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PREDICTORS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT AMONG ASIAN IMMIGRANT PARENTS IN FINLAND

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ABSTRACT

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Parental involvement has become an effective means which has contributed to children's academic accomplishment, especially for immigrant children. Educational research has investigated the factors that might direct parents' decisions to get involved in their children's schooling. However, in the Finnish context, there is a limited number of studies regarding this phenomenon, especially for immigrant parents. Consequently, based on level 1 and 2 of the revised model of parental involvement of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005), the present research was conducted to examine which forms of parental involvement Asian parents prefer and which factors predict each form of parental involvement (*home-based, school-based, and total involvement).* Moreover, the research explored the challenges related to remote-education through the COVID-19 pandemic since the way parents get involved might change through the situation. To reach the research's aims, a quantitative study was designed with the process of data collection conducted by a web survey and multivariate analyses applied by SPSS.

There were 163 Asian parents participating in the research. According to the research findings, Asian parents in Finland had a strong bias towards home-based learning activities. Most strikingly, parental perceptions of specific invitations from children, self-perceived skills and knowledge, as well as time and energy were identified as the significant predictors across the three measures of parental involvement (home-based, school-based, and total). Although the prediction of parental role construction and self-efficacy of parents was not stood out as significant factors for parental involvement as expected, these two factors had a high correlation with others, thus, their roles still need to be taken into consideration to enhance the involvement of parents in children's schooling.

Furthermore, following the data collected, in the Finnish context, the length of residence surfaced as a potential predictor for school-based involvement. To promote the involvement of parents in events and activities at school, the role of children's invitations is significant. Besides, the liaison among schools, teachers, and families, needs to be constantly highlighted so that all parties might get more information related to children's learning, and then common goals are set to donate the child development.

Regarding the challenges of remote learning which were taken place as a replacement for contact learning due to the COVID-19 pandemic, how to balance parents' responsibilities and how to motivate children to maintain their learning were matters for parents. Especially, there were more than 60% of parents (N = 102) struggled with the feeling of being overwhelmed by the situation caused by the pandemic. Furthermore, there were relationships between the degree of the challenges of remote learning and the number of children each family has.

Thus far, the research findings were discussed to contribute to the theory and scientific research of parental involvement for immigrant parents, especially in the Finnish context.

Keywords: *parental involvement, predictors, immigrant parents, remote learning, the COVID-19 pandemic.*

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1 INTRODUCTION

Studies have established that although the process of child development, especially socialization and learning, is subscribed to by different people from early stages such as grandparents, siblings, peers, and so on, still, parents are seen as primary influencers (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). As a result, parental participation plays a vital role in child development (Fan & Chen, 2001; Jeynes, 2010). In educational research, there are two key categories of parental participation which are parental engagement and parental involvement. Although they are interchangeable in research, their scopes are not similar. Indeed, parental engagement focuses on the learning of children, meanwhile, parental involvement impacts on children's schooling (Goodall, 2013).

The use of the term “parental involvement” started in the 1960s and 1970s in The United State and European countries for one educational program in which promoting ethnic minority parents to support their children’s home-based learning was the main purpose (Bakker, et al., 2007). From that time, since its beneficial effects, the term has received considerable critical attention.

The existing body of research on parental involvement suggests that its different aspects might affect noticeably different indicators of learning accomplishment of students (Fan & Chen, 2001). Indeed, parental involvement is performed in diverse ways (e.g., parent-teacher meetings, school events, homework, field trips) with different beneficial outcomes related to the learning achievements of children (Mata et al., 2018). For instance, the correlation between parental involvement and students’ learning motivation is highly positive, thus, depending on a different kind of support, either the intrinsic motivation or the extrinsic motivation is increased (Mata et al., 2018). Additionally, when receiving support from parents, students tend to put more effort, pay more attention as well as concentrate more across four key school subjects which are maths, English, science, and social studies (Gonzalez-DeHass et al., 2005). Also,

the phenomenon affects not only overall school success, but also GPA, standardized evaluations, and other academic actions (Jeynes, 2010).

Since the potential positive effects of parental involvement, it is necessary to examine factors that are partially responsible for the phenomenon. In this respect, several attempts have been made to explore demographic variables that might influence on parental supports such as race, ethnicity, mother tongue, immigrant or acculturation status, educational backgrounds, employment and marital status (Bulotsky-Shearer et al., 2016). Also, motivational beliefs have been investigated since they might boost parents to become more active to support their children's learning (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997). These beliefs incorporate parents' role construction and self-efficacy; the perceptions of parents regarding not only the invitations from schools, teachers, and their children for involvement but also variables of life context (i.e., *time and energy, knowledge and skills*) (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Walker et al., 2005).

As previously stated, the immigrant background is one of the demographic variables which impact on parental involvement (Antony-Newman, 2019; Kim et al., 2018). Indeed, in involvement practices, immigrant parents get more misunderstandings regarding their support for students' learning due to different cultural and educational backgrounds (Antony-Newman, 2019). In this respect, to enhance the support from parents, specifically immigrant parents, for children's learning, the relationship among parents, schools, and teachers is crucial (Epstein, 2002). This relationship is established by the trust among the three parties as well as the ways to take their roles and make resolutions towards their children's learning (Bouakaz, 2007). Moreover, the significance of building up the same goals regarding academic accomplishment for children of both sides, schools, and families, is taken into consideration since it fruitfully directs discussions between families and educators towards students' learning as well as the methods parents can get more involved in their children's schooling (Bouakaz, 2007).

Turning now to parental involvement in the Finnish setting. During the last 20 years, Finland has come more of a country of multi-culture. Following the Statistics Finland's PxWeb databases, in the years of 2016, 2017, and 2018, the proportion of Asian immigrants in Finland is 0.22%, 0.19%, and 0.15%,

respectively. Although, there is a trend of a reduction in the number of Asian immigrants coming to Finland, the population of this group in Finland has still been ranked second in position out of all continents to date, indicating that the majority of immigrants living in Finland are from Asia. To date, Finland is one of the countries in which the rate of immigrant students with low academic performance and high levels of schoolwork-related tension is noticeable, although, their learning motivation is high (Borgonovi, 2018). In this respect, the role of education is focal for immigrants since it helps them gain necessary skills to be a part of the development of the economic system for the country they are living in, to enhance their social and emotional welfare, and to improve their integration (Borgonovi, 2018). Consequently, figuring out the solution to improve immigrant students' learning performance is essential and parental involvement is identified as a productive means that helps decrease the achievement gap between white learners and some racial minority groups (Jeynes, 2010). The role of parental involvement also is emphasized in the National Core Curriculum for the Finnish education system by the repetition of the role of parents through children's learning process (FNBE, 2016)

However, very little is currently known about predictors that impact on immigrant parents' decisions in their involvement and the forms they choose to get involved in their children's learning in the Finnish context. As a result, basing on the first level and one part of the second level of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's (2005) model of parental involvement, the central thesis of this paper is to facilitate parental involvement by inspecting reasons and ways Asian parents in Finland get involved in their children's learning and then to contribute to the learning improvement of immigrant students, especially Asian students, in Finnish schools. The specific objective of this study is to examine which psychological and contextual factors contribute to parents' decisions regarding their involvement as well as which kinds of involvement they prefer when they assist their children's learning. Moreover, this dissertation investigates the challenges of e-learning through the school closure in Finland as a consequence of the COVID-19 pandemic which might cause changes connected to the ways parents took part in their children's schooling.

By employing quantitative methods, the study was conducted in the form of an online research survey based on the revised model of parental involvement of

Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) with the first two levels: parental motivation beliefs and the forms of parental involvement, and the research of Garbe et al. (2020) which is about the challenges of e-education during the school closures in Finland due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The research data in this thesis is drawn by collecting the responses of Asian immigrant parents in Finland through groups on the Facebook site. The theoretical framework includes two parts: (1) parental involvement in children's schooling, and (2) parental involvement in Asian and Finnish cultures. SPSS was to be used to analyze the data collected.

2 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S EDUCATION: CLARIFICATION AND CONTRIBUTORS

2.1 Parental involvement or parental engagement

In recent years, parental participation including parental involvement and engagement in child learning is a major area of interest within the field of education. In educational research, although engagement and involvement interchange, there is a distinction between them, thus, it is important to distinguish the two terms since it connects directly with the reason why the present research focused on parental involvement.

Following the 2017 research of Goodall and her colleagues, parental engagement's activities focus on child learning, meanwhile, involvement aims to improve child schooling. At this stage, it shows a need to be explicit about exactly what is meant by the words "learning", "education" and "schooling" before distinguishing deeply the difference between the two kinds of parental support.

The term "learning" generally refers to mean a permanent change of learners' cognition and the change stems from experiences gained during their lives (Goodall, 2017). The process of learning is from innate learning to controlled one for clear purposes. Although at school, there is an involvement of teachers in children's learning, still, this process is individual so that the change takes place for learners themselves (Goodall, 2017). For the human being, learning is inborn, profound, and relational since its process is a supplement of new things and thoughts for learners when encounters happen (Goodall, 2017). The categorization of learning includes formal, informal, and non-formal learning. Respectively, the three categories of learning happen in classrooms, in outside settings whose object is learning, and in incidental situations such as throughout

conversations that means that the process of the last two ones is major when learners frequently encounter situations in which learning processes take place over their lifetime (Goodall, 2017). To avoid confusion surrounding these terms, Goodall (2017) suggests that informal learning is learning, and formal learning is schooling.

As explained earlier, since learning is a wide-ranging process with several varied goals, unsurprisingly, education is described as a subset of it (Goodall, 2017). The definition of education in the research of Goodall (2017) is mainly based on the views of Dewey and Peters. Following Dewey's view, education cannot be restricted by ages, subjects, and the walls of schoolrooms. Moreover, education is identified as a process and experiences whose values are significant for learners. Although this process has no endpoint and its outcomes are unpredictable, still, it makes specific and desired changes happening within students. According to the definition of education based on Peter's research, Goodall (2017) suggests that education (1) is the process in which includes coordination between motor skills and elements of cognition; (2) is practiced by productive means what respect student-related concerns and (3) is accepted by both society and learners to provide worthwhile knowledge for learners. It has become commonplace to distinguish "formal education" from "informal education" forms of education, and simply put, the prior takes students into schools, colleges, and universities or any kinds of educative institutions that have specific set formulas (Goodall, 2017).

Whereas education refers to activities that are out of the school walls, schooling is what happens at school which is defined as a place of providing formal education (Goodall, 2017). Since for children, staying at school is taken most of their time, schooling is expected to give them instruction whose patterns are structured chronologically and hierarchically. Moreover, schooling must (1) encompass the worthwhile contents revolved around and accepted by society as well as cognitive principles, and (2) be implemented in a respectful way towards the student agency to make lasting influences and changes on student thinking (Goodall, 2017). Also, schooling is understood as an instruction whose program is organized, supported, and permitted by society so that both learning and education can occur. Basing on the given definition of schooling, it is obvious to see that schooling is a subset of education that is under the umbrella of learning,

yet the three terms “learning”, “education”, and “schooling” are used interchangeably in educational research.

In education practices, parental engagement and parental involvement are the different forms of parental participation in child learning. Although both influence the development and academic outcomes of children positively (Epstein, 2010; Goodall, 2013; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995), there is a difference related to their range: parental engagement contributes to the development of children’s learning, meanwhile, parental involvement is assistance for children’s schooling, thus, obviously, the merit of parental engagement is wider than of parental involvement (Goodall, 2018).

To gain a thorough understanding of the difference between the two terms, the research of Goodall and Montgomery (2014) is valid. Following the research, involvement is understood as participation in one activity or one event, whereas engagement refers to the feeling of getting involved in a specific activity (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014). The two terms if taken together, engagement includes not only activities but also the feeling of possession of those activities, thus, in the comparison between parental engagement and parental involvement, the prior consists of not only related activities but also stronger agreements and ownerships of those activities than the latter do (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014). In education practices, the fact is that parental engagement is perceived as parental involvement, however, this concept is wider with the focus on children’s learning at homes such as parents’ evenings, daily tasks, and conversation. As a result, the relationship between parents and children is crucial in this case when parental behaviors can make influences on their children’s education (Goodall, 2013). Following the findings of a range of research in this topic, it seems that parental engagement has been recognized as the most effective lever for children’s accomplishment when it is built up to be a set of parental attitudes, and actions which are towards child-rearing and work well together so that learning goals of children can be gained (Goodall, 2013).

Furthermore, to illustrate the greater range of parental engagement, Goodall (2013) suggests the model of productive parental engagement for children’s learning which is based on the perceptions from several studies regarding the involvement and engagement of parents. The suggested model consists of six components which are (1) child-rearing based on authoritativeness, (2) learning

at home, (3) the necessary start of parental engagement at the early stages, (4) taking and maintaining child learning-related active interests during the phases of child development, (5) high learning desires, and (6) the retainment of the engagement (Goodall, 2013). In general, within the six components of the model, the first one holds a central position which means that other components will take place within the sphere of authoritative parenting. However, this parenting style cannot replace other components or parents cannot engage in their children's education effectively by moving one component from another, the model works well only when all components are operated together. Child-rearing is dynamic and changeable since it needs to respond to the changes from children, thus, authoritative parenting allows parents to be more flexible to adapt well to the needs during child development (Goodall, 2013).

To clarify the process of parental engagement and to evidence its wider range in the comparison with parental involvement, Goodall and Montgomery, (2014) suggest the model of a continuum that includes three moves: (1) parental involvement with schools, (2) parental involvement with children's schooling, and (3) parental engagement with children's learning. At the first point, activities related to children's learning are organized and controlled by schools as well as happen around schools although, parents still get involved. The benefits of this point are to build up the starting point for the relationship between schools and families so that parents can have the basic information such as event schedule, curriculum topics, or main themes taught during a school year. The second point of the model can occur either at school or at home. The concentration of this point is on the interchange of information between families and school personnel about their practices and interests as well as their goals and problems of children's schooling. Basing on the shared information, the trustable relationship can be grown up between two sides since the barriers to parental engagement are broken down. Another benefit of this move is that the perceptions about children's development become deeper as the knowledge related is more accessible for both sides. The last point focuses on the parental agency which is based on the information given by schools. However, the parental decision to be involved is made not from the dictation of school, it comes from the perception of the parental role of parents, thus, the benefits of parental engagement will be gained at this point such as the increase of parental achievement, self-esteem, motivation,

engagement, and expectations (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014). According to the model of the three moves, parental involvement takes place on the first two steps as a significant foundation for the implementation of parental engagement.

In the present research, education, schooling, and learning interchange with the meaning of schooling. In parenting practices, Asian parents tend to focus on their children's schooling since they believe that there is a strong connection between academic success and future life: the more successful children are at school, the more achievements they get in their future (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). Following this perception of Asian parents, the research object is parental involvement since its direct and positive effects on children's schooling, although parental engagement has wider benefits on children's life and achievement.

The model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997, 2005) considers the involvement procedure basing on parents' perspective. In this respect, the model focuses on the constructs of psychology that impact on parental behaviors concerning involvement to offer vital and contextual elements of the process of parental involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) assume that the choice of parents to get involved takes place explicitly and implicitly. This means that to make the decision in involvement, parents might perceive their role in their children's success or they might be influenced by external events or demands from fundamental dimensions of the environment (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997), for example, parents provide more learning support when they are asked by their children or when they assume that they are capable of assisting their children's learning.

The present research planned to approach parents' perspective regarding the involvement in their children's learning, thus, the first level and one part of the second level (i.e., parental involvement's form) of the model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) are suitable for the research aims. Before presenting the model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, it is necessary to introduce the role of the collaboration between schools and families which is defined as an important factor that can impact on parental involvement.

2.2 The role of home-school liaison towards parental involvement

Approaching the concept of parental involvement multidimensionally by categorizing the term into three types which are parental behaviors, parental personal involvement, and parental intellectual, the research of Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994) states that when parents engage in school activities, interact with their offsprings about school and provide the activities that stimulate their children's cognition, children have positive experiences towards their school so that their schooling can be improved (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994). It means that the participation of parents in learning activities at school is important for children's development, thus, home-school collaboration is necessary since parental involvement cannot exclude school settings (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997)

As was pointed out in the introduction to this paper, the partnership between home and school is one of the potential contributors to parental involvement since a welcoming school climate and invitations from teachers encourage parents to get involved more in their children's learning (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997) and in turn, schools and teachers also get benefits when they are a part of parental involvement (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2002). For example, teachers can increase their teaching self-efficacy as well as can get a high evaluation from parents (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 1992, 2002).

To stand up for the idea regarding the relevance of home-school collaboration, Epstein (2002) suggests the model of the family, school, and community partnership. According to Epstein (2002), educators should view children not only as students but also as children since that view helps them attempt more to include families and communities as potential partners so that children can be provided multifaceted education for their development. Epstein (2002) also emphasizes the establishment of a caring community around children and its work will begin when the collaboration among parents, teachers, students, and other stakeholders is built up. According to the model of overlapping spheres of the family, school, and community partnerships, the more the three sides work together, the more chances children have in order to develop their education. Through interdependent communications among all stakeholders, common purposes for children are recognized and the respect for what each side offers

for the child development is increased so that children can perform well at school (Epstein & Sheldon, 2006). Besides, Epstein and Sheldon (2006) also emphasize the characteristic of being multidimensional of partnerships of schools, families, and communities by suggesting the framework of six types of parental involvement which are *parenting, communicating, volunteering, home learning, making decisions, and cooperating with the communities*. The fact is that each type has their own practices, particular obstacles and produce diverse consequences for children, families, and educators, thus, the demand for schools is addressing those points by building up accurate strategies in order to reach out parents from different races, educational backgrounds and socioeconomic statuses (Epstein & Sheldon, 2006).

Moreover, the model of overlapping spheres is assumed that the policies, programs, and strategies from schools and families, as well as the actions and perceptions of each individual in these parties, can promote the dual interests and effects that influence on child learning and development (Epstein, 2010). To boost the analogies and overlaps in destinations and responsibilities of schools and families, the models of school-like families and family-like schools are necessary since, in fact, the influence of schools still occurs at home and vice versa. For instance, when students are at home, what is taught assists them to complete their learning tasks and when they are at school, what they have done with homework makes them pay more attention and ready for challenging works in class (Epstein, 2010).

The significance of the collaboration between home and school also is stood out in the research of Goodall and Montgomery (2014) when they suggest the model of a continuum which consists of movements from parental support with schools to parental engagement with children's learning is presented. Throughout the movements of the model, the mutual communication to exchange information about children between families and schools is highlighted since it builds up trust and breaks down the barriers which prevent the development of children (Goodall & Montgomery, 2014), therefore, the respect for each other and the feeling of being heard of the two institutions are profound during the communication (Levinthal de Oliveira Lima & Kuusisto, 2020).

In fact, the collaboration between school and family emerges as a productive tool to promote parental support, thus, the model of Epstein has been

seen as an effective recommendation for educators when it emphasizes on the relevance of reciprocal interactions among parents, educators, and community partners as well as the levels of parental involvement. Meanwhile, although owning the same purpose that is to encourage parents to get more involved in their children's learning, the theory of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997, 2005) employs psychological and contextual elements that influence on decisions of parents to be involved. In fact, all theories if taken together will support the multidimensional views to deal with challenges related to parenting, teaching, and learning as well as to fulfill the understanding of education and the roles of families, schools, and communities in child development so that parental involvement can be promoted (Epstein & Sheldon, 2006). However, the current research aims to investigate the predictors for parental involvement from parents' perspective, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's (2005) model was adopted for the accomplishment of the research aims.

2.3 The model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997, 2005)

2.3.1 The original model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997)

The original model of parental involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997) includes five levels (*see Figure 1)*. The first one presented three salient constructs that explained why parents make their own resolutions to be involved in their children's learning: (1) parental role construction which means the belief of parents regarding what they should do to support their children's schooling, (2) parental sense of efficacy regarding their ability to be a part of the learning procedure of their children and (3) parental perceptions of general invitations from schools and children about the involvement. The next level answers the question "What influences parents' choice of involvement form?". Presented in the model, there are three factors that might predict the choice of parents regarding their involvement. These are (1) particular areas of skills and knowledge of parents, (2) the way they make a balance for their resources of time and energy with the responsibilities of their work and family, (3) specific invitations from their children, teachers, and schools for the involvement.

The third level of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's 1995 model classified mechanisms through which the involvement of parents impacts on their children's academic outcomes. To make influences, parents are suggested to offer *modeling, reinforcement, and instruction* in order to develop the features of children's academic success such as perspectives, knowledge, manners, and so on.

Modeling in parental involvement practices is expounded as school-related behaviors and attitudes (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). Following the modeling theory, children observe their parents as good models to acquire most of the necessary knowledge regarding skills, procedures, concepts, and personal competencies (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001). Moreover, there are emulations of parents' behaviors from their children so that the possibilities of children's high learning performance at school are enhanced (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). Therefore, the advantages of modeling can be promoted when models (i.e., parents) not only possess skills and abilities whose significance and value are perceived by children but also support immediately when the child needs to work with the ongoing tasks which are new and have unobservable results (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). In general, as models, parents can contribute to the development of their children by their experience regarding life aspects throughout the mechanism of modeling (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001).

Reinforcement occurs through aspects of learning at school from parents by giving their children interests, notices, compliments, and awards (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). The mechanism of reinforcement affects learning outcomes by helping maintain consequences of ongoing behavior patterns, therefore, learning behaviors of children can be grown-up when their expected consequences are reinforced frequently (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001). In parental involvement practices, reinforcement might enhance the chances in which the repetition of homogeneous skills, thinking, and manners can take place. Studies have stated that the reinforcement of parents is more productive than that of teachers since parents can control and extend their reinforcement. Another reason is that parents' knowledge regarding the chances and effectiveness of reinforcement for their own children can make their responses to their children's behaviors direct and immediate (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001)

Parental Instructions, according to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995), include two kinds whose characteristic is either direct, closed-ended or direct, open-ended. The prior develops factual learning and knowledge of children, meanwhile, the latter focuses on cognition and abilities of children (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). Since instructional communication of parents towards their children consists of either simple questions or procedures related to the development of problem-solving competency and strategic understanding, its role is to boost the learning abilities of children and their assumption of accurate individual learning responsibility (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). In doing so, the actions of parental guidance might incorporate explaining learning tasks or new information, connecting information to related settings, noticing children to components of learning tasks or helping children figure out answers to learning problems. Noticeably, parental instructions still influence learning outcomes even when parents do not have much knowledge regardless of methodology since their understanding about learning preferences and styles of their children can help them respond appropriately learning needs of their children (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001).

Thus far, this level has argued that these mechanisms impact on children's learning by increasing conditions in which children review classroom instructions as well as improve what they are missed at school. However, the limit of the mechanisms is that they by themselves are unlikely to produce situations in which learning outcomes can be influenced and that their role can be replaced by different factors such as a good teacher or a supporting and caring adult. (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995)

Throughout the process of parental involvement, to gain its benefits, there were mediating variables that were mentioned in the fourth level of the model that might be applied. These are the mediation of child development-related activities of parents and the match between the activities and the expectations of schools.

The use of activities and strategies, that must be appropriate for the development of children, can make influences when they are developed based on parents' thinkings about their effectiveness and awareness of children's development-related aspects such as cognition, competencies, and developmental preferences (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). The research of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) also emphasized the influence of this

variable on younger children since during this period, children can get enthusiastic by parental attention, school tasks as well as academic achievements.

The second mediated variable is the match between parental support and expectations from schools. Indeed, the involvement activities should be in line with learning goals as well as the school's expectations so that parental involvement can enhance child outcomes positively (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). In parental involvement practices, this variable is essential since children are supposed to be a fundamental connection between school and family, thus, if there are any conflicts happening, the development of children can be impacted negatively, for instance, they can make children drop out of one side. In this respect, mutual communications become necessary to gain the fit which boosts the beneficial effects of parental involvement and then help children accomplish their learning outcomes (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995).

The last level was defined as outcomes for children through the parental involvement process. These outcomes consist of the development of skills and knowledge as well as the growth of self-efficacy for performing well at school. Following the model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995), throughout the mechanisms of modeling, reinforcement, and guidance, parental involvement makes a profound impact on the development of skills and knowledge for children. Indeed, as a result of these mechanisms, parents' positive behaviors, and activities inspire and motivate their children to grow up with positive and effective learning behaviors and afterward, the children can be successful at schools. The sources from parents which consist of direct and indirect experiences, verbal convincement, and emotional stimulations can increase their children's sense of efficacy to be successful in school. Undoubtedly, all kinds of support from parents, including talking with children regarding their school days, instructing them on homework, and encouraging them with compliments, strongly make children more confident in their abilities and attitudes, as a result, children can accomplish their learning goals more easily (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995).

level 5	**learner achievements**		
	skills and knowledge self-efficacy for high performance in school		
level 4	**mediating variables**		
	Use of involvement strategies that are appropriate for child development Good match between parental involvement-related actions and school expectations		
level 3	**mechanisms through which parental support influences child success**		
	modeling	reinforcement	instruction
level 2	**parent's choice of involvement form, affected by**		
	specific areas of parent's skill and knowledge	Combination of demands on total parent's time and energy (family, employment)	specific invitations and demands for involvement from children, teachers, and schools
level 1	**parent's basic involvement decision, influenced by**		
	Personal construction of the parental role	parents' self-efficacy for helping their children perform well in school	general invitations and demands for involvement from children and schools

FIGURE 1. *The model of parental involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, (1995), p.327)*

2.3.2 The first two levels of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005)

In 2005, Hoover-Dempsey and her colleagues suggested the revised model after empirical tests (*the full revised model can be seen in Appendix A*). Since the present research aimed to investigate the predictors of parental involvement as well as the choices of Asian parents regarding the forms of parental involvement (home-based, school-based, and total involvement), level 1 including personal motivators of involvement (i.e., *parental role constructions, and self-efficacy of parents*), parental perceptions of invitations to involvement from schools, children

and teachers as well as parents' perceived life context and the first part of the level two regarding involvement forms of the revised model are focused on.

There are three main differences between the original model and the revised model at the first two levels (Walker et al., 2005). The first difference is the generalization of the constructs of levels 1 and 2 in the original model into three overall constructs in the revised model which are (1) motivational beliefs of parents combined from parental role construction and the parental sense of efficacy; (2) parents' perceptions of invitations for involvement from others including schools, children and teachers, and (3) the perception of parents regarding life context overarched from the self-perceptions regarding time, energy, skills and knowledge of parents (Walker et al., 2005) The second difference between the two models is the characteristic of being more dynamic of the revised model as a result of the hypothesized connections between and within levels (Walker et al., 2005). This point is exemplified by the assumption regarding the gap between what parents think about their role and what they do in relation to their children's learning created by the impact of available resources (e.g., invitations from children) for parents and the hypothesis about the correlations between the constructs of level 1 and parents' choices regarding their involvement. The last difference is the way the authors interpret the dependent measures. It is illustrated by the combination of levels 1 and 2 of the original model into three major constructs of level 1 of the revised model and the categorization of parental involvement forms which are home-based and school-based parental (Walker et al., 2005). The examples for the prior are following child progress, instructing homework, talking about school days, contacting teachers, and so on, meanwhile, the manifestation of the latter is the participation of parents in school activities such as teacher-parent conferences, volunteering events, or field trips with children (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Levels 1 and a part of level 2 of the revised model are depicted in Figure 2.

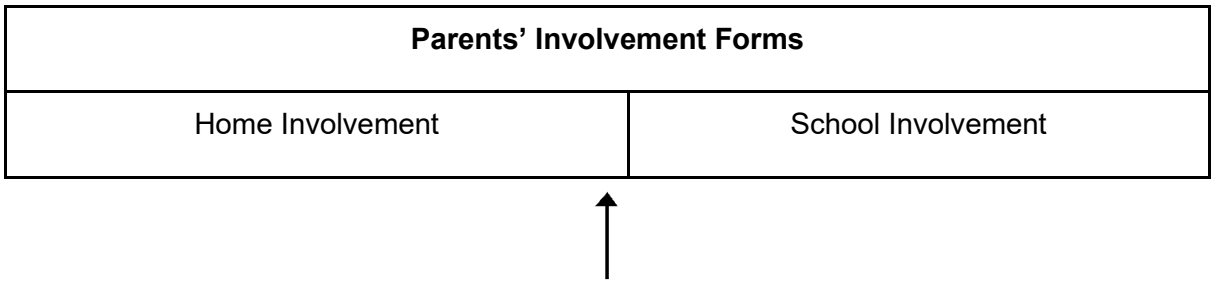

FIGURE 2. *The first level and the part of the second level of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's (2005) revised theoretical model of the parental involvement process (Walker, et al., 2005, p.88*)

In the present research, the revised model with level 1 and level 2 was used to examine the reasons and methods Asian parents get involved in their children's schooling. The following parts of this section highlight motivational factors, parental perceptions regarding the invitations from others, and two contextual aspects which contribute to parents' involvement. Furthermore, the description of the potential influence of the length of residency on parental involvement forms is added since the research aimed to check if it anticipates the involvement of Asian parents in the Finnish context.

The motivational beliefs of parents are a crucial construct since basically, it is a foundation of the actions of parents which influences on several aspects of their children's life, especially schooling. This construct includes two components: general role construction and self-efficacy of parents about child success in learning (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005)

The construction of the parental role is defined as their belief regarding what they should do related to their children's schooling. According to the findings of psychological and educational research, this contributor is influenced by the way parents define their own role, their beliefs regarding child development, parenting

and the role of their support at home in children's schooling (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997)

In general, the definition of the role is expectations of groups regarding the attitudes of their individual members or typical behaviors of individuals within a group (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). It means that the process of defining the role of group members is established by communications between them and their groups, thus, their role might change during each certain period. To maintain the stability of group members' roles, there is a need for a match between the expectations of them and their groups.

In the application of the role theory to parents' choice about involvement in their children's learning, the degree of involvement depends on the expectations of certain groups that parents belong to (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). For example, if schools expect parents to get highly involved, the parents will choose to be more active in their children's learning and vice versa. However, sometimes, conflicts might happen since the expected parental involvement behaviors are different among groups in which parents are members (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). This point can be exemplified by the diverse expectations of schools and workplaces for parents therefore, sometimes, those expectations are in conflict which becomes a challenge for parents.

The general role construction has been assumed as the strong influencer on parental involvement, thus, parents' beliefs about the development of their children and their child-rearing play a potential role to help children accomplish their learning goals (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Since these beliefs are diverse, their effects can be either negative or positive. For example, if parents focus on obedience, good manners, and compliance for their children, the consequence might be low performance in schools (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). On the contrary, if personal responsibility and self-respect are developed, the learning performance might be higher (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Besides, several studies examined and provided contradictory information that is the appropriate beliefs of parents about their roles at home to support their children's learning also influence on the decisions to their involvement, however, the beliefs are affected by variables associated with socioeconomic status, general cultural orientations of their own country, social assumptions about their roles with their children, general life experiences in children's schooling and the

context of particular person and family groups (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

Furthermore, the role construction of parents is grown basically by experiences of parents over time in the correlations between them and other individual groups relative to schooling (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). Those experiences can be personal, can come from their past, or can be ongoing in the relationship with others who connect with their children's education such as teachers, school personnel, and their counterparts. Moreover, since it is socially constructive, it might change as a response to variations of social circumstances and intentional attempts. For example, the beliefs of their role are increased when they receive recommendations from teachers about what they can do to support their children's learning (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

In summary, it has been shown from this review that parental role construction includes expectations of varied groups to which parents belong, their ideas regarding how they rear their children, and their thinking of the role of home support. Each component influences the actions of parents related to their children and then encourages parents to make their own decision in the involvement in their children's learning (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997).

The construct of parents' sense of efficacy for supporting children succeed in school is built up by the general basic of personal efficacy theory what states that one's behavior choices within a situation are decided by the power of self-regulation or thoughts of that person regarding his or her own role and domination in that situation (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

According to Hoover-Dempsey et al. (1992), the definition of parent efficacy is their beliefs regarding (1) their general capacity to make contributions to the growth and learning outcomes of their children; (2) their particular efficaciousness in impacting on the school learning of their children, and (3) their own influences related to their fellows and teachers of their children.

In practices of parental involvement in children's learning, to take action, parents need to make plans based on their thinking regarding their behaviors and the outcomes they might gain. At this point, the role of self-efficacy is to foster parents to start challenges and decide how much effort, persistence, and perseverance they put to solve those challenges. The most important concern is

that self-efficacy is a belief regardless of the capacities of someone, not their skills so parents with high self-efficacy tend to believe their abilities in helping their children throughout the learning process and then when there are any difficulties occurring throughout the involvement process, they are confident and persistent to put more efforts to tackle it (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

According to the citation of Hoover-Dempsey et al., (2005) regarding the research of Bandura (1989, 1997), self-efficacy is affected by four key components which are (1) direct experiences of success in certain areas, (2) learning from the success of others, (3) verbal support form important people and (4) physiological stimulations. The mentioned components illustrate that the parental sense of efficacy can be impacted by encouragement from schools, teachers, family members, and social groups. In the four key components, the most effective is direct and positive experiences of parents such as success parents experienced in schools and even in their involvement before, as well as diverse forms of learning support they received from their own family (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). Correspondingly, the research of Taylor et al., (2004) contents that the experiences parents had in school before are important for the learning process of their children that means if parents own positive school experiences, they tend to view schools as a fair and friendly place and vice versa. Those experiences are created by all people around them: family, teachers, peers, and community, thus, when there is an absence of protective factors such as social and material resources, parents rear their children by following the way they were educated before and then getting less involved in their children's learning (Taylor et al., 2004). Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) also suggest that if parents offer the activities related to these components, their children's sense of efficacy might develop so that they can accomplish their learning goals in school.

Similarly, the research of Hoover-Dempsey et al., (2001) and Tazouti and Jarlégan, (2019), again, highlight the strong positive correlation between parental self-efficacy and parental involvement, especially for mothers (Tazouti & Jarlégan, 2019). As Hoover-Dempsey et al., (2001) claimed, parental self-efficacy also is used for explanations related to the parental role and the findings regarding why parents get involved in their children's education actively. The findings of the research of Green et al., (2007) state that between home-based

and school-based involvement, parental self-efficacy has stronger influences on the prior since the lack of efficaciousness of parents prevents them to create a sympathetic relation with schools for the involvement.

Thus far, the influence of parental self-efficacy on positive decisions of parents' involvement is explained by the relation to the following parental attributes: strong desires for their children and confidence in the competencies of their children to be successful, their capabilities to get negotiation between the demands of their work and their involvement as well as the power of their sense to assist their children's schooling preferences (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

To encourage parents to get involved in their children's learning, invitations from important people around them are assumed as key motivators (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). This construct comprises of three components which are requirements from children when they need the support and attendance of their parents in their learning process (children-generated invitations), an inviting school climate as well as welcoming and engaging behaviors for parents to get involved from teachers.

In the educational field, there is not much research concluding the importance of children-generated invitations, however, the role of this kind of invitation cannot be ignored (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997) when it can promote parental involvement by activating desires of parents related to their children's needs of academic development (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). In fact, child invitations may be implicit and explicit. The prior is based on observations and knowledge of parents to recognized if their children need learning supports. The latter has come directly from requests of children when they need help throughout their learning process (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

Extensive research has shown that the decisions of involvement of parents are influenced differently by the age and the stages of the development of a child (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). Indeed, there is evidence that shows that the more children grow up, the less parental support they need (DePlanty et al., n.d.; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). The reduction in parental involvement is explained by changes in the level of learning tasks, in the parental beliefs regarding parents' capability to provide learning supports, and in children's growth (Green et al., 2007). Another factor that might impact the extent of

parental involvement is the learning performance of children in general, although, there are heterogeneous proofs in relation to this point (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). To explain for this non-homogeneousness, researchers have based on the stages of child development or the way how parents and children respond to the levels of learning performance. For example, when children get some progress in their learning, they have more motivation to ask for more assistance from their parents, whereas, others might want the support of their parents to be allocated to other activities. Another form of children-generated invitations comes from the individual qualities of children such as characteristics, learning ways what they prefer, and the connections between them and their parents (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995). For example, parents believe that their involvement is needed by a child described as “slow”; meanwhile, another child who is highly self-demanding will not require parental involvement (Hoover-Dempsey et al.,1997).

In practices of parental support, the children-generated invitations might be complemented well by invitations of schools and teachers to affect the decisions of parents in terms of their involvement in their children’s learning (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). According to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler, (2005), to increase school climate, there are two components which are commitment and management of heads of schools needed. The first component is placed in the context of working productively with parents to develop their acknowledgment of the phenomenon and the second one is illustrated by the efforts of the principal such as attempts to meet the demands of personnel, parents, and students, frequent visits to classrooms and harmonious school improvement-related recommendation. (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). Additionally, it is assumed that when schools include all parent groups, erase the difference of races and socioeconomic status in their activities, events, organizations, try to get more acknowledge regardless of their students’ families, the academic outcomes of learners can be improved (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

In general, there is still a deficiency of mutual communications between schools and families that also influences parents to make decisions regarding involvement in their children’ schooling therefore, a welcoming environment from school for parental involvement is crucial since parents might be engaged and acknowledge more their responsibilities (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997). In

this respect, a well-organized school structure and management practices; welcoming, respecting, and helpful climate, as well as the sufficiency of information regarding students, are the attributes to grow parental involvement (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

In line with a welcoming school climate, invitations from teachers are also profound. Indeed, this point has been examined in a range of studies and the finding is that parents whose children are taught by high-involvement teachers tend to support more school activities. Moreover, teachers who try to involve parents from all levels of socioeconomic in their teaching have students who might get higher learning improvement. (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997)

According to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005), the fact is that teacher invitations including both school-based involvement (e.g., workshop) and home-based involvement (e.g., student homework) are vital responses to parents who (1) want to know how to be involved in their children's learning, (2) want to affirm productiveness and value of parental involvement, (3) want to be boosted the confidence to continue being involved as well as (4) want the strong relationship between schools and families to be built up. When the teacher invitations work well, they can benefit parental involvement by developing parents' comfort in schooling-related conversation with teachers, increasing parents' beliefs regarding the care of teachers about their children, and enhancing parents' interests in children's learning (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

However, in educational practices, there are obstacles for teachers to encourage parents to get involved in their children's learning. From teachers' point of view, there are reasons for them to avoid involving parents such as the limit of time, the dearth of external motivations, the lack of commitment or skills to cooperate with parents, the fear of parental judgment in relation to professional competency or of attribution of children's problems (Anfara & Mertens, 2008).

Overall, the invitations from others are contributors to parental involvement since they can break the boundary between schools and families, as well as wake up the desire of parents to be a part of their children's schooling (Green et al., 2007). Furthermore, to foster the invitations' benefits, the correlation between schools and teachers needs to be functional and the general influence from school climate can take place through invitations from teachers (Green et al., 2007).

Combined with the motivational factors, life contexts have a certain influence on parental involvement. Following Hoover-Dempsey et al., (2005), life contexts of parents include family socioeconomic status and parents' resources which are two groups: knowledge and skills, time and energy. Those resources play a vital role for parents when they decide to get involved in their children's learning since the resources impact the way they confront with particular learning demands of their children. On the other hand, the resources can be challenges for parents to get involved. Those challenges, for example, might be the lack of their skills and knowledge in relation to certain subjects at schools, the lack of time and energy to meet demands of their works as well as their family duties, such as inflexible working schedules, multiple jobs, multiple child-care, aged care and so on (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2001; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). Therefore, to prompt parents to get involved, there is a need for a balance between the fit of parents' daily experiences and the consistency among their belief regarding the role of involvement and their self-efficacy for support in their children's schooling (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

Through implications of the model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler in educational research, the findings regarding the contributions of the level 1 factors have varied according to the backgrounds of participants and contexts. For example, Anderson and Minke (2007)'s research, taking place in two suburban school districts in upstate New York, aimed to examine the correlation among the four parental variables which are role construction, sense of efficacy, resources related to life context, and understanding of invitations of teachers (Anderson & Minke, 2007). Following the results of the research, the effects of role construction, and the influence of parents' sense efficacy on the parental decision to be a part of their children's education were limited. The reasons are the dependence of the two variables on the grade level of children and their complexities (Anderson & Minke, 2007). However, the research shows that the crucial role of specific teacher invitations is connected strongly to the involvement behaviors of parents (Anderson & Minke, 2007). Moreover, this factor is defined as a mediator between parents' involvement behaviors and role construction. Indeed, the beliefs of parents regarding involvement somewhat are influenced by their behaviors and reflect their perceptions of invitations from teachers (Anderson & Minke, 2007). Also, the research shows the role of schools in

increasing parental involvement because the more schools are interested in the phenomenon, the more support teachers gain to encourage parents to get involved in children's learning (Anderson & Minke, 2007).

In the current research, the length of residency is added into the model to examine if it predicts the decision of Asian parents regarding school-based involvement. This point was based on the hypothesis that is immigrant parents who have lived in a new host country for a long period get more acquainted with the educational system, thus, more probably to get involved (Turney & Kao, 2009). Furthermore, in Finland, the length of residency has impacted on immigrant adolescents' degree of school adjustment (Liebkind et al., 2004). Indeed, adult immigrants who have been longer in Finland get fewer symptoms of stress, their self-confidence and sense of mastery are increased (Liebkind et al., 2004). However, the findings regarding the influence of length residence on parental involvement in education are not consistent among immigrant family groups. For instance, although Afro-Caribbean parents lived in the United States longer with a higher American identity and knowledge than Latino family groups, their involvement in school-based activities was decreased according to the report of their child's teacher ratings (Calzada et al., 2015). Following the research mentioned, the present research decided to add the variable of the length of residency to check if it anticipates the school-based involvement of Asian parents in Finland in which the educational system emphasizes on school-based activities (Sormunen et al., 2011).

3 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN ASIAN AND FINNISH CULTURES, AND BARRIERS FOR IMMIGRANT PARENTS

3.1 Asian parenting styles and parental involvement

3.1.1 Asian parenting style

The handbook of Bornstein, (2005) provides an overall view regarding the parenting of Asians. In the research, Asia is divided into three main regions which are East Asia (*China, Japan, and Korea*), South Asia *(India, Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka)*, and Southeast Asia *(Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia, Philippines, Thailand, Singapore, Malaysia, Burma, and Indonesia)*. Throughout the research, historical considerations, as well as beliefs regarding childhood affecting the way in which parents rear, taking care of, and supporting their children through child development are shown. Confucian sources, especially, Mencius and Buddhist influences have been believed to be the roots of the history of childhood and childrearing not only in China, Japan, Korea, and Vietnam but also throughout many regions of Asia (Bornstein, 2005). In line with that, Ashdown and Faherty (2020) state that in those countries, Confucian sources are the origins of the views of Asian parents about child natures and developments, as well as parental roles.

From Confucian and Buddhist views, children own innate goodness and innocence (Bornstein, 2005). It is assumed that when are born, children do not have any knowledge regarding the world, thus, adults, especially parents can be partly responsible for their children's development by teaching them the virtues such as filial piety, faithfulness, persistence, and kindness (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). Also, there is evidence depicting that these notions are promoted in East

Asia, for example, in India, children are believed as a place in which God resides, thus, they are pure and holy (Bornstein, 2005). Basing on the beliefs of the pureness and divinity of children, parental roles in protecting and fostering children become profound. In Japan, the metaphors of “plant cultivation” are common. The growth of trees resembles the development of children whose process needs appropriate supports from growers’ care (Bornstein, 2005).

Another aspect that contributes to the parenting style of Asian families is the beliefs of the important role of families as well as family interdependence in Asian culture (Bornstein, 2005). Within Asian cultures, the socialization for children focuses on families as the central reference cohort for interdependence, therefore, Asian beliefs in parenting are formed by this quality among family members. For instance, Chinese mothers pay more attention to a close and lasting relationship between parents and their offspring, meanwhile, Western parents emphasize children’s self-esteem during their childrearing (Bornstein, 2005). For East Asian and Vietnamese families, family interdependence becomes remarkable by filial piety (Bornstein, 2005). Children in those families are taught how to treat parents respectfully, how to be obedient, and how to look after their parents in both aspects: material and emotional. Besides, making sacrifices as well as protecting the family face, what is influenced by the actions of each family member, are important things or priorities taught. In parenting practices of Asian families, interdependence is of the utmost significance and it is conveyed by the perspective which is that everyone does not live like independent individuals, everyone lives and communicates within their communities, thus, children should be obedient, get along with people around them and be associated with their families (Bornstein, 2005). For Filipinos, although, their own culture does not highlight patriarchy and the hierarchy of age, spending time with family, caring about the welfare of the family, and supporting their family are also the center of their lives (Bornstein, 2005). Filipino children learn how to maintain a smooth interpersonal relationship what is defined by the sacrifices for family, despite, sometimes, it can conflict with their own desires or needs (Bornstein, 2005).

Because of the historical roots of childhood and childrearing, and the beliefs about “family as a center”, Asian families tend to adopt the authoritarian style in their parenting practices (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020; Russell et al., 2010). This

kind of parenting is understood as the way in which parents rear their children by high demands, controls, strictness for their children, as well as low levels of responsiveness and warmth. Although the authoritative style is fruitful for other minority groups, the authoritarian style still has the same benefits for children's development, for instance, the high levels of learning achievement of Asian American students who come from authoritarian families have shown at schools (Russell et al., 2010). Most strikingly, from Asian parents' perspective, the strictness formed by the authoritarian style aims to protect their children, not prevent their children's development since it is an effective way to direct children into the right path (Russell et al., 2010).

Furthermore, the perceptions of parenting based on cultural factors suggest that the affection of Asian parents for their children is depicted through their instrumental supports (e.g., cooking, providing learning materials) and warmth shown by actions, rather than through verbal expression (Russell et al., 2010). They focus on the well-being of their children by providing enough daily child needs as well as sacrifices, for example, making decisions regarding migration for better opportunities for their children even they must leave their higher-paying jobs (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020; Russell et al., 2010). In the comparison with the Western counterparts, Asian parents have high control over their children because not only do they believe that children need clear instruction throughout their development, but also parental control is the profound responsibility of parents (Russell et al., 2010). In South Asia, the authoritarian parenting style is identified with physical punishment to discipline or encourage their children towards academic work, however, children are also parented with the qualities such as kindness, self-control, consequently, following the finding of several studies, Indian children own friendly attitudes, know how to play cooperatively as well as interact positively in society (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020).

Moreover, from Asian perspectives, parental roles are not only teaching virtues and taking care of children's healthy life but also covering schooling-related issues of children (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). Indeed, when children are at school age, it is essential for them to be provided the proper education by their parents since it helps start them off on the right path, (Bornstein, 2005; Russell et al., 2010). Additionally, a range of research has shown that the diversity of cultural and parental backgrounds, as well as family contexts, might influence on

the way parents convey educational values to their children (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020; Usher & Kober, 2012). Indeed, Asian parents tend to emphasize the values of hard work, persistence as well as the salience of a good education for higher achievement, therefore, they usually have high expectations of academic achievement for their children in order to foster their children's learning motivation (Usher & Kober, 2012). For example, Chinese American mothers tend to apply the Chinese model of so-called good nurturing what emphasizes on the ways children are trained to be disciplined and to get high achievements in school as well (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). They also believe in the value of effort for the achievement of what does not come from the only innate ability (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). Indeed, there is an association between Asian values of high performance in education and their belief that they can be successful when they work hard that comes from their family-based orientation and gradually becomes their mindset (Lui & Rollock, 2013; Peng & Wright, 1994). However, the belief in effort results in detrimental effects as it puts more pressure and makes the fear of academic failure of Asian immigrant students greater since they need to endeavor more to meet the expectations of their parents. This point can be manifested by that Asian students spend more time for doing homework than leisure activities or their focus on how to perform well on school tasks, rather than to be able to complete those tasks (Usher & Kober, 2012).

3.1.2 Parental involvement in child education of Asian families

In Asian culture, the salient characteristic of families is collectivism, thus, parenting processes pay the most attention to fulfill parents' personal goals through their children's lives and achievement since the accomplishment or failure of their children influences the family name (Lui & Rollock, 2013). More importantly, academic achievements are believed to contribute to individual success since they determine a good career as well as an opportunity for upward social mobility (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020; Lui & Rollock, 2013). Thus, for example, in South Asia, the significance of education is highlighted in both cultural and religious scripts (e.g., in the holy book of Hinduism) and in celebrations of the puja for worshipping Saraswati, the goddess of learning and knowledge, by Hindu students to gain the blessings for their excellent learning

performance (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). Because of the beliefs regarding the important role of education, following parental ethnotheories, to help children gain academic achievements, in Asia, parental involvement is vital (Bornstein, 2005). The role of parents in children's learning development also is pointed out in Hindu religious scriptures and Muslim holy books (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). According to the sources, the issues related to socioeconomic status as well as cultural groups can be solved by the investment of parents in children's education.

Through the practices of involvement, Asian parents believe that home-based involvement is more important than school-based one (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009; Kim et al., 2018; Peng & Wright, 1994). Therefore, parents have focused on academic preparation as well as a learning environment at home for their children (Bornstein, 2005). For example, in China, early learning skills such as math and the alphabet, as well as accurate school manners, are taught at home before children attend primary schools (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020; Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). Regarding the home learning environment, there is a difference between American and Taiwanese parents (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). Meanwhile, American parents chose non-academic activities for their children and asked their children to do chores after school, their counterparts in Taiwan wanted their children to spend more time on academic interests such as playing learning-related games, reading books, or studying rather than doing chores which are assumed to take away the time for the schoolwork of their children (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). Moreover, in Asian parents' opinion, the more homework required, the more improvement their children get (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). Therefore, the number of learning-related activities and behaviors of parents at home that are depicted by their control of the amount of time their children use, their attendance in extracurricular activities, their teaching for mathematics and reading for their children and their beliefs regarding the importance of homework, are higher than other groups of parents (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). Asian parents also value the direct comments from teachers that point out the weaknesses of their children so that they can know exactly what they can do to support their children (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). Similarly, South Asian families not only attempt to inculcate the value of schooling but also give

direct instruction regarding homework and school activities for their offspring as well (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020).

Another reason explaining the strong bias of Asian parents for home-based involvement originates from the clear division between schools and families that has been created by the belief that each party has their own responsibility for children's learning (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). Indeed, in Asian culture, families are separate from schools, thus, parents do not interact regularly with teachers (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). Moreover, each party believes that they have their own space for their children's learning development, for example, teachers are mainly responsible for children's learning at school, meanwhile, families are in charge of home-based learning activities. Noticeably, Asian parents assume that, in society, the position of teachers is higher than theirs, thereby, they are not confident to get involved in teachers' work (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020; Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). As a result of this perception, Asian parents tend to get involved more in home-based learning for their children, instead of school-based involvement (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009).

Overall, the choice of involvement of Asian parents comes from their beliefs regarding the role of education, the way of childrearing, and the boundary between schools and families. Parental involvement of Asian families is illustrated by spending more time looking for a better school, choosing good living materials, teaching their children social skills and moral values, giving instructions for children's homework, providing opportunities for their children to attend after school lessons (e.g., foreign language, music, art) and joining activities related to education such as going to museums or library (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020; Peng & Wright, 1994; Russell et al., 2010), or in simple words, they prefer home-based involvement. Furthermore, the way parents get involved in their children's learning explains the existed connection between the strong desire of Asian parents and their children's positive motivation to participate in school activities and self-efficacy in learning of Asian learners (Kim et al., 2018). Also, home-based learning environments and learning activities provided by their parents shed light on the reason why Asian American students perform well in school (Peng & Wright, 1994).

3.2 Parental involvement in the Finnish educational system

In Finnish comprehensive schools, parental involvement is viewed mainly as type 2 (Sormunen et al., 2011), communicating, of Epstein's categories (Epstein, 2002). To inspire parents to take part in their children's schooling, Finnish schools organize parents' evening meeting one per semester, parent-teacher conferences once per school year, meanwhile, teachers communicate by phone calls for the problems related to children and send information via email and paper to home (Sormunen et al., 2011). Also, in the Finnish context, Type 3 and type 5, volunteering, and decision-making, respectively, are emerged by the illustration of school feast, events, activities, and councils in which the attendance of parents are encouraged (Sormunen et al., 2011). Basing on that, it is clear that parental involvement in Finnish school culture has a strong bias toward school-based activities. Although home-based learning activities still are encouraged, for instance, the expectations of teachers regarding the participation of parents in homework, they do not seem like an important component of schoolwork (Sormunen et al., 2011)

In Finnish schools, the relationship between schools and families is concentrated. The vital role of the collaboration between parents and educators is mentioned in the National Core Curriculum for Basic Education (FNBE, 2016). The content of Chapter 5 presents the aim of organizations of schoolwork which is to foster learners' learning and welfare. In this respect, the cooperation between school and family is presented as a key factor since it supports students' healthy development. This educational collaboration builds up not only the security and welfare of students but also of classes and the whole school. This chapter also highlights the radical role of parents which is to guarantee the completion of their children's mandatory education. In doing so, the first step is to build up trust, equality, and mutual respect at the early stage. The next step is the communication regarding all aspects of learners from communal information (e.g., *curriculum, learning environment*) to individual information (e.g., *learning progress, learning difficulties, school absence*) organized so that parents can facilitate opportunely their children's learning if needed. The supportive feedback of teachers also plays a vital role since it is necessary for both parents and learners to orient them on what they can do to gain improvement. This point is in

line with the research of Sormunen, et al., (2011) whose findings suggest that without the invitations from schools, the collaboration between families and educational institutions might be weak since, from Finnish parents' perspective, teachers play a vital role to develop the collaboration.

In the chapter Assessment, the role of cooperation between home and family has been mentioned again to constitute a good assessment culture in Finnish schools (FNBE, 2016). For parents, being provided accurate information and joining the discussion with teachers in terms of learners' education are very productive to develop the relationship between school and home so that the academic performance of students can be enhanced (Sormunen et al., 2011). In the Finnish educational system, the supports for learning and school attendance are illustrated by three levels: general, intensified, and special support. During these phases of the learning support provided for students, the cooperation between family and school becomes more essential. From the school side, personnel's duties are to inform exactly about the procedure of the learning support provided, the information related to confidentiality, welfare, and so on. In turn, parents collaborate with schools by (1) their assistance in home-based learning activities, (2) building up the learning goals, (3) increasing their children's school presence, and (4) supporting the learning progress and needs of children so that schools can make suitable plans of the support whose aim to develop learners' capability as well as help them overcome the learning difficulties (FNBE, 2016)

In the Finnish school context, children's education is the accountability of both parents and teachers, thus, the parent-teacher liaison is crucial (Böök & Perälä-Littunen, 2015). The responsibilities of both parents and teachers are supposed to enhance each other since parental commitment and involvement for their children focus more on child welfare, meanwhile, teachers are in charge of pedagogic skills, knowledge, and working with children in a group (Böök & Perälä-Littunen, 2015). However, to develop the liaison, both parties might need to extend their duties besides what they are expected to do for their children's learning at school. For example, parents can take more interest in their children schooling and teachers can support not only children but also families in their parenting tasks (Böök & Perälä-Littunen, 2015). In educational practices in Finland, parents still take a passive role in school activities, thus, to boost the

relationship between home and school, the interactions from the two sides should be more regular and the welcome environment for parental involvement should be organized more productively by schools (Sormunen et al., 2011).

3.3 Challenges related to parental involvement for immigrant parents

The research of Bouakaz (2007) conducted by interviewing Arabic-speaking parents who immigrated to Sweden, aims to explore what promotes and hinders parental support in children's learning. Following the research findings, immigrant parents tended to use their own school experiences to view their children's schools, thereby, their involvement might be different to native parents, for example, their attention was regarding learning materials such as books, pens, meals, school curriculum, and so on, instead of learning activities at schools (Bouakaz, 2007). The fact is that immigrant parents in the research were eager and ready for being a part of their children's learning, however, there is a range of obstacles for them.

According to immigrant parents, the biggest obstacle they had to deal with was language barriers (Antony-Newman, 2019; Bouakaz, 2007; Collignon et al., 2001; Sohn & Wang, 2006). The parents who participated in the research were provided chances to approach the native language, however, it took a long time for them to be influent in a new language. The lack of language skills decreased the contact between families and schools, thus, the information they got from school was restrained. Moreover, the language barriers made parents become passive and feel frustrated since they could not describe their opinions as well as concerns related to their children's schooling, consequently, their participation in their children's learning process was decreased (Bouakaz, 2007). Similarly, since the insufficiency of English skills, Korean parents in the USA felt that the time for school meetings or parent-teacher conferences was limited, consequently, there was an absence of information regarding school activities or curriculum at school. These experiences declined the parental involvement of Korean immigrants, although, they evaluated highly the quality of American schools (Sohn & Wang, 2006).

According to the research of Bouakaz, (2007), from immigrant parents' perspective, schools in their host countries were defined as a different universe (Antony-Newman, 2019; Collignon et al., 2001) and there was a double absence existing among the parents when they could not access the society in which they were belonging to as well as the education system that their children were attending. Consequently, immigrant parents gradually lost not only their self-esteem but also their confidence since they believed that they could not perform well in their parenting roles (Bouakaz, 2007). In addition to the double absence, the feeling of being behind their children, since the gap of information gained between by them and their children from schools, also induced the reduction of the relationship between school and home and of parental involvement as well (Bouakaz, 2007).

Following Asian cultures, teachers are educational experts and children are passive learners, thus, parents should treat and respect teachers as significant sources of assistance for their children's learning (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020). As a result, for Asian immigrant parents, there should be a boundary that separates what teachers and parents are responsible for (Bouakaz, 2007). That perspective also explains why the parents never intervened in schoolwork as well as the lack of their attendance in school-based learning activities (Bouakaz, 2007). For instance, according to Korean parents, in most Asian countries including Korea, to show respect to teachers, parents tended to hesitate or postpone their opinions related to their children's learning, however, this was the opposite in American and Western countries in which the participation and suggestions of parents in school events or parent-teacher conferences was encouraged, thus, this makes Korean parents confused (Sohn & Wang, 2006).

Another barrier is the deficiency of knowledge related to the educational system in the host countries where immigrant parents settle. For example, in Sweden, that grading is not used to evaluate school students made parents feel difficult when they wanted to be involved and if they got involved, they wondered whether their ways were appropriate. Besides, the meetings and events that were organized by schools usually did not connect the participation of parents, therefore, the effects were not enough to help parents get more information about the school system (Bouakaz, 2007). This situation also happened in America where the differences in the cultural aspects between the USA and Korea, the

feeling of discrimination, and the deficiency of support from schools and teachers made Korean parents less involved in their children's formal learning (Sohn & Wang, 2006).

In line with the research of Bouakaz (2007), Collignon et al. (2001) pointed out the barriers to parental involvement of Southeast Asian immigrant parents when living in the New England state. These were the insufficiency of knowledge regarding the school system, the lack of contemplation to the diversity of language and culture in schools, the lack of assistance from schools to prepare parental roles, the late announcement from school regardless of the learning difficulties of their children, and the absence of a superintendent who understands their cultures to be a bridge between them and schools. As a result, immigrant parents decided to be less involved since they assumed that being away from school might protect their identity when their involvement was not productive, and in case it was not in line with what schools want, they could avoid the judgment from school as well. Moreover, sometimes, immigrant parents perceived that, since their lower social status and the lack of information from school and teaching methodologies, their support might create a negative influence on their children's future (Bouakaz, 2007).

Furthermore, from immigrant parents' point of view, the reason why they were not active to engage in their children's learning is the lack of teacher supports. Indeed, some teachers were not sensible enough to recognize the cultural differences, or perhaps, they knew that but do not think of the importance of it, thus, they did not have any strategies to delete the distance between parents and teachers (Sohn & Wang, 2006). Since the awareness of the issue, it is hard for immigrant parents to build a relationship with schools and teachers (Sohn & Wang, 2006).

Thus far, as new citizens in host countries, immigrant parents have to deal with the challenges not only related to how to adapt to a new place but also mainly related to the lack of information of a new educational system because of the language insufficiency, the cultural difference and the lack of mutual conversations between schools and families, therefore, they became less engaged in their children's learning.

To decelerate the enlargement of the COVID-19 pandemic, the region of 200 countries decided to shut down schools with all levels from daycare centers

to universities, consequently, remote learning became the best choice to avoid the education disruption for learners although teachers, families, and children were not prepared for this unexpected adjustment (Garbe et al., 2020).

In Finland, the school closures started on 17th March and ended in the middle of May. During this period, early childhood education and lower primary grades (grade 1 to grade 3) still opened for the parents who worked in critical fields (e.g., doctors, nurses) (Loima, 2020). One advantage of the Finnish education system is that the curriculum and teaching practices existing are suitable for the distance learning environment, thus the process of learning and teaching is maintained continuously during the school closures (Loima, 2020).

Through the pandemic time caused by the Coronavirus, parents carried on the new roles of so-called teachers or learning coaches since their responsibility for their children's learning turned into more instructional when children attended virtual classes, thus, parents faced challenges regarding how parents balanced their responsibilities, motivated their children and accessed the process of remote learning (Garbe et al., 2020).

Firstly, the pandemic not only caused the uncertain situation in which the level of stress and fear grew up as well as the ability for managing time and planning was declined but also put parents under the challenge in which they needed to maintain the balance among parental, working and teaching roles (Garbe et al., 2020). Taken all together, parents felt overwhelmed and difficult to steady their responsibilities, especially for parents with many children (Garbe et al., 2020; Koskela et al., 2020). Secondly, one of the side effects for students during school closures is the loss of learning motivation (Garbe et al., 2020; Koskela et al., 2020). The feeling of an uncertain future, the lack of learning structures at home, the non-educational based distractions, the missing of face-to-face classes, and the uncomfortableness with the laptop screens were reasons for the motivation loss of students, as a result, it created more parental burdens since there was the need of being motivators for parents (Garbe et al., 2020). How to reply to learner needs was also an obstacle for parents (Garbe et al., 2020). In the Finnish setting, for example, parents said that equipment at home was not enough for children's homework accomplishment required, or the lack of a suitable place for children to study contributed to disruption for students during their online classes (Koskela et al., 2020).

Besides the challenges mentioned above, there are existed concerns from parents' perspective regarding online education which are the curriculum used for distance learning, the academic progress for the next school years, and development of socio-emotion for students during the crisis of the COVID-19 pandemic (Garbe et al., 2020; Koskela et al., 2020). For instance, in China, parents of young children assumed that there was a lack of learning atmosphere and social interactions of online education what caused the poor academic outcomes (Dong et al., 2020). In line with that, Finnish parents were worried about the insufficiency of social contact with peers of their children (Koskela et al., 2020).

In the present research, the survey of Garbe et al. (2020) was employed to collect what parents experienced concerning their children's learning at home during the period when schools were shut down in Finland that was caused by the pandemic. And then, a comparison between the data collected and the results from previous studies was created to shed on light the issues related to the remote learning parents coped with.

4 DATA AND METHODS

4.1 Research questions and hypothesis

To enhance parental involvement in children's education, it is crucial to gain a deeper understanding of why parents decide to get involved and how they do that in practice. Therefore, this study aimed to explore new information related to the phenomenon. In this respect, the survey research was adopted to answer the three following questions regarding Asian parents' preference for parental involvement forms, the factors which can influence on their resolutions to get involved in children's learning. Furthermore, the current research investigated the challenges of remote learning parents dealt with during the school closure due to the COVID-19 pandemic in Finland as well as their association with the two background variables (i.e., the number of children of each family and the length of residence) since this situation might affect the way parents practiced their involvement at home.

1) Which form of parental involvement do Asian parents in Finland prefer? Home-based involvement or school-based involvement?

Hypothesis 1: *Asian parents in Finland tend to prefer home-based involvement.*

2) a. Which factors of level 1 of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) predict home-based involvement, school-based involvement, and total involvement?

Hypothesis 2a: *The hypothesis was rooted in the result of the final report of the study of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005).*

For home-based involvement, the strong predictors are the specific invitations from the child, parents' perception of knowledge and skills for involvement, and parents' sense of efficacy for helping the child succeed in school.

For school-based involvement, again, the specific invitations from the child, parents' perception of knowledge and skills are identified as contributors, yet the strongest one is parents' role activity beliefs.

Total involvement is predicted by the parent's perception of specific invitations from the child, parents' awareness of knowledge and skills for involvement, parents' sense of efficacy for donating the child succeed in school, and parent role activity beliefs.

b. Does the length of residence predict school-based involvement?

Hypothesis 2b: *The length of residence plays as a potential predictor for school-based involvement.*

3) a. What kind of challenges in parental involvement were perceived by Asian parents during the CoVID19-lockdown in Finnish schools?

b. Are there correlations between the two background variables (i.e., the number of children of each family, and the length of residence in Finland) and the three themes of challenges regarding remote learning?

Hypothesis 3b: *The number of children of each family correlated with the challenges of remote learning, meanwhile, there is no correlation between the length of residence and the challenges of remote learning.*

4.2 Methodology

The methodological approach for the present research is quantitative methods with the statistical data collected and multivariate analysis used. This section consists of the reasons why quantitative methods, as well as a web survey, were applied for the current study. Additionally, a description of how the survey of this research was designed to meet the requirement of response rate was provided.

Quantitative research is a way in which phenomena are examined by the use of numerical data which is its specificity, in comparison with qualitative one, which uses non-numerical data and includes many methods such as interviews, case studies, discourse analysis, and so on (Muijs, 2011). Parental involvement is an educational phenomenon that has been studied by both methodologies: quantitative and qualitative. However, the main purpose of the research was to highlight the predictors of the phenomenon according to levels 1 and 2 of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005). As a result, quantitative

methods were chosen to shed light on how and which psychological and contextual factors of the model anticipate the choice of parents regarding the involvement for children's learning.

In quantitative research, data collected is analyzed by mathematically based methods, for example, statistics. In fact, there are not many phenomena in education that are shaped in the form of natural data for quantitative research, however, by particular research instruments designed, data can be collected in a quantitative way (Muijs, 2011). To choose a suitable instrument for a quantitative study, research questions need to be taken into account since not all kinds of questions can be employed for quantitative methods. In this respect, there are four key types of questions that can be answered by quantitative research: (1) questions requiring quantitative answers, (2) questions related to numerical change, (3) questions whose aims are to figure out the state of something by examining phenomena, and (4) questions used to hypotheses (Muijs, 2011). For the present study, the research questions belong to the four types mentioned above.

Indeed, the first two questions and question 3b which are about the parental involvement-related choice of Asian parents, predictors of parental involvement's forms, and correlations between each of the two background variables, and each of the three challenge themes of remote learning are type 4, testing a hypothesis. Indeed, the key research aims were to explore reasons and ways Asian parents in Finland make decisions to get involved in their children's learning based on the hypotheses: (1) they tend to focus on home-based learning activities for their children because of cultural factors that impact on their thought about the important role of high learning achievement as well as their parenting style, (2) parental role construction, as well as self-efficacy, are motivational factors that have strong influences on Asian parents' resolutions of their involvement, and (3) there is a relationship between the number of children of each family and each of challenges related to remote learning, meanwhile, there is no relationship between the length of residency and the challenges. For the research question 3a, the challenges of remote learning the parents had to deal with during the school closure in Finland due to the pandemic, type 3, exploring the state of something by examining phenomena was adapted.

To reach the research's aims, a survey was designed to collect responses of Asian parents in Finland regarding parental involvement and challenges of remote learning due to the pandemic. The explanation for this choice is that survey research is one of the most popular methods in the field of education because of its efficiency and flexibility when a big amount of data can be collected, although, for non-experimental research of social science, there is a variety of methods such as survey research, historical research, observation, and analysis of archived data sets, (Muijs, 2011). Additionally, using a survey can support effectively the process of calculating and analyzing data afterward, and then, research findings can be used to draw the population of interest (Aaron, 2012).

To guarantee the quality as well as the quantity of data, the research also adopted the following suggested steps to design a survey. First of all, the focuses and the purposes of the research were decided early so that the survey method was chosen at the beginning. This step is important since it determines a whole process of research afterward (Aaron, 2012). After choosing the sample, the steps of designing and pretesting the instrument were conducted. For the phase of piloting the survey, a small group of individuals was asked to complete questionnaires in advance and then gave useful feedback to improve the survey. This way was effective since it helped identify potential issues related to questions as well as the design of the survey before data was collected officially (Aaron, 2012), for example, some statements and terms had been difficult to understand, thus, they were adjusted with simple language without changing their original meaning.

One of the challenges that need to deal with during the process of collecting data is a bias which can occur during the research process if researchers do not take issues related to the population, the sample as well as the questionnaires of their studies into account (Aaron, 2012). In this respect, the survey was designed functionally to avoid issues related to bias. For example, for the questionnaires of the research, questions, and statements were simple and clear, with only one affirmative content for each question or statement. Moreover, the questionnaires were not too long and did not include any sensitive issues. These ways ensure that participants did not misunderstand and confuse questions of surveys, as well

as help avoid losing their focus and motivation to complete the survey (Aaron, 2012).

Frequently, during the time of conducting research, the big concern is response rate since if the data is not enough as requirements, researchers must adjust their research plans, and perhaps, it might influence the whole procedure of research (Aaron, 2012). To solve this problem, there are some ways that might help to improve response rate which are using personal emails, utilizing multiple contacts of each member of the sample, ensuring the survey not be junk mail (Aaron, 2012). Applied for the current research, besides using Facebook as the main channel to collect data, the survey was sent via email (e.g., Gmail, TUNI emails), Whatsapp, and Messenger.

Nowadays, since people have experienced more daily online activities, web surveys have come more convenient for researchers with their advantages (Dillman et al., 2014). For instance, by using these online surveys, a huge number of responses can be collected in a short time with a low cost as well as simple and fast accesses (Dillman et al., 2014; Gregori & Baltar, 2013). Indeed, participants use the link or URL of web surveys to start to answer the questionnaire, after that, they press the “submit” button to send their answer back to the webserver. Because of those advantages, there is an increase in the use of web surveys, and the present research also followed this trend.

On the other hand, still, there are existed drawbacks of web surveys (Dillman et al., 2014; Gregori & Baltar, 2013). First of all, most of the time, participants might answer a survey since they are asked to help, thereby, they are not motivated by the topic so the quality of responses might be low (Dillman et al., 2014). Besides, the technological capabilities of the research population should be taken into account since for some people, using a social network is different from completing a survey, thus, a good web survey should be displayed by the similarity of different devices, platforms, browsers, and user settings (Dillman et al., 2014).

To prevent the mentioned drawbacks, especially regarding the technological abilities, by using the platform Qualtrics, the survey of the research was designed in a way that participants could access easily by all mobile devices as well as computers with a user-friendly interface. Furthermore, this web survey is a page-by-page design including nine main pages. This kind of design might

decrease the feeling of being overwhelmed for participants so that the research could gain enough data (Dillman et al., 2014). Also, there was a requirement of respondence to each question so that missing values can be avoided. In some cases such as power outages, the loss of Internet connection, some unexpected interruptions, and so on happen, thus, it might be helpful when a web survey can be designed to save automatically and finish afterward (Dillman et al., 2014). Consequently, this function was set for the survey.

The convenience sample was chosen to cover the population. This kind of sample is one of the non-possibility sampling methods and is described as a group of people who researchers can approach easily (Muijs, 2011). As its name, this method is convenient and helps researchers decrease the cost and the amount of time to conduct their research (Muijs, 2011). However, the disadvantage of this sampling method is serious issues of bias as the sample might not wide enough to represent the whole population. In this respect, this present research used two ways to deliver the survey: the first way is based on the existing network of Asian communities from my classmates and the second way is using one of the most popular social network sites, Facebook (Brickman Bhutta, 2012).

4.3 Measures:

The measures used in this study were (1) background factors (parental role: father/ mother, the region of Asia participants come from, age, length of residence, number of children, and school levels of children), (2) factors of parental involvement which are motivational factors (i.e., role activity beliefs, valance toward school, self-efficacy, parental perceptions of invitations for involvement from others who are schools, teachers, and children), and contextual factors including time and energy as well as skills and knowledge, (3) parental involvement forms: home-based, and school-based, and (4) factors in terms of challenges of remote learning.

The survey included three main parts: the first part consisted of six questions regarding participants' background and the next two parts were the questionnaires about parental involvement and challenges of distance schooling during the school closure due to the COVID-19 pandemic. For parental

involvement, the questionnaire used was developed by Walker et al. (2005) to explore how the factors of level 1 of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) predict decisions of Asian parents in Finland regarding their involvement in their children's learning. Regarding the remote learning-related challenges, the questionnaire employed was designed by the research of Garbe et al. (2020) which was conducted in the context of the COVID-19 lockdown.

The questionnaire of parental involvement is developed by Walker et al. (2005) based on the first two levels of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) and covers four themes: the motivational beliefs of parents regarding their involvement, parental perceptions of invitations to get involved from others, parental assumptions with regard to life context and parents' involvement forms (Walker et al., 2005). Through the questionnaire, parents were reminded to use what they had done with their children's schooling since the last school year to the response.

The first theme consists of two psychological contributors: (1) parental role construction consisting of role activity beliefs combined with experiences toward school, and (2) parental self-efficacy measured by the 7-item scale (e.g., *I know how to help my child do well in school*) (see Appendix B and C). The beliefs component of role construction is examined by the 10-item scale (e.g., *I believe it is my responsibility to volunteer at school*) and the higher scores parents get, the more active their role beliefs (Walker et al., 2005). Additionally, the concept of valence toward school was added into the parental role construction for involvement since experiences parents had with schools might affect their responses to their children's schools (Walker et al., 2005). This concept is measured by the 6-item scale (e.g., *I like my schools*). The combination of role activity beliefs and school-related valence allows researchers to consider parental role construction as a categorical variable, therefore, it becomes more productive for analytical and applied functions, for example, high score parents in the two scales represent one type of parent, meanwhile, low score parents in the measurements both represent another (Walker et al., 2005).

The second theme, perceptions of parents regarding invitations for involvement from others, are categorized into three forms: general invitations from schools, specific invitations from children, and teachers with six items performed for each form (e.g*., I feel welcome at this school; My child asked me*

to help out at the school; My child's teacher contacted me (for example, sent a note, phoned, e-mailed)) (see Appendix D, E, and F). The next theme incorporates six items related to parents' time and energy for involvement and nine items created to assess parents' knowledge and skills for school events and learning activities (e.g., *I have enough time and energy to supervise my child's homework; I know about special events at my child's school*) (see Appendix G). The final theme is developed to evaluate how often parents participate in home-based learning activities (five items) (e.g., *Someone in this family helps this child study for the tests*) and school-based learning activities with five items as well (e.g., *Someone in this child attends PTA meetings*) (see Appendix H).

The 5-point Likert Scale is applied for all these themes to examine (1) how much parents agree or disagree with the statements related to parental role construction, parental self-efficacy, the perceptions of parents regarding invitations from school for involvement, and life context (i.e., *strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, strongly agree)*; and (2) how often parents get the invitations from their children and teachers as well as participate in the home-based and school-based learning activities (i.e., *never; seldom; often; usually; daily*).

Since all constructs of the present research were measured by more than one item, it was necessary to check their internal consistency reliability (Muijs, 2011). This form of reliability refers to the homogeneity of all items of one single construct which is tested by coefficient alpha (Muijs, 2011). To state that if one test meets the requirement of internal consistency, the value of alpha is expected to be over 0.7 (Muijs, 2011). The reliabilities of the scales of parental involvement can be found in Table 1. The values of alpha of all factors are above 0.7.

TABLE 1. Reliabilities of the scales of parental involvement

Factors	The number of items	The value of alpha
Role activity beliefs	10	0.84
Valance toward school	6	0.94
Self-efficacy	7	0.81
General invitations from school	6	0.87
Specific invitations from children	6	0.72
Specific invitations from teachers	6	0.80
Time and energy	6	0.75
Knowledge and skills	9	0.84
Home-based involvement	5	0.88
School-based involvement	5	0.83
Parental involvement (total)	10	0.81

On the questionnaire regarding the challenges of remote education that parents had to cope with (see Appendix I), the first question for parents is about the number of hours they spent to support their children learning while schools were closed due to the COVID-19 pandemic. To explore challenges from parents' perspectives regarding e-education, different aspects which are balancing responsibilities, non-positive learner motivation, and accessibility were listed. At this stage, the 5-point Likert scale was employed to measure how challenging parents felt in each aspect (i.e., *not challenging at all, slightly challenging, moderately challenging, very challenging, extremely challenging)*. To respond to this questionnaire, parents based on their experience during the spring semester of the last school year when Finnish schools closed due to the pandemic.

Regarding how parents made a balance among their responsibilities as parents, employees, and teaching instructors, there is the 3-item scale used, instead of the 4-item scale from the original questionnaire (*i.e., balancing parent employment demands and learner needs, personal balance, and parent feels overwhelmed)*. On the questionnaire of the present research, the second item "Balancing multiple levels of learners in-home" of the original questionnaire was removed since it is not much different when compared to the first statement "Balancing parents' employment demands and learner needs". Moreover, the removal also made the questionnaire become simpler and still ensure the goal of the research. To measure the non-positive motivation of learners, the 2-item

scale is designed (i.e., *Lack of learner motivation specifically related to remote learning* and *Lack of learner motivation not specifically related to remote learning*). To make sure parents understand properly the two statements, examples for each of them were provided. The last aspect measured is Accessibility with a scale of 5 items which are *(1) learner needs, (2) lack of parent content knowledge or pedagogy, (3) lack of teacher communications, (4) lack of technology or internet quality, and (5) lack of online resource organization.*

Additionally, the research attempted to know the evaluation of parents about the concerns related to education outcomes of children during the school closure by using the 5-point Likert scale (i.e., *not important at all, slightly important, moderately important, very important, and extremely important)* with three items including curriculum of remote learning, academic progress for the future, and socio-emotional development of children.

The reliabilities of the scales of aspects of remote learning can be found in Table 2. The values of alpha of all factors are above 0.5. Since the multivariate tests were not applied for these factors, their alpha values do not need to meet the requirement of internal consistency what is the value of alpha is expected to be more than 0.7.

TABLE 2. Reliabilities of the scales of aspects of remote learning

Factors	The number of items	The value of alpha
Balancing responsibilities	3	0.92
Non-positive learner motivation	2	0.64
Accessibility	5	0.74
Concerns related to remote learning	3	0.50

4.4 Participants

In the present research, the population is Asian immigrant parents living in Finland currently and those parents must have children who are studying in Finnish schools (either public schools or international schools). Since the questionnaires both examine a few issues related to homework, test, if children

are not studying from at least the preschool level, it would influence on the quality of data collected afterward.

There were 163 participants in total. Participants were either from Eastern Asia *(N=49*), Southern Asia (*N = 46*), or South-Eastern Asia (*N = 69*). The parents who participated in the research have been in Finland for at least 1 year and a maximum of 16 years *(M = 5.27, SD = 3.404)*. At the time of completing the survey, mostly the parents lived in Helsinki, Espoo, Turku, Tampere, and Jyvaskyla. There were *104* mothers and *59* fathers who completed the survey. The background information of participants is depicted in table 3.

TABLE 3. Descriptive statistics of background variables

Background variables	Total sample *(N= 163)*	
	N	Percent
Parental role in the family		
mother	104	63.8
father	59	36.2
Age		
Under 25	4	2.5
From 25 to 40	107	65.6
Above 40	52	31.9
Region of Asia		
Eastern	49	30.1
Southern	46	28.2
South-Eastern	68	41.7
Number of children		
1 child	73	44.8
2 children	86	52.8
More than 2	4	2.5
Municipalities		
Espoo	24	14.72
Helsinki	37	22.69
Joensuu	1	0.625
Jyväskylä	18	11.04
Lahti	1	0.625
Närpiö	2	1.22
Pori	1	0.625

Riihimäki	1	0.625
Tampere	64	39.26
Turku	8	4.9
Vantaa	4	2.45
Ylöjärvi	2	1.22
School levels of children		
Preschool	21	12.9
Primary school	144	88.3
Secondary school	41	45.2
University	1	0.6

4.5 Data gathering

The process of data gathering of the present study was taken place on Facebook mainly. This site of social networks was chosen as the main channel to collect data since firstly, it offers new ways that are cheap, fast, and single-handed to connect people around the world. Secondly, it has owned a big size of worldwide users, the variety of features, the intensiveness of use, and the continuing development (Brickman Bhutta, 2012). Finally, Facebook helps users connect directly to their friends and access easily the groups in which they share the same common things concerning interests, religions, locations, and so on (Brickman Bhutta, 2012; Gregori & Baltar, 2013).

At the beginning of the phase of gathering data, I sent the requests to be a member of Facebook groups for foreigners in Finland (e.g., *Foreigners in Helsinki, Immigrants in Finland, Tampere and foreigners*), Asian communities in Finland (e.g., *Welcome to Finland* for Vietnamese students, *Suomen Vietnameilaisten Yhteiso* for Vietnamese people, *Suomen Kiinalaisten Allianssi SKA Ry* for Chinese people and *Indian in Finland*), groups for parents in Finland such as *Parents in Espoo, Finland; English speaking mums in Tampere, Foreigner parents in Finland* and so on. After getting accepted, I sent the link of the research survey on the Facebook groups with a brief description regarding the aims of the present research to motivate Facebook users' participation. Moreover, the survey was sent via Messenger, one function of Facebook, to approach directly potential participants who are members of the groups above.

To have the consent of participants, the information letter was attached to the survey. Through the letter, the research aims, the role, and rights of participants for the research, and their privacy protection were informed. The letter can be seen in Appendix J.

The data collection process took place from 15th September to 30th November by posting the survey on the Facebook groups as well as sending the link of the survey to the different communities of my classmates in Finland to approach potential participants for the research.

4.6 Data Analysis

IBM SPSS Statistics Version 26 was used to analyze the data. A significance level of 0.05 was employed for all statistical analyses.

Hypothesis 1: *Parental choices regarding home-based involvement, school-based involvement.*

To test hypothesis 1, a paired sample t-test was applied. The paired samples t-test is suitable to check whether the population means of two dependent groups are either different or the same (Salkind, 2010). In the present research, home-based involvement and school-based involvement are two forms of parental involvement following the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005), therefore, to test which form Asian parents in Finland prefer to support their children's learning, the paired t-test is an appropriate method. There are two primary assumptions underpinning the paired t-test (Salkind, 2010).

The first assumption is independent observation. For the data of the current research, the observations were independent since each observation did not predict another observation. Second, the distribution of the differences between the scores of the two related groups needs to be normal. Z-scores of skewness and kurtosis of the "difference" variable which was made by subtracting each individual's score of the variable Home-based involvement from their score in the variable School-based involvement was 2.38 (-0.453 / 0.190), and 1.13 (0.427 / 0.378), respectively. The results show that both z-scores were less than 3.29 (i.e., 3.29 is a critical value of z-score for samples with the medium size ($50 < N < 300$)) (Kim, 2013), thus, the null hypothesis was accepted. In simple words, the distribution of the "difference" variable of the sample is normal.

Additionally, the measure of effect size would be calculated for the paired sample t-test. Recently, the use of effect size has been increased since it provides a measure of the strength of a difference or a relationship that can be compared to results from other studies (Muijs, 2011). In the present research, the value of Cohen's d, a measure of effect size would be computed by a division between Mean and Standard Deviation so that the result of the test for this hypothesis can confirm whether home-based involvement was chosen more than school-based involvement was.

Hypotheses 2a, 2b: *Predictors for home-based involvement, school-based involvement, and total involvement.*

To test hypothesis 2a, a multiple linear regression was performed for the two kinds of involvement as well as total involvement. Additionally, hierarchical multiple regression was adopted for school-based involvement to test Hypothesis 2b. Strikingly, among the four methods of doing regression which is Enter, Stepwise, Remove, and Backwards, the default method (i.e., Enter) was chosen to add all variables needed to check into regression models. For each case, the purpose was to explore which factors from level 1 of the revised model predict each form of parental involvement *(school-based, home-based and total)*. Additionally, the length of residence was tested to examine if this variable can predict school-based involvement.

In the social, educational, and behavioral sciences, multiple regression is identified as a common analytic method (Teo, 2013). Multiple linear regression is one kind of multivariate analysis in which regression models are used to look at the relationship between several independent variables called predictors and one dependent variable as an outcome of one model (Muijs, 2011). The regression models based on theories mentioned in the literature review will test if the models work and which suggested variables predict one "effect" variable than the others following the data collected (Muijs, 2011). Traditionally, multiple regression is applied to examine the contributions of predictors simultaneously. However, to check sets of predictors in a series prespecified or a priority sequence defined, a hierarchical multiple regression which is an approach to compare simpler models and richer models (i.e., with more predictors) is implemented. (Teo, 2013). In order to perform an analysis of either multiple linear regression or hierarchical

multiple regression, the data collected must meet eight assumptions (Denis, 2018).

First, the outcome variable must be measured at a continuous level. In the present research, there are three dependent variables tested which are home-based involvement, school-based involvement, and total involvement. These variables were computed by the values of Mean of all items of parental involvement's forms, thus, they are continuous variables.

Second, the regression model must include at least two independent variables that are either continuous or nominal and dichotomous. In this research, there was no nominal variable used, the nine variables which are role activity beliefs, valance toward school, parental self-efficacy, general invitations from schools, specific invitations from teachers and children, time and energy, skills and knowledge, and the length of residence used all are continuous variables.

Third, there must be a linear relationship observed between the dependent variable and each independent variable as well as the dependent variable and all independent variables overall. This assumption was verified by the appearance of scatterplots of the residuals which displayed a horizontal trend. Following the results of the scatterplots, there was probably an overall linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

The fourth assumption is that the data must not show multicollinearity. This assumption was verified by the result of the collinearity statistics including two indicators: VIF which means variance inflation factors and Tolerance which is the reciprocal of VIF and is computed 1/VIF. The output of the three models showed that the predictors' values of VIF were not greater than 4. Additionally, all Tolerance values of the predictors of the three models were greater than 0.1 and less than 1 (i.e., from *0.253 to 0.686* for the regression model of home-based involvement, from *0.273 to 0.886* for the regression model of school-based involvement, and from *0.273 to 0.686* for the regression model of total involvement). According to Denis (2018), it is expected that the values of VIF are small, meanwhile, the values of Tolerance are high. The VIFs for the analysis of the present research was quite low, therefore, the assumption of no multicollinearity was not violated.

Next, there is a requirement for the independence of residuals. This assumption was verified by the Durbin Watson statistic which the expected value

ranges from 1.5 to 2.5. According to the results, the statistic was 1.743 for the regression model of home-based involvement, 1.776 for the regression model of total involvement. For the regression model of school-based involvement, the statistic was 1.497 without the variable of the length of residence, when the variable was added, the value of the test of the regression model was 1.481. These values stated that the assumption of the independence of residuals was satisfied.

Sixth, multiple linear regression requires the residuals to have a normal distribution. By looking at the P-P plot for each model, the dots lied closely to the diagonal line, therefore, the residuals were approximately normally distributed.

Another assumption is homoscedasticity or homogeneity which is shown by the residuals through the data collected. In regression models, this assumption is indicated by the distribution of an outcome variable given predictive variables' conditional values. This means that there is a requirement of approximate equal dispersion of values of the outcome variable for each value of predictors. Graphical methods were used to verify this assumption. With this respect, the models' residuals were plotted on the y-axis against predicted values on the x-axis. Basing on the graph plots of the three regression models, the residuals were distributed evenly above and below the horizontal mean residual of zero that means the assumption was satisfied.

Finally, there should be no significant outliers, high leverage points, or highly influential points. For the regression model of home-based involvement, there were no outliers. For the regression models of school-based involvement and total involvement, there were 2 cases per model as potential outliers since the values of their standard residual were greater than 3, however, the number of outliers was less than 10% of the sample, thus, it is unproblematic in the sample of present research (Muijs, 2011). Moreover, the results of the Cook's Distance statistic for each participant show the values were less than 1, thus, in the data, there was no influential case biasing the models.

Research question 3a: *Challenges of remote learning from parents' perspective during the school lockdown in Finland due to the COVID-19.*

To discover the challenges Asian parents in Finland faced when they supported their children's remote learning during the school closure because of the COVID-19, descriptive analysis was performed to check the frequency and

percentage of each statement of each theme. The results were then described and summarized within texts only.

Hypothesis 3b: *The correlations between the two background variables (i.e., the number of children of each family, and the length of residence in Finland) and each theme of challenges of remote learning.*

To verify the hypothesis, first, the variables of the three themes of challenges of remote learning were created by computing the values of Mean of all items of each theme. The variables were named “balance”, “non-positive learner motivation” and “accessibility”. Next, the tests of the correlation coefficient between each of the two background variables and each of the variables of remote learning’s challenges were conducted. There were six tests of correlation coefficient conducted in total.

The correlation coefficient is the method used to analyze the relationship between two continuous variables (Muijs, 2011). In different words, the function of a correlation coefficient is mainly to look at if a high score on one variable would go together with a high score on the other (Muijs, 2011). The value of a correlation coefficient test varies from -1 to +1 and the strength of the relationship is stronger when the r-value is close to 1 (+ or -) (Muijs, 2011). Moreover, the value gives the information about the direction of the relationship: a positive direction indicated by a positive sign shows high scores on one variable means high scores on the other, and vice versa, a negative direction indicated by a negative sign shows high scores on one variable means low scores on the other (Muijs, 2011). Noticeably, for the correlation coefficient, the measures of significance and effect sizes are not calculated separately. This means that the p-values of this method can show if the relationship is statistically significant and the size of the research sample is strong (Muijs, 2011). Since all variables used to test this hypothesis are continuous, Pearson’s r was planned used (Muijs, 2011).

To run the test Pearson correlation coefficient, the research data collected needs to meet five assumptions which are related pairs, absence of outliers, linearity, homoscedasticity, and normal distribution (Salkind, 2010). There was no missing value on the data sheet, which means that each participant had all values of the five variables. The linearity between each of the two background variables and each of the three variables of challenges related to remote learning

as well as the homoscedasticity were verified by scatter plots. According to the plots, these two assumptions were not violated.

The absence of outliers refers to not having outliers in either variable. However, there were four outliers of the variable “non-positive learner motivation” and seven outliers of the variable “accessibility”. This means that the assumption related to outliers was violated. For the normal distribution, there were two variables whose data did not have a normal distribution. These were the “balance” variable and the “accessibility” variable. In simple words, the assumption of normal distribution was violated.

According to the results of the tests for the assumptions of Pearson correlation coefficient, there were two assumptions which are the absence of outliers and normal distribution violated. It means that the Pearson correlation coefficient must be replaced by Spearman one which can be conducted when data is not distributed normally (Salkind, 2010).

5 RESULTS

This chapter reveals the results of the survey research described in Chapter 4, Data and Methods. Following the revised model of parental involvement of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005), specifically level 1 and a part of level 2, the current research concentrated on exploring the factors which influence on Asian parents' decision to get involved in their children's learning as well as the form of involvement they prefer in the Finnish context. The survey research is approached in a highly structured way by providing the results of the descriptive statistics firstly, then the results of the research questions. The data of the present research was gathered by an online survey posted on the different pages of the Facebook site, then was analyzed by the quantitative methods which are suitable for each research question (i.e., the paired sample t-test to explore which form of parental involvement Asian parents in Finland prefer, the multiple linear regression and hierarchical multiple regression to test the predictions of the level-1 factors of the revised model of parental involvement; for remote learning, the descriptive analysis conducted to show the evaluation of parents regarding the challenges, and the correlation coefficient to test the relationship between each of the two background variables and each of themes of challenges during the pandemic).

5.1 Descriptive Statistics

This section includes four tables illustrating the statistics of all variables used for data analysis. A number of responses, means, standard deviations, means, and maxes of the variables are reported in Tables 4, 5, and 6. The descriptive statistics of the nine independent variables which are the length of residence, role activity beliefs, valance toward school, self-efficacy, general invitations from schools, specific invitations from children and teachers, time and energy, and knowledge and skills are displayed in Table 4. Table 5 shows the descriptive

statistics of the three dependent variables which are home-based, school-based, and total involvement. Table 6 depicts the descriptive statistic of the three variables of remote education's challenges which are balance, non-positive learner motivation, and accessibility.

TABLE 4. Descriptive statistics of the independent variables

Variables	N	M	SD	Min	Max
Length of residence	163	5.27	3.40	1	16
Role activity beliefs	163	3.79	0.57	1.6	5.0
Valance toward school	163	3.81	0.68	1.17	5.0
Self-efficacy	163	3.58	0.51	1.00	4.86
General invitations from school	163	4.06	0.51	1.00	5.00
Specific invitations from children	163	2.85	0.70	1.00	4.33
Specific invitations from teachers	163	2.62	0.74	1.00	5.00
Time and energy	163	3.82	0.58	1.17	5.00
Knowledge and skills	163	3.83	0.52	1.00	5.00

Note. The length of residence was measured in years. N = number of responses, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, Min = minimum value, Max = maximum value.

TABLE 5. Descriptive statistics of the dependent variables

Variables	N	M	SD	Min	Max
Home-based involvement	163	4.08	0.84	1.80	5.00
School-based involvement	163	2.54	0.82	1.00	5.00
Parental involvement (total)	163	3.31	0.64	1.60	5.00

Note. N = number of responses, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, Min = minimum value, Max = maximum value.

TABLE 6. Descriptive statistics of the variables of challenges of remote learning

Variables	N	M	SD	Min	Max
Balance	163	3.48	0.74	1.00	4.67
Non-positive learner motivation	163	3.29	0.77	1.00	5.00
Accessibility	163	1.98	0.60	1.00	4.00

Note. N = number of responses, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, Min = minimum value, Max = maximum value.

Correlations among the factors regarding parental involvement are displayed in Table 7. According to the table, among the independent variables, the “knowledge and skills” variable have the strongest correlation with the “self-efficacy” variable ($r = 0.808$, $p < 0.05$) and a strong connection with the “general school invitations” variable ($r = 0.701$, $p < 0.05$), the “time and energy” variable and the “role activity beliefs” variable also have a strong relationship ($r = 0.712$, $p < 0.05$). Within other independent variables and between independent variables and dependent variables, there was either no correlation or the correlations were moderate. Noticeably, since the variable of total involvement was created by combining all statements of school-based involvement and home-based involvement, there are strong correlations between total involvement and the two forms (i.e., with home-based involvement, $r = 0.773$, $p < 0.05$; with school-based involvement, $r = 0.756$, $p < 0.05$); meanwhile, there is a weak correlation between home-based and school-based involvement ($r = 0.169$, $p < 0.05$)

TABLE 7. Correlations between study variables

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Length of residence (1)	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Role activity beliefs (2)	0.027	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Valance toward school (3)	0.026	0.455**	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Self-efficacy (4)	-0.169*	0.551**	0.487**	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
General invitations from school (5)	0.081	0.648**	0.459**	0.548**	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Specific invitations from children (6)	-0.210**	0.389**	0.336**	0.597**	0.320**	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Specific invitations from teachers (7)	-0.188*	0.366**	0.247**	0.405**	0.293**	0.650**	1	-	-	-	-	-
Time and energy (8)	-0.025	0.712**	0.479**	0.625**	0.684**	0.557**	0.448**	1	-	-	-	-
Skills and knowledge (9)	0.009	0.660**	0.480**	0.668**	0.701**	0.520**	0.386**	0.808**	1	-	-	-
Home-based involvement (10)	-0.256**	0.130	0.151	0.431**	0.143	0.611**	0.307**	0.296**	0.380**	1	-	-
School-based involvement (11)	0.091	0.521**	0.349**	0.455**	0.536**	0.413**	0.385**	0.604**	0.526**	0.169*	1	-
Total involvement (12)	-0.111	0.422**	0.325**	0.579**	0.440**	0.671**	0.451**	0.585**	0.591**	0.773**	0.756**	1

*Note. *p < 0,05, **p < 0,01.*

5.2 Hypothesis 1: The choice of Asian parents in Finland regarding parental involvement forms.

A paired sample t-test was conducted to check which form of parental involvement was preferred by Asian parents in Finland. From the result of the test, home-based and school-based involvement were weakly and positively correlated ($r = 0.169, p < 0.05$). Moreover, there was a significant average difference between home-based ($M = 4.08, SD = 0.84$) and school-based involvement $(M = 2.54, SD = 0.82); t (162) = 18.31, p < 0.05)$. On average, home-based involvement's mean were 1.54 higher than school-based involvement that means Asian parents in Finland tend to get involved more at home than at school. To sum up, Hypothesis 1 which is about the choice of Asian parents regarding parental involvement is accepted.

Additionally, the measure of effect size was computed. The value of Cohen's d is equal to 1.43 which is usually considered to be a large effect (i.e., *0.2 as small, 0.5 as medium, and 0.8 as large*) (Denis, 2018). It means that there is a big difference between means of home-based involvement and school-based involvement following the data collected when parents asked about their learning support provided for their children during the last school year.

5.3 Hypothesis 2a: Predictors for parental involvement

Hypothesis 2a which was based on the final result of Hoover-Dempsey (2005), was that for home-based involvement, the strong predictors are the specific invitations from the child, parents' perception of knowledge and skills, and parents' sense of efficacy for assisting children's achievements in school. Not only for home-based involvement, the specific invitations from children, parents' perception of knowledge and skills for involvement predict school-based involvement as well, yet the strongest predictor is parents' role activity beliefs. Finally, total involvement is predicted by parents' perception of specific invitations from the child, parents' perception of knowledge and skills for involvement, parent's sense of efficacy for helping the child succeed in school, and parent role activity beliefs.

Multiple regression was run to test how home-based involvement was predicted by the factors of level 1 of the revised model which are parental role construction, parental self-efficacy, specific invitations from children and teachers, and general invitations from schools, perceptions of parents regarding time and energy, and knowledge and skills. According to Table 8, the model statistically significantly predicted home-based involvement (*F (8, 154) = 15.674, $p < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.449$).* It accounted for 42% of the total variability in home-based involvement explained by the model (independent variables). Out of eight only three variables which were role activity beliefs (*$p < 0.05$)*, child invitations (*$p < 0.05$),* and skills and knowledge (*$p < 0.05$)* added statistically significantly to the prediction. The highest contributing predictor is specific invitations from children, at *0.620*, followed by skills and knowledge *(0.319)* and role activity beliefs *(-0.184)* which explain why parents decide to focus on home-based involvement. And 22.05 % of overlapping predictive work was done by the predictors, which means this proves the combination of the variables was quite moderate.

The multiple regression that was conducted to verify the prediction of the factors of level 1 of the revised model for school-based involvement, showed that the model statistically significantly predicted school-based involvement *(F (8, 154) = 13.85, $p < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.418$)*. There were 38.8% of the variance in school-based involvement accounted for by independent variables. Out of eight only two variables which were school invitations *($p < 0.05$)* and time and energy *($p < 0.05$)* added statistically significantly to the prediction. The highest contribution is from the variable of time and energy, at *0.313*, followed by school invitations *(0.212)* to explain parents' decision on being involved in school-based activities. Additionally, 36.09 % of overlapping predictive work was done by the predictors. In the other words, this proves the combination of the variables had been quite moderate.

The multiple regression model conducted to predict total parental involvement from the factors of level 1 of the revised model, statistically significantly predicted parental involvement *(F (8, 154) = 23.153, $p < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.546$)*. There were 52.2 % of the total variability in total involvement was explained by the model (independent variables). Out of eight, only one variable child invitations ($p < 0.05$) added statistically significantly to the prediction, thus, obviously, the highest contributing predictor is child invitations, at *0.452* which

explains parental involvement. Furthermore, there were 43.87% overlapping predictive work done by the predictors, thus, the combination of the variables had been quite moderate.

Overall, the significant predictors emerging across the three measures of involvement (home-based, school-based, total) were parent's perceptions of specific invitations to involvement from children and the two contextual factors which are self-perceived knowledge and skills as well as time and energy for involvement. Role activity beliefs anticipated only home-based involvement, and general invitations from school were identified as a productive predictor of school-based involvement. Following the results presented, Hypothesis 2a which was based on the result of the final report of the research of Hoover-Dempsey (2005) was rejected. Further statistics describing the regression of the three dependent variables are displayed in Table 8.

TABLE 8. Multiple linear regression predicting parental involvement from the level 1 factors of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey

	The forms of parental involvement					
Variables	Home-based involvement		School-based involvement		Total Involvement	
Model	B	β	B	β	B	β
Constant	2.053***		-1.552**		0.250***	
Role activity beliefs	-0.273*	-0.184	0.150	0.105	-0.062	-0.055
Valance toward school	-0.091	-0.074	0.017	0.015	-0.037	-0.040
Self-efficacy	0.271	0.163	0.042	0.026	0.157	0.125
General invitations from school	-0.155	-0.094	0.337*	0.212	0.091	0.074
Specific invitations from children	0.747***	0.620	0.073	0.062	0.410***	0.452
Specific invitations from teachers	-0.132	-0.116	0.117	0.106	-0.008	-0.009
Time and energy	-0.182	-0.126	0.439*	0.313	0.128	0.118
Knowledge and skills	0.515**	0.319	-.066	-0.042	0.225	0.185
R^2	0.449		0.418		0.546	
F	15.67***		13.85***		23.15***	

Note. N = 163. *p < 0,05, **p < 0,01, *** p < 0,001

5.4 Hypothesis 2b: Length of residence predictor for school-based involvement

Hypothesis 2b was that the length of residence would predict school-based involvement. The result of the hierarchical multiple regression is demonstrated in Table 9 in which there are two models included: Model 1 includes the level 1 factors (8 variables) of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey (2005) and Model 2 was added the variable of the length of residence that means there are 9 variables totally in Table 2.

When only the level 1 factors of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey were used to predict this form of involvement (Model 1) (see Table 9), it accounted for 38.8% of the variance in school-based involvement (*F (8, 154) = 13.85, $p < 0.05$, R^2 =0.418)*. When the variable of the length of residence added to predict school-based involvement (Model 2), there was a statistically significant increase in *R^2 of 0.016 (F (9, 153) = 13.02, $p < 0.05$, R^2 = 0.432)* and there are 40% of the variance in school-based involvement were predicted by all variables. Moreover, the variable of the length of residence predicted an additional 1.5% of the variance in the involvement form. As a result, model 2 predicted school-based involvement more efficiently than model 1. In simple words, the hypothesis is accepted which means the length of residence is a predictor of school-based involvement *(B = 0.132).*

TABLE 9. Hierarchical multiple regression predicting school-based involvement from the level 1 factors of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey and the length of residence.

	School-based involvement			
	Model 1		Model 2	
Variables	B	β	B	β
Constant	-1.552**	-	1.717***	-
Role activity beliefs	0.150	0.105	0.137	0.095
Valance toward school	0.017	0.015	0.005	0.004
Self-efficacy	0.042	0.026	0.102	0.064
General invitations from school	0.337	0.212*	0.306*	0.192
Specific invitations from children	0.073	0.062	0.090	0.077

Specific invitations from teachers	0.117	0.106	0.135	0.123
Time and energy	0.439	0.313*	0.445*	0.318
Knowledge and skills	-0.066	-0.042	-0.096	-0.061
Length of residence	-	-	0.032*	0.132
R^2	0.418		0.434	
F	13.85***		13.024***	
ΔR^2	0.418		0.016	
ΔF	13.85***		4.150*	

Note. N = 163. *p < 0,05, **p < 0,01, *** p < 0,001

5.5 Research question 3a: The challenges regarding remote learning parents had to deal with during the school closure due to the COVID-19

First, parents were asked about the amount of time they spent to support their children when remote learning was taken place due to the pandemic. Results of survey answer analysis indicated that half of the parents (*N* = 80) participating in the research spent from 1 to 2 hours per day to assist their children. Meanwhile, there are approximately 39% of parents (*N* = 63) spared from 2 to 3 hours to support the remote learning for their children. Only 10% of parents (*N* = 10) chose the option of “less than 1 hour*”* and the same number of parents (*N* = 10) chose “More than 3 hours”.

Next, parents were asked to evaluate how challenged they felt for each aspect of remote learning. There were three themes mentioned in the survey including balancing responsibilities, non-positive learner motivation, and accessibility. There were more than half of parents (*N* = 88, 54%) felt either challenged or extremely challenged when they needed to make the balance between their employment demands and their children’s learning needs. Furthermore, managing time for self-care was a big challenge for around two-third of parents (*N* = 96, 58.9%) and more than 62% of parents (*N* = 102) felt overwhelmed during the school closure.

The second theme is related to the challenges of creating learning motivation for children when they learned remotely. The loss of learning motivation happening for children can be caused either by remote learning per

se, reasons not related to it (e.g., boredom, attention span), or both. The result shows that 64.4% of parents (*N* = 105) identified the deficiency of learner motivation particularly related to distance learning as an obstacle. Children also lost their learning motivation because of non-specific reasons related to remote learning. In this case, 42.9% of parents (*N* = 70) were found to feel difficult to encourage their children to maintain learning taken place at home.

Accessibility is the final theme. Overall, the aspects of this theme which include learner needs, the absence of parent content knowledge or pedagogy, teacher communication, technology, and online resources organization were not challenging for parents. Indeed, more than 60% of parents (*N* = 104) felt confident with their knowledge or pedagogy related to the learning contents of their children and the lack of teacher communication is not a challenge for them. Also, a great number of parents (*N* = 156, 95%) did not find the lack of technology or internet quality as well as online resources as obstacles when they assisted their children's virtual learning. The exception is the challenge regarding learner needs when 38% of parents (*N* = 62) said that it is challenging for them, meanwhile, there were 46% of parents (*N* = 75) who say that it is not difficult for them to confront with the academic needs of their children.

Finally, parents were asked to evaluate three concerns that might affect the learning outcomes of their children. These concerns are related to curriculum, academic progress for the future, and socio-emotional development for their children during the period of the remote learning taken place. There were 42.4% of parents (*N* = 69) who thought a suitable curriculum can promote the quality of remote learning, meanwhile, approximately half of parents (*N* = 77, 47.2%) stated that the value of the learning-related curriculum was moderate. For the concern in terms of academic progress for the future, noticeably, a majority of parents (*N* = 144, 85%) concerned that remote learning might influence negatively on learning improvement of their children which is significant for the future learning process. At the last concern, around two-thirds of parents (*N* = 98, 60%) thought that e-schooling might hinder the social and emotional growth of their children when children must stay at home without any physical interactions with peers. Following the results, within the three factors related to learning outcomes, learning improvement which is supposed to be necessary for the next academic years during the school closure, was the biggest concern of parents.

5.6 Hypothesis 3b: The correlations between the two background variables and the three variables of remote learning's challenges.

The hypothesis 3b was that whether there were correlations between the number of children of each family and the three themes of challenges (i.e., balance, non-positive learner motivation, and accessibility) parents coped with during the school closure in Finland due to the COVID-19 pandemic, meanwhile, there was no correlation between the length of residence and the themes.

The results showed that there were modest positive correlations between the number of children of each family and the themes of challenges (i.e., with the "balance" variable, $r = 0.330$, $p < 0.05$; with the "non-positive learner motivation" variable, $r = 0.230$, $p < 0.05$; with the "accessibility" variable, $r = 0.267$, $p < 0.05$). There was no correlation between the variable of the length of residence and the variables of the three themes (i.e., with the "balance" variable, $r = 0.119$, $p = 0.131$; with the "non-positive learner motivation" variable, $r = 0.056$, $p = 0.481$; with the "accessibility" variable, $r = 0.044$, $p = 0.581$). In simple words, the hypothesis was accepted.

6 DISCUSSION

6.1 Main findings

This study aimed to investigate the forms of involvement (i.e., *home-based involvement and school-based involvement*) that Asian parents in Finland prefer when they assist their children's learning and explore the prediction of the motivational factors as well as contextual variables in the revised model of parental involvement of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) for three measures of parental involvement: home-based involvement, school-based involvement, and total involvement as well. Additionally, the research examined whether the length of residence predicts parental involvement related to school-based activities. Finally, the challenges of remote learning parents had to deal with during the school closures due to the pandemic of COVID-19 were found out. Besides, the correlations between the two background variables (i.e., the number of children in each family and the years of residence) and each of the three theme challenges of remote learning (i.e., balance, non-positive learner motivation, and accessibility) were analyzed.

The first hypothesis was about the election of Asian parents between two forms of involvement: home-based and school-based involvement. Consistent with the literature, this research found that Asian parents who took part in the research mostly get involved more in home-based activities. This result is explained by the fact that following Asian culture, there is a clear division between school and family what means that schooling is the responsibility of educators mainly, meanwhile, parents' duties are to respect teachers' strategies and support their children's learning at home only (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). Importantly, according to research regarding Asian culture and mindset, to be successful in their lives and to change their class in society, high academic achievements are important (Lui & Rollock, 2013). As a result, Asian parents tend to encourage their children to study hard and focus on learning activities at home

(Peng & Wright, 1994). Home-based activities that Asian parents get involved in consist of monitoring and guiding homework, reading, controlling leisure time, and so on (Ashdown & Faherty, 2020; Huntsinger & Jose, 2009).

Moreover, compared with USA counterparts, it is not common for Finnish parents to visit or volunteer during school hours because of the limit of time, the repetition of school events, and because the Finnish educational system has grown by teachers' professionalism and independence (Sormunen et al., 2011). Therefore, Asian parents might be influenced by this customary way of native parents so that they had another reason to get less involved in school-based involvement and focused on home-based involvement only.

The second hypothesis was related to the factors of level 1 of the revised model of Hoover -Dempsey and Sandler (2005) which predict the three measures of involvement: home-based, school-based, and total involvement. These factors are parental role construction, parental self-efficacy, parental perceptions regarding the invitations from children, schools, and teachers, parental perceptions regarding their time and energy, and knowledge and skills. Moreover, the research added the factor of the length of residence into the model of school-based involvement to check its prediction.

The results suggest that specific invitations from children, skills and knowledge, as well as role activity beliefs, are the strong predictors for home-based involvement. When learning difficulties and needs of children and are observed from parents or when children request directly academic help, parents make themselves available to support by creating a homework schedule, giving teaching instructions, and monitoring homework (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). In the current research, Asian parents tend to focus on home-based involvement, thus, the invitations from children related to learning difficulties might be caught easily. Parents who participated in this study, especially of elementary school children, incline to deliberate their skills and knowledge when the learning needs of children emerge, therefore, they become more active and positive to get involved when they perceive their ability to be sufficient (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

The finding regarding the contribution of parental role construct to home-based involvement is associated with several studies that reported that the positive influence of this factor is across levels of children's education and ethnic

and cultural groups and this construct has increased parents' desire to support their children's learning (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). This point recommends that when parents perceive the importance of their role, they feel inclined to take part in home-based activities. Furthermore, this factor is socially constructed, thus, to enhance its benefits, offers, recommendations, and suggestions from teachers as well as from schools are necessary (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

For the prediction of school-based involvement, the results suggest that there are only two contributors which are time and energy, and general school invitations. The prediction of time and energy for school-based involvement matches one of the findings of the research of Green et al. (2007) which tested the original model of Hoover Dempsey and Sandler (1997). Following the research, the time and energy of parents are limited when their work owns characteristics such as inflexibility regarding schedule, high requirement of time, instability, and so on. Additionally, multiple child-care, aged care, or accountability related to families also cause the limitation of time and energy for parents to support their children's education. Parents who have to deal with the time and energy limits likely get less involved, especially at school, thus, to enhance school-based involvement, schedules of school events and activities should conform to the time demands of parents (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). Moreover, to acknowledge more about the way parents perceive their time and energy is necessary for teachers and school psychologists since they can recommend parents productive ways to get involved more in school-based activities (Fishman & Nickerson, 2015).

Although the prediction of general invitations from school for parental involvement was not highlighted in previous studies, in this present research, it emerged as a crucial predictor for school-based involvement. There are several possible explanations for this result. First, this may be explained by the schooling environment in Finland in which schools are supposed to assist immigrant students to become balanced and active residents not only in the Finnish language and cultures but also in their mother tongue and own cultural community (Holm & Londen, 2010). Moreover, immigrant families' experiences regarding the schooling system and cultures in their own home countries, traditions as well as parenting styles are taken into account at Finnish schools (Holm & Londen, 2010). Additionally, school personnel in Finland reported by

immigrant parents were supportive and open through communications with parents as well as their immediate responses to the demands of children and families (Lastikka & Lipponen, 2016). At schools, a cooperative partnership among schools, teachers, and families is created and maintained to engage parents in mutual, respectful, and shared conversations as well as understandings of their children's development (Lastikka & Lipponen, 2016).

The noticeable finding of the present study is the prediction of length of residence for school-based involvement. It meant that Asian parents who have been in Finland longer tend to be involved more in school-based activities. This finding also accords with that of the 2009 research of Turney and Kao which showed that in America, Hispanic immigrant parents have participated in school events as much as their White counterparts when the length of stay in the country of residence was controlled in the regression model. In Finland, there are strategies and policies planned to help parents, especially parents and families who are newcomers and need special supports (Lobodzinska, 2011).

For immigrants, there are obstacles that they need to deal with when integrating into their host countries such as language barriers, social norms, job seeking, employment, educational system, and so on (Bouakaz, 2007). In Finland, the biggest challenge for immigrants is language proficiency (Lobodzinska, 2011). To support immigrants, there is an outline of the Finnish immigrant integration policy contained in The Act on Integration of Immigrants and Reception of Asylum Seekers (Lobodzinska, 2011). Immigrants in Finland are provided supports including language skills, vocational training, and counseling as well as education for their children (Lobodzinska, 2011). Those supports have benefitted immigrants to have more opportunities to fully take part not only in the labor market but also in Finnish society.

Furthermore, to connect parents, especially immigrant parents, with school activities, and to develop a family-school partnership, teachers play an important role. Therefore, there are the topics regarding home-school cooperation are regarded through teacher education programs in Finland to equip teacher-students with basic knowledge about the topics so that they become more competent to work with families after graduation (Alanko, 2018). Currently, digital platforms have been used commonly as a communication channel among schools, teachers, and parents in Finland since the vast majority of information

related to school events, timetables of meetings, feedback on students' progress, and so on is delivered through the platforms (Kuusimäki et al., 2019). This communication channel is effective for parents to approach information about school-based activities in advance so that they might arrange their schedule to take part in those activities.

Taken all the strategies mentioned above together, it is a probability that the longer immigrant parents have stayed in Finland, the more likely they decide to be more active in school-based involvement since they get more familiar with the Finnish education system.

According to the result, for total involvement, there is only the variable of specific invitations from children which predict strongly decisions of parents to get involved in their children's learning. The prediction of child invitations for parental involvement in this study corroborates earlier findings, for example in the research of Fishman and Nickerson (2015) which was conducted by collecting data from 137 parents whose children were at primary school ages and received special education in upstate New York from two suburban school districts, American. Child invitations can be explicit as well as implicit (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). Indeed, this kind of invitation might be recognized by the observations from parents through the developmental process of their children or by the direct request from children when they need assistance from their parents (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). Specific child invitations may be prompted by both school efforts and teachers' encouragement as well. Indeed, when teachers ask students to seek specific and manageable involvement from families or when schools create learning concepts basing on family lives, parents tend to be more active in their involvement to support their children's education (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

Overall, the significant predictors emerging across the three measures of involvement (home-based, school-based, and total) consisted of parent's perception of specific invitations to involvement from the child and parent's perception of knowledge and skills as well as time and energy for involvement. Role activity beliefs anticipated only home-based involvement, and general invitations from school were identified as a productive predictor of school-based involvement.

In comparison to the theoretical framework and the final report of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005), in the current study, self-efficacy and parental role construction did not emerge as crucial predictors. Indeed, the significance of role activity beliefs only emerged in home-based involvement, meanwhile, it anticipated both kinds of involvement in the final report of the research of Hoover-Dempsey (2005). This point is consistent with the finding of Fishman and Nickerson's 2015 research. At this stage, the possibility to explain the issue mentioned is that the strong correlation between self-efficacy and other independent variables, especially the variable of time and energy. This means that other independent variables might be influenced by self-efficacy. Therefore, for home-based involvement, the absence of self-efficacy was explainable. Another possibility to explain the limits of both role activity beliefs and self-efficacy in the present research can be found in the research of Anderson and Minke (2007) which states that to assess self-efficacy better, a more comprehensive measure of it is necessary since the measure might help to emerge the relationship of self-efficacy and parental role construction as well as their influence on parental involvement. Also, the research suggests that both self-efficacy and parental role construction might be operated separately, instead of conceptualizing as one aspect of parents' motivational beliefs of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) (Anderson & Minke, 2007).

The absence of specific invitations from teachers basing on the data collected for the present research also needs to be considered. According to the data collected, teachers in Finland are not active to ask parents to be involved in the children's schooling. This point might be explained by their awareness of the difference between cultures, thus, there is an existing distance between Finnish teachers and Asian parents. Indeed, for teachers, the increasing number of immigrants to Nordic countries, specifically in Finland for the last decades, has grown challenges related to family life, cultural sensitivity through interaction not only with students but also with parents who have an immigrant background (Tirri, 2014). Its absence does not mean that the role of teachers for parental involvement is not necessary for parental involvement. On the contrary, teachers always are mediators for the relationship between school and family (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997; Sormunen et al., 2011). Consequently, to meet the demands of multicultural education as well as collaborations between home

and schools, changes in teacher education programs in Finland are needed (Tirri, 2014). Although teachers in Finland are trusted and respected with the high status of the teaching profession, they still need to get more support and training to work with immigrant students and families (Alanko, 2018; Sinkkonen & Kyttälä, 2014). For example, lingual support multi-disciplinarity and good quality teaching (i.e., adequate and diverse materials, and methods for teachers) should be operated more effectively to improve the learning performance of immigrant students (Sinkkonen & Kyttälä, 2014). Furthermore, the practical skills in terms of the home-school partnership are crucial to be provided for teachers through training periods at schools (Alanko, 2018).

The third research question was about the challenges of the online learning that Asian parents in Finland experienced through the closures of schools due to the COVID-19 pandemic. There were three themes mentioned in the questionnaire concerning certain challenges which encompass balance, non-positive learner motivation, and accessibility.

For the theme of balancing parental responsibilities, how to make the balance between the parental role and the employment demands, time management for self-care as well as the feeling of being overwhelmed are taken into consideration as difficulties for parents. This finding supports evidence from the research of Koskela et al. (2020) in which parents' perspectives regarding their adaptation to the sudden shift to virtual learning in Finland were tested. During the outbreak of the COVID-19, parents were in charge of home-schooling, while maintaining their duties as parents and employees at the same time, thus, it is hard for them to balance and complete well all the responsibilities (Koskela et al., 2020). The change into remote learning for children and working from home for parents was too rapid for parents in order to have a good preparation at the beginning. As a result, they felt overwhelmed and confused to arrange their schedule and routines for not only themselves but also for their children (Garbe et al., 2020; Koskela et al., 2020).

On the second theme, parents were asked to rank the struggles regarding learning motivation for their children. During the time of the school closure as a result of the pandemic, children lost their motivation not only because of the rapid change of learning environment into the home which was not their normal learning style but also because of internal and external agents such as distraction

caused from other family members, attention ability, or the lack of physical interactions (Garbe et al., 2020). How to motivate children in the challenging and uncertain situation caused by the pandemic is an obstacle for parents. In this respect, mutual conversations and encouragements between parents and their children are profound since this way helps each member in their families recognize existed difficulties and then discuss and figure out solutions together (Koskela et al., 2020). Moreover, the support from schools and teachers for parents is necessary since it provides effective teaching methods, enhances the participation of parents, and reinforces the partnership between home and school (Koskela et al., 2020)

The final identified theme is accessibility. The findings regarding this theme of the present research are not aligned with other research in the Finnish context when the challenges of the theme were not taken into account from the parents' perspective who completed the survey. Indeed, parents were confident to support their children's learning and the lack of communication with teachers was not matter for them as well. This point can be explained by most of the parents attending the research have children of the elementary ages, perhaps, monitoring and giving instructions for learning tasks were under their control. Moreover, during the school closure, teachers in Finland were reported to sending learning tasks frequently as well as organizing video materials, online classes (Koskela et al., 2020). Also, using digital communication has become popular in Finland (Kuusimäki et al., 2019), thus, information related to remote learning was delivered to parents and students fast and opportunely. It also means that in the consequence caused the COVID-19 pandemic, the role of this communication channel was promoted when it maintained the home-school connection effectively.

According to research that investigated the same topic, parents claimed that they did not have enough personal devices for each member to support both learning and working (Koskela et al., 2020). However, in this research, the lack of technology was not identified as a difficulty for parents. This inconsistency may be explained by that smartphones might be used to connect to virtual classroom platforms in case there was an overlap between the working schedule of parents and the class time of children. Another possibility is that, for Asian parents, the education of children is their priority so that they were flexible to arrange their

work in order to let their children use ICT tools when they were attending online lessons. The biggest challenge for parents in this theme is how to reply to learner needs. This might happen for families who have at least 2 children with multiple learning demands (Koskela et al., 2020). Indeed, according to the result of the research question 3b, there were correlations between each theme of challenges regarding remote learning and the number of children of each family, thus, the more children they have, the more learner needs they encountered, the more challenged they got.

Besides the challenges, parents also concerned about the curriculum for remote learning, children's academic progress, and the socio-emotional development of children. However, during the closure of schools, Finnish authorities maintained the nuclear schoolwork, curriculum, and teaching practices which were ensured under a virtual learning environment, and as a result, students reflected positive learning experiences (Loima, 2020). It means that the pandemic policies regarding remote learning in Finland likely met the demands of parents although, there was a lack of support for families who have children with special needs (Loima, 2020).

Regarding the correlation between each of the two background variables (i.e., the number of children of each family and the length of residency) and the three themes of challenges related to virtual learning during the school closure caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, the results are not surprising when the more children parents have, the more challenges they need to deal with and the degree of the challenges also increases. In fact, each child has different learning needs (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995), and schedules of online classes. Moreover, parents cannot use the same approaches to motivate all their children for learning since there is a diversity of learning ways among children (Green et al., 2007). Therefore, the correlation between the number of children and each theme of challenges can be explained (Garbe et al., 2020).

Furthermore, following the results, there is no correlation created by each challenge theme with the length of residency. This point shows that the number of years living in Finland did not correlate with the challenges parents faced during the period of closing schools. The shift from contact learning into remote learning took place fast and unintentionally, thus, parents did not have time to prepare well for the e-education(Garbe et al., 2020). This issue put parents and

their children under an uncontrolled situation at the beginning (Garbe et al., 2020) so that, not only immigrant parents but also native parents felt overwhelmed and challenged to adapt to the new routines (Koskela et al., 2020). Before the school closure happened, parents relied on teachers and school personnel when children were at school, thus, through the time of remote learning, to manage all things at the same time, from working to supporting their children's learning at home, from responding to learning requirements of their children to figuring out the ways to motivate their children to maintain the learning process was a tough mission for them (Koskela et al., 2020). Although Asian parents get familiar with home-based learning activities and the more they have lived in Finland, the more they get used to the educational system, those experiences did not connect with the extent of the feeling of being challenged they had to deal with.

6.2 Limitations, validity, and reliability of the current research

There are some limitations noticed for the present research. Firstly, the participants are mostly from Tampere, Helsinki, Turku, Jyvaskyla, thus the sample might not generalize well for the whole of Finland. Second, the online survey was delivered on the Facebook site only, thus, some parents who are not active on this kind of social network might not get a chance to approach it. Moreover, since the sample is random, the participants might be the only people who got an interest in the topic. Next, there is not much research found that was related to the challenges of remote learning for parents, especially Asian parents, in Finland, therefore the discussion for the third research question might be limited.

Although there is an existence of limitations, the validity and the reliability of this study still are ensured. First, its theoretical framework is developed strongly by going through from parental engagement to parental involvement with different aspects (e.g., its relationship with parental engagement, the role of family-school partnership toward the phenomenon, the model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler in the years of 1995, 1997, and 2005). Next, this study was designed and verified by the accurate quantitative methods which are survey research and multivariate analyses for the hypotheses. For each method of analysis, all assumptions related were checked thoroughly as well as the measure of effect size was

calculated to ensure the validity of the results. Besides, the questionnaires used for the research not only own strong correlations among the items measuring for each factor but also are guaranteed their homogeneity. Noticeably, all the questionnaires, especially of parental involvement, were used by several studies before the dissertation applied them, thus their validity and reliability are ensured. Also, the results of this study were discussed with a range of recent studies investigating the same topic since the phenomenon is a social constructor since it is important to put the results into the modern context.

Furthermore, this study contributed to the theory and the scientific research regarding parental involvement by exploring why and how Asian parents in Finland get involved in their children's learning, that is a research gap needed to fill as an attempt to improve the learning performance of immigrant students. In fact, there are many studies researching the phenomena for different cohorts of parents, however, this study not only reinforced the findings of previous studies by providing similar results but also donated new findings to draw a multidimensional inference of parental involvement. Indeed, one of the findings of the research showed the prediction of the length of residence for school-based involvement. Moreover, this study tested the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) in a different setting which means that its results might be supportive for the improvement of the revised model afterward. The current study also supplements the limited amount of research as well as provides more evidence to support previous findings related to remote learning through the COIVD-19 pandemic.

7 CONCLUSION:

Overall, the present research succeeded in the preliminary steps to investigate the factors which can predict the three measures of parental involvement for Asian parents in Finland as well as the challenges related to remote learning during the time period Finnish schools shut down due to the pandemic.

Through the questionnaire of parental involvement, parents answered following what they experienced for the last school year of their children. One of the findings of the research shows that Asian parents tended to spend more time supporting their children's learning at home that might be explained mainly by cultural aspects. This finding is consistent with previous research on the same topic when Asian parents were the research object. Moreover, to enhance their involvement in school-based activities, the role of schools emerged. When schools attempt to arrange schedules of events or activities as well as invite parents to attend those activities, parents likely are encouraged more to be involved. Additionally, the length of residence was a potential predictor, however, to ensure its benefit, an investigation of itself with other demographic variables such as language proficiency, aspects of acculturation, and so on is necessary.

The specific invitations from children were also a strong predictor for parental involvement. Indeed, since valuing highly the importance of education for a better life in the future, Asian parents always find different ways to support their children's learning, thus, the implicit and explicit invitations from children are identified as a significant predictor for parental involvement. Another factor that can anticipate parental involvement is parental role construction which is perceived as an important motivational factor to encourage parents to make decisions to get involved. Although, the finding of this research showed its limit, nevertheless, there were strong relationships between it and other factors of the revised model of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) according to the data collected, thereby, it is essential for parents to enhance their perceptions in terms of their role to support their children's schooling.

When the temporary closing of school during the COVID-19 pandemic, some challenges might influence on the involvement of Asian parents in the remote education setting. The biggest challenges for parents included finding ways to make a balance among their all duties as parents, workers, and home teachers, managing routine to have time for their self-care, and methods to avoid the feeling of being overwhelmed. Also, they needed to find suitable strategies to motivate their children to maintain learning since the uncertain of the situation caused by the pandemic and other external and internal agents distracting their learning. In this respect, the partnership among community, school, and family emerge to support parents to overcome those challenges by mutual understandings and conversations and productive orientations regarding teaching, learning environment, learning materials, and resources for parents when their children went through virtual schooling.

The research still needs to be extended by interviews with parents to get a more in-depth understanding of their thought and perspective on their parental role, home-school collaboration as well as the challenges related to their life context that hinder or promote their involvement. Moreover, the reflections for children and teachers are crucial to drawing a whole picture of the involvement of Asian parents in Finland.

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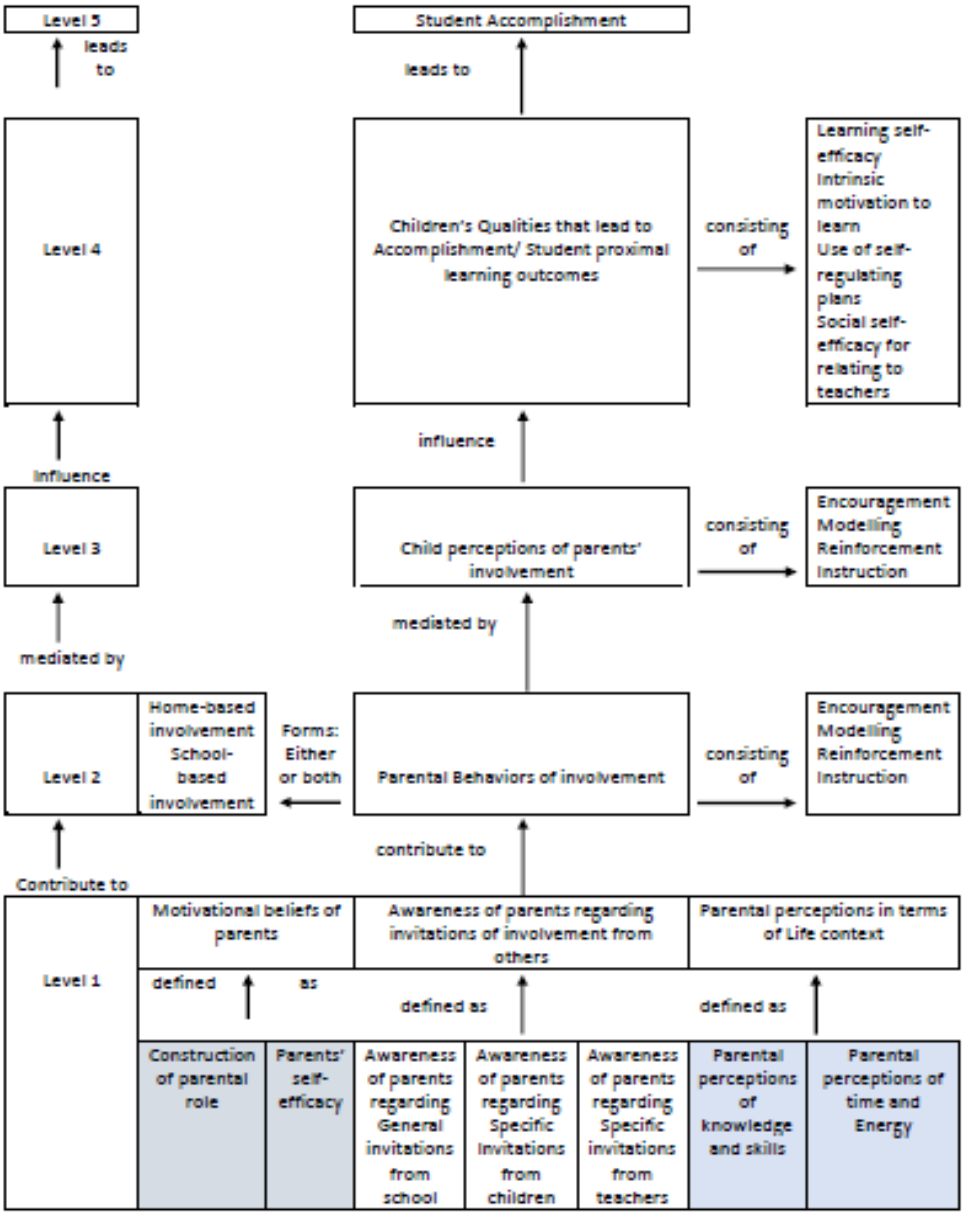
APPENDICES

Appendix A: The revised of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model of parental involvement (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005, p. 74)



Appendix B: Parental Role Construction for Involvement in the Child's Education

Part 1: Role Activity Beliefs

Please think about FROM the last school year of your children and indicate how much you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements.

Response format: 1: Strongly disagree; 2: Disagree; 3: Neutral; 4: Agree; 5: Strongly agree.

I believe it is my responsibility to...

1. volunteer at the school.
2. communicate with my child's teacher regularly.
3. help my child with homework.
4. make sure the school has what it needs.
5. support decisions made by the teacher.
6. stay on top of/ keep everything up to date at school.
7. explain tough assignments to my child.
8. talk with other parents from my child's school.
9. make the school better.
10. talk with my child about the school day.

Part 2: Valence toward School

People have different feelings about school. Please indicate how much you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements.

Response format: 1: Strongly disagree; 2: Disagree; 3: Neutral; 4: Agree; 5: Strongly Agree

Items

1. I liked my schools.
2. My teachers were nice.
3. My teachers cared about me.
4. My school experience was good.
5. I felt like I belonged to my schools.
6. My overall experience was a success.

Appendix C: Parental Self-Efficacy for Helping the Child Succeed in School

Please think about FROM the last school year of your children and indicate how much you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements.

Response format 1: Strongly disagree; 2: Disagree; 3: Neutral; 4: Agree; 5: Strongly agree.

Items

1. I know how to help my child do well in school.
2. I do know if I am getting through to my child. (reversed)
3. I do know how to help my child make good grades in school. (reversed)
4. I feel successful in my efforts to help my child learn.
5. Other children have more influence on my child's grades than I do. (reversed)
6. I do know how to help my child learn. (reversed)
7. I make a significant difference in my child's school performance.

Appendix D: Parents' Perceptions of General Invitations for Involvement from the School

Please think about FROM the last school year of your children and indicate how much you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements.

Response format 1: Strongly disagree; 2: Disagree; 3: Neutral; 4: Agree; 5: Strongly agree.

Items

1. Teachers at this school are interested and cooperative when they discuss my child.
2. I feel welcome at this school.
3. Parent activities are scheduled at this school so that I can attend.
4. This school lets me know about meetings and special school events.
5. This school's staff contacts me promptly (immediately) about any problems involving my child.
6. The teachers at this school keep me informed about my child's progress in school.

Appendix E: Parents' Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Child

Please indicate HOW OFTEN the following have happened FROM the last school year.

Response format: 1: never; 2: seldom; 3: often; 4: usually; 5: daily.

Items

1. My child asked me to help explain something about his or her homework.
2. My child asked me to supervise his or her homework.
3. My child talked with me about the school day.
4. My child asked me to attend a special event at school.
5. My child asked me to help out at the school.
6. My child asked me to talk with his or her teacher.

Appendix F: Parents' Perceptions of Specific Invitations for Involvement from the Teacher

Please indicate HOW OFTEN the following have happened FROM the last school year

Response format 1: never; 2: seldom; 3: often; 4: usually; 5: daily.

Items

1. My child's teacher asked me or expected me to help my child with homework.
2. My child's teacher asked me or expected me to supervise my child's homework.
3. My child's teacher asked me to talk with my child about the school day.
4. My child's teacher asked me to attend a special event at school.
5. My child's teacher asked me to help out at the school.
6. My child's teacher contacted me (for example, sent a note, phoned, e-mailed).

Appendix G: Parents' Perceived Life Context

Please indicate how much you AGREE or DISAGREE with each of the following statements with regard to FROM the last school year.
Response format: 1: Strongly disagree; 2: Disagree; 3: Neutral; 4: Agree; 5: Strongly agree.

Time and Energy: I have enough time and energy to...

1. communicate effectively with my child about the school day.
2. help out at my child's school.
3. Communicate effectively with my child's teacher.
4. attend special events at school.
5. help my child with homework.
6. supervise my child's homework.

Knowledge and Skills

1. I know about volunteering opportunities at my child's school.
2. I know about special events at my child's school.
3. I know effective ways to contact my child's teacher.
4. I know how to communicate effectively with my child about the school day.
5. I know how to explain things to my child about his or her homework.
6. I know enough about the subjects of my child's homework to help him or her.
7. I know how to communicate effectively with my child's teacher.
8. I know how to supervise my child's homework.
9. I have the skills to help out at my child's school.

Appendix H: Parents' Involvement in Home-Based and School-Based Activities

Families do many different things when they are involved in their children's education. We would like to know how true the following things are for your family. Please indicate HOW OFTEN the following have happened FROM the last school year.

Response format 1: never; 2: seldom; 3: often; 4: usually; 5: daily.

Home-Based Involvement: Someone in this family...

1. talks with this child about the school day.
2. Supervises this child's homework.
3. Helps this child study for tests.
4. practices spelling, math, or other skills with this child.
5. reads with this child.

School-Based Involvement: Someone in this family...

1. helps out at this child's school.
2. attends special events at school.
3. volunteers to go on class field trips.
4. attends PTA meetings.
5. goes to the school's open house.

Appendix I: How parents support their children's learning during the covid-19 pandemic?

1. How much total time per day did you support your child(ren) with learning while schools are closed?

1) Less than 1 hour
2) From 1 to 2 hours
3) From 2 to 3 hours
4) More than 3 hours

2. Challenges for parents when they support their children's remote learning:

Families had to deal with many challenges to support their children's remote learning during the covid-19 pandemic.

We would like to know your challenges during that period. Please indicate how CHALLENGING to you are the following aspects of remote learning.

Format responses: 1: Not challenging at all; 2: Challenging a little bit; 3: Neutral; 4: Challenging; 5: Extremely challenging.

Theme 1: Balancing Responsibilities

1) Balancing Parent Employment Demands and Learner Needs
2) Personal Balance (personal time for self-care)
3) Parent Feels Overwhelmed

Theme 2: Non-positive Learner Motivation

1) Lack of Learner Motivation Specifically Related to Remote Learning (For example lack of social interaction, figuring out how to learn in this way and or the student feeling like remote learning did not match the learning style, a home learning environment is not like school learning environment)
2) Lack of Learner Motivation Not Specifically Related to Remote Learning: (For example boredom, motivation, attention span, engagement, attitude, behavior, cooperation and focus.)

Theme 3: Accessibility

1) Learner needs (For example learning space, textbooks, learning toys, learning materials: worksheets, flashcards, etc.,)
2) Lack of Access Technology Hardware or Internet Quality
3) Lack of Online Resource Organization (e.g., struggle to access online resources due to having too many resources or uncertainty of how to access the educational websites)
4) Lack of Parent Content Knowledge or Pedagogy
5) Lack of Teacher Communication

3. Concerns related to Learning Outcomes

Each family had their own concerns related to the Learning Outcomes of their children's education during the covid-19 pandemic.

We would like to know your concerns. Please indicate how IMPORTANT to you are the following learning outcomes.

Format responses: 1: Not important at all; 2: important a little bit; 3: Neutral; 4: important; 5: Extremely important

1) A curriculum concern related to remote learning.
2) Academic progress for the future
3) Socio-emotional development since the decreased level of interactions with peers.

Appendix J: The information letter of the present research.

Principal Investigator:
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Supervisor: Dr. Elina Kuusisto (elina.kuusisto@tuni.fi)
Faculty of Education and Culture, Tampere University
Åkerlundinkatu 5, 33014 Tampere University

Introduction:
This letter aims to inform you about the research so that you can decide to participate or not. You can contact me via the email address: nguyen.t.nguyen@tuni.fi before your possible participation in the research.

Aim of the study:
The study aims to explore the perceptions of Asian immigrant parents in Finland in terms of parental involvement: reasons and ways they get involved in their children's learning. Furthermore, the barriers that hinder Asian parents' involvement are also clarified so that the findings of the research can somehow help educators understand more Asian parents' participation in their children's schooling.
Answering the survey is also the way for you to check not only what have you done with your children's learning but also the relationship between you and school and teachers. Although, these aspects only show one part of parental involvement, still, they can help you recognize and adjust your thinking in relation to the issue so that you can contribute more to your children's learning accomplishment.

Your role in the research:
You will participate in the research by complete the questionnaire (15 minutes). If it is possible, some participants can get an invitation for an individual interview, thus, at the end of the questionnaire, you will be asked if I can approach you for this interview.

Privacy protection

Data will be used only for scientific research. Data will be anonymized, and the anonymity of the participants will be protected in all phases of the study. Results that will be presented in written reports will be based on all answers, and individuals are not traceable.

The data is stored in Tampere University and then when the study is ready, all data related to the identification of participants will be removed and the research records will be anonymized and archived at the Finnish Social Science Data Archive (FSD).

To access the research material, a personal username and password provided by Tampere University are required. The research material is stored at the university as well. Besides, the outside transfer of the data collected in the research will be not allowed.

Participation in the study is voluntary.

You can decide not to participate in the study at any time you want.

Who can I contact if I have questions about the research?

If you have questions about the research, you can contact the principal investigator, Nguyen Nguyen: (nguyen.t.nguyen@tuni.fi)

The research permission has been granted by Tampere University.