this practice into action. Family involvement in education as a value-based process, which serves human capital, needs to receive financing from the Kuwaiti government to guarantee its effectiveness.

Relying on the provisions of the Constitution of the State of Kuwait, there is a need to establish new policies to encourage family involvement, and legislators should, therefore, enact laws that mandate family involvement in all aspects of education (Education Committee, 2003b). At this level, it is possible to anticipate academic and behavioral development that family involvement predicts. The Education Committee (2003b) has put forward some suggestions for strengthening the relationship between family and school. First, because this Committee has to invite parents to be part of their children’s education, the Ministry of Education should work in positive ways toward legislation to ensure a better environment for Kuwaiti students, and, as a result, make a significant contribution to reaching the goals of the state from the education system.
In fact, family involvement turns out to be a complicated process, because there are many types of involvement. Therefore, families, students, and school staff need training workshops to appreciate the beneficial aspects of the relationship between school and families as well as to understand the rights and duties of all the stakeholders. Moreover, once the stakeholders clearly understand their roles, they can cooperate as a team to attain value-based goals such as democracy in the twenty-first century. In addition, there is little doubt that research is important to establishing family-school relationships that are built upon strategies that can provide many chances to improve students’ academic achievement and behavior.

Recommendations for Further Research

Although several studies have investigated the subject of family involvement in the U.S., this study was the first to investigate family involvement in the state of Kuwait. Because this study used a sample of middle school supervisors to gather data on their perceptions of family involvement in the education of middle school students, future studies should be conducted at kindergarten, elementary, and high school levels to ascertain supervisors’ attitudes toward family involvement with students in Kuwait’s public schools. Although it is particularly important to focus on supervisors, because part of their job is to facilitate community relations, the attitudes of families, students, teachers, and principals should be examined in greater detail to draw the full picture of the family-school relationship. The six types of Epstein's model (1996c) should also be examined separately and in depth in Kuwait by using various research methodologies.

The cultural impact on family involvement with schools in Kuwait should be researched in terms of the students’ genders and parents’ education levels. In addition, there is a need to investigate the roles of family members, especially fathers and mothers, in terms of cultural taboos and how these impact family involvement with schools.

The impact of the media on re-culturing the relationship between family and school should be examined. Media efforts can offer new ways to invite parents and teachers to meet together face to face by encouraging flexible schedules and democratic conversations to benefit the education of Kuwaiti children. Also, because financial issues are important to implementing the above recommendations, the government should allocate specific funds to run major projects concerning family involvement with the schools.

Recommendations for the Ministry Of Education in Kuwait

The state of Kuwait is now working hard on developing the educational system to ensure reasonable opportunities for Kuwaiti children to learn better. In Kuwait, the leaders in the Ministry of Education are focusing on the Kuwait national strategy to improve the educational system from the years 2005-2025. However, this strategy does not pay much attention to the role of family. In addition, this strategy reflects the top-bottom approach which neglects the opinions of other involved parties, including parents, teachers, and students. In fact, the absence of such realization of family involvement from that strategy necessitates revisiting the vision and mission of the Ministry. This vision should rely on research and the real needs of the people involved in the educational system, including not only principals and supervisors, but also families, teachers, and students. Once the mission...
is clearly related to the vision, which is a product of both top-bottom and bottom-top discourse, then the country will be able to use its oil wealth to build human capital (Bransford et al., 2000; Deal & Peterson, 1999; Fullan, 1999).

There is a need for re-culturing the relationship between the central administration at the level of ministry with those really involved in the schools (i.e., principals, assistant principals, supervisors, teachers, and family) by activating the role of each district, changing from central authority governance to team leadership. In practice, the best leaders are those who know the people in the trenches and who are there to give help and encouragement and find ways to move a beneficial program forward. In his book, *Empires of Mind*, Denis Waitley (1997), one of the most sought-after keynote speakers and productivity consultants in the world today, talked about leaders’ roles in the past and present. His book contains this poem to show the difference between authority and leadership:

Yesterday natural resources defined power
Today KNOWLEDGE is power
Yesterday leaders commanded and controlled
Today leaders empower and coach
Yesterday leaders were warriors
Today leaders are facilitators
Yesterday leaders directed
Today leaders delegate
Yesterday leaders demanded respect
Today leaders encourage self-respect
Yesterday value was extra
Today value is everything. (Paragraph 11)

This poem describes the situation in Kuwait in that the theory and practice of authority and leadership seem to be stuck in “yesterday,” especially where it concerns facilitating parental involvement with students. Waitley’s (1997) poem is relevant to Kuwait not only because of its subject matter, but also because Kuwaitis use poetry daily as a vehicle to communicate methods and strategies to change or to solve many problems in their society. It is the hope of this researcher that the findings of this study will influence educational leaders to appreciate that knowledge about the importance of family involvement holds power to affect the future for the children of Kuwait.
REFERENCES


June 28, 2004

Dr. Crockett and Doctoral Candidate Sultan Alqahami,

This letter is to inform you of my concern for Doctoral Candidate Sultan Alqahami to use my “Parental Involvement in High School Questionnaire” as outlined in my dissertation titled “Parental Involvement Viewed from Three High Schools in Navajo County, Arizona” for his dissertation research.

Good luck with your endeavors.
APPENDIX B: Virginia Tech IRB Approval

Virginia Tech
VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Institutional Review Board
Dr. David M. Moore
IRB (Human Subject) Chair
Assistant Vice President for Research Compliance
CVM Phase II - Backyard Dr., Blacksburg, VA 24061-0442
Office: 540/231-4951, FAX: 540/231-6033
e-mail: mmoore@vt.edu

4 November 2004

MEMORANDUM

TO: Jean Crockett
    Sultan Aldaihani
    ELPS (0302)

FROM: David M. Moore

SUBJECT: IRB EXEMPTION APPROVAL – “Supervisors’ Attitudes Toward Family Involvement in Kuwait Middle Schools” – IRB #04-575

I have reviewed your request to the IRB for review and approval for the above referenced project. I believe that the research falls within the Exempt status as specified in the federal regulations [45 CRF 46.101(b)(1-6)]. Approval is granted effective as of the date of this memorandum. Please note that as an Exempt study, there is no requirement to obtain signed consent from the study participants.

Virginia Tech has an approved Federal Wide Assurance (FWA00000572, exp. 7/20/07) on file with OHRP, and its IRB Registration Number is IRB00000667.

cc: file

A Land-Grant University—The Commonwealth Is Our Campus
An Equal Opportunity/Affirmative Action Institution
لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي المطبوع في الصورة. إذا كنت بحاجة إلى مساعدة في شيء آخر، فلا تتردد في طرحه.
APPENDIX D: Ministry of Education Survey Approval Letter

mination

والدوم التربوي _ كلية التربية جامعة الكويت في تطبيق الاستبانة المرفقة على عينة
من رؤساء الأقسام العلمية بمدارس المرحلة المتوسطة وذلك لاستخدامها في
رسالة الدكتوراه "اتجاهات رؤساء الأقسام نحو التفاعل الأسري مع المدرسة".
شاكرین حسن تعاونكم

مع خالص الاحترام

الوكيل المساعد للتعليم العام

نورية صبحي الصحاب
APPENDIX E: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (ENGLISH)

Dear Participant:

Please participate positively in the study by giving really responses which present your opinion as well. These responses do not seek the right or wrong answer; it only looking to your attitudes. The information will be kept, and used only in this study. Involving in this study is voluntary participation

Signature ___________________________ Date ________________________
APPENDIX F: Survey Instrument (English Version)

Supervisors’ Attitudes toward Family Involvement in Kuwait Middle Schools
District: 1) Al-Ahmadi, 2) Al-Asemah, 3) Al-Farwaniya, 4) Al-Jahra, 5) Hawalli, 6) Moubark Al-Kabeer
Gender: 1) Male  2) female
Read Questions 1-12 carefully; then circle (1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Disagree; or (4) Strongly
disagree on the tables next to the question:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Parent(s) should be involved in their child’s middle school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Parental involvement during the middle school years of education is as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>important as during the primary years of education.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Parental involvement improves middle school students’ academic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>success with higher grade and test scores, better attendance, more</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>completed homework, and higher graduation rates.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. It is not necessary for parents with limited education to become</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>involved in their child’s schooling.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Involved parents undermine the authority and effectiveness of the</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schools.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Our School encourages parental involvement on a</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. Our School provides suggestions for home conditions that support learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

8. Our School provides effective forms of communication that reach all parents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

9. Our School does a good job of recruiting and organizing parental help and support.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

10. Our School provides ideas to parents on how to help children at home.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

11. Our School encourages parents to become involved in advocacy groups or other parent organizations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

12. Our School includes the community and provides information to families on community support services.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

13. In your opinion, who is responsible for initiating family involvement in your middle school? Please circle the number that best expresses your opinion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very responsible</th>
<th>Responsible</th>
<th>Less responsible</th>
<th>Not responsible</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13.1. Administrators</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.2. Supervisors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.3. Families</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.4. Teachers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.5. Students</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14- Identify the importance for each type of family involvement that middle schools should primarily focus on practicing by circling the number that best represents your opinion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14.1. Providing information to families on how to establish home environments that support learning.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.2. Designing effective forms of communication to reach all parents.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.3. Recruiting and organizing parent help and support at the school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.4. Providing ideas to parents on how to help children at home.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.5. Providing parents and others in the community with opportunities to participate in school decision making.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.6. Establishing appropriate connections with the community that will enhance and assist the school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15- Identify the importance of each barrier to family being more involved in their child’s middle school by circling the number that best represents the degree of importance: (1) Very Important, (2) Important, (3) Less Important, or (4) Not Important:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less Important</th>
<th>Not important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15.1. Parents’ lack of time.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.2. Teachers’ lack of time.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.3. Administrators do not provide encouragement or ideas to teachers and/ or parents.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.4. Student’s become independent and do not want parent involvement.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.5. There are multiple teachers, and each has a</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
large number of students which makes it harder for teachers and/or parents to be involved.

15.6. Adolescents should be more independent, and therefore parental involvement is not particularly necessary during middle school.

16- What is the degree of importance for each type of involvement in regard to a family’s participation during their child’s middle school years? Circle the number that best expresses the degree of importance: (1) Very Important, (2) Important, (3) Less Important, or (4) Not Important:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Less important</th>
<th>Not important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16.1. Provide a home environment that supports learning.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.2. Regular communication with teachers and administrators.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.3. Volunteer at the school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.4. Assist students at home by doing such things as encouraging them to do homework, and helping them to schedule out-of-school time wisely.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.5. Be involved in school decision making and/or parent organizations.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX G: Informed Consent Form (Arabic)

عزيزي المشاركة / عزيزتي المشاركة:

ارجو المشاركة بإيجابية في هذه الدراسة من خلال إعطاء الإجابات الواقعية التي تعبر عن رأيك. فالإجابة هنا لا تعبر عن الصواب أو الخطأ بل هي لتعبير عن وجهة نظرك كمشارك. كما أن البيانات سوف يتم التعامل معها بسرية تامة وسوف يتم استخدامها للأغراض البحثية فقط. علمًا بأن المشاركة في هذه الدراسة هي تطوعية....

التوقف ________________________________
التاريخ ________________________________
APPENDIX H: Survey Instrument (Arabic Version)

اتجاهات المدرسین الأوائل (ر하시는 الأسقام) نحو تفاعل اولياء الأمور مع المدرسة: دراسة على مدارس المرحلة المتوسطة في دولة الكويت

أولاً: البيانات العامة.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>النوع: الرجاء اختيار واحداً.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ذكر ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أنثى ( )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ثانياً: أقرأ الهوار من 1-12 ثم وضع دائرة في المربع الذي يتوافق مع درجة مقبولتها نحوها علمًا بأن الأسرة يقصد بها الأب والأم، والمدرسة يقصد بها المدرسة التي تعمل فيها:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الرسالة</th>
<th>أعراض ب重度</th>
<th>أعراض فأق</th>
<th>أعراض أقعد</th>
<th>أعراض بفيض</th>
<th>أعراض أفق ميزة</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13: من وجهة نظرك، أي درجة ترى الأطراف الثلاثية متسوية من المبادرة في إشراك الأسرة مع مدرستك المتوسطة:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الرسالة</th>
<th>غير مسئول</th>
<th>مسؤول محدود</th>
<th>مسؤول بشكل كبير</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>3.13</td>
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<td>4.13</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14: من وجهة نظرك، هذا مدى اهمية كل بند (كل بند يشير إلى نوع من الهوار تفاعل الأسرة مع مدارس المرحلة المتوسطة، مع التركيز على التفاعلات التي تتضمن المشاركة).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الرسالة</th>
<th>غير مهم</th>
<th>مهم جداً</th>
<th>مهم</th>
<th>أقل اهمية</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15: توفير المعلومات للأسرة عن كيفية تعويض بيئة اسرية متزايدة تدعم عملية...
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الرقم</th>
<th>مهمة</th>
<th>أهمية</th>
<th>مهم جداً</th>
<th>البدء</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.14</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15: حدد مدى تأثير العوائق التالية فيما يخص التفاعل الأسرة (الأم والأب) مع مدرسة ابنها المتوسطة:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الرقم</th>
<th>مهمة</th>
<th>أهمية</th>
<th>مهم جداً</th>
<th>البدء</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16: ما مدى أهمية كل نوع من أنواع تفاعل الأسرة مع المدرسة المتوسطة لابنها:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الرقم</th>
<th>مهمة</th>
<th>أهمية</th>
<th>مهم جداً</th>
<th>البدء</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>3.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

مع خالص الشكر والتقدير على حسن التعاون

الباحث
سلطان غالب الديجاني
Vita

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Major: Islamic and Social Studies.

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Thesis’s Title: Home Schooling a Quality Educational Alternative To A
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Major: Educational leadership and Policy Studies
Sub- majors:
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EXPERIENCES:

- Graduate School- Tuition Scholarship (Spring 2000 Present)

- The Coordinator Training Programs - Development Center ~ The Ministry Of Education (1996-1999)


**ACTIVITIES:**


- The National Union Of Kuwait Students (NUKS)- USA (The Head Of Cultural Committee 2000-2001 And 2001-2002)

- Kuwait Students Group at Denver (2001-2002)

**MEMBERSHIPS:**

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- Autism Society of America (ASA)

- American Association of Teachers of Arabic (ATAA)