PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AMONG HIGH-SCHOOL CHILDREN IN BANGLADESH: A META-SYNTHESIS OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

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Abstract

It has been shown that more parental participation in their children's education is successful, even in underprivileged areas of industrialized nations. It demonstrates that this result may be applied to developing countries based on a study of randomized field trials, including frequent, in-person contact between instructors and parents in a rural Bangladesh environment. Parent-teacher conferences regularly encouraged parents to spend more time helping and supervising their kids' schoolwork. Therefore, this study aims to explore the influence of parental involvement on student's academic performance in Bangladeshi secondary schools. This led to changes in student attitudes and conduct, in addition to helping kids' test results. The treatment benefits were consistent regardless of parental, teacher, or school-level variables. Significant policy ramifications emerge from these results for underdeveloped nations where increased school enrollment levels often do not result in better educational outcomes: Parent-teacher engagement programs are affordable, simple to establish, and scalable.

Keywords:

Parental Involvement; Academic Achievement; High-School Children; Bangladesh; Meta-Synthesis

Introduction

Parental involvement in educational activities encourages children from various backgrounds to feel more at ease in the classroom, resulting in improved academic results (Gianni et al., 2016). As a result, the importance of homeschool interactions is that they may assist educators in better understanding kids' family viewpoints and bridging the gap between students, parents, and instructors (Almalki, Alqabbani, & Alnahdi, 2021). Over the past several decades, school reforms have been implemented across the globe to bring together the diverse perspectives of key stakeholders in the school environment, including students, teachers, administrators, board of trustees, parents, and the community (Almalki et al., 2021). Similarly, collaborations between schools and their communities have bolstered school activities and aided in creating places for stakeholders to understand one another better, especially the crucial components of partners' perspectives (Sabia & Anderson, 2016). In this setting, schools are made up of more than just teachers and kids; parents and the broader community play an important role. As a result, kids may develop their abilities and talents by building relationships with many school stakeholders, notably via parental participation (Chowa, Masa, & Tucker, 2013).

In Bangladeshi education, parental engagement in secondary schools is relatively recent. In 1977, the Bangladeshi government passed an act allowing the creation of Non-Governmental Secondary School Management Committees (SMC) to monitor non-government secondary schools (Hasnat, 2016). SMC comprises four parents and two teachers' representatives, one founder, one donor, and one education enthusiast recommended by the local Intermediate and Secondary Education Board (ISEB), the headteacher, and the Chairman (Hasnat, 2016). SMC's primary function is to care about the non-governmental secondary school's management concerns and academic activities (Hasnat, 2016). However, the development of SMC provided a chance for parents to participate in managing secondary schools in Bangladesh as community members (Asad, 2022). Given the significance of partnerships, numerous initiatives and programs have been established in secondary schools over the last several years, with collaborations between parents and schools acknowledged as a vital means of accomplishing overall educational goals (Gomes, 2015). In light of this, the researchers devised a general question: how do parents in Bangladesh participate in secondary school education?

Recent educational advances in many nations have shown the rising relevance of parental participation in school (Robin, 2021). Numerous countries have established municipal, state, and national policies to encourage parental engagement in education (Hasnat, 2016; Omar, Rauf, Ismail, Rashid, & Zakaria, 2020). Given the significance of family participation, the Bangladeshi government's education strategy prioritizes parental involvement in secondary schools. Including parents on School Management Committees (SMCs) is one example of how this principle is implemented. In Bangladesh, SMCs are the only bodies permitted to manage non-government schools. In Bangladesh, over 98 per cent of schools are non-government and run by an SMC, with five parent representatives elected in a competitive selection process. Incorporating parents in the SMC is to enable parents and community members to participate in school administration and decision-making (Robin, 2021). Through Parent–Teacher Associations, the government is attempting to engage parents in school activities in a different manner (PTAs). These committees comprise 16 members, 11 of whom are parents, and their primary purpose is to help SMCs with various difficulties (Asad, 2022). PTAs were created to provide an education-friendly climate in both school and home settings, as policymakers highlight the role of teachers at school and parents at home in helping kids learn (Islam, 2017). However, none of these programs is working to allow such an expectation to be met (Kim, 2018).

Furthermore, parental engagement is a multifaceted notion in which parents may engage in various ways to help their children attain academic success. Some scholars feel that parental participation is goal-oriented, such as parental academic support and parental behavioural control being linked to teenage misbehaviour (Hasnat, 2016). Previous research has identified a link between parental educational participation and student success, but the results are mixed. Some studies have indicated that parental educational involvement enhances academic achievement, while others have found modest, if any, beneficial benefits (Bono & Stifler, 1998; Schwebel et al., 2011). A breakdown of the differential effects of various components of parental involvement revealed that subtle forms of parental involvement, such as parental educational aspirations and providing a stimulating learning environment, positively impacted students' academic achievement. In contrast, overt forms of parental academic involvement, such as homework help, had no effect or had negative results (Ustunel, 2009).

The motivational resources development model has been used to explain the link between parental participation and adolescent academic success (Kelsey, Campbell, & Vanata, 1998; Pan, Gauvain, Liu, & Cheng, 2006; Schwebel et al., 2011). According to this approach, parents indirectly encourage academic achievement in their children by encouraging adolescents to pursue self-directed learning,

which is critical to academic success (Ustunel, 2009). Self-regulated learners are independently motivated to participate in learning activities and have a sense of choice or volition (Kirschenbaum, Harris, & Tomarken, 1984). Self-regulated students are more engaged in school activities, have better-coping techniques, and put up more effort in the face of failures than their externally stimulated peers (Asad, 2022; Huss-Keeler, 1997; Islam, 2017). Self-control is especially critical throughout early adolescence because teenagers desire more autonomy and self-determination (Kirschenbaum et al., 1984). Most parents have a barrier since most academic activities are not naturally enjoyable for children (Berrick, 1988). It is difficult to foster self-directed learning for intrinsically dull school-related activities. Using self-determination theory (SDT), this study aims to explore parental involvement's influence on students' academic performance in Bangladeshi secondary schools.

Literature review

A framework for understanding parental involvement

Family engagement has been developed as a policy problem in the United States. It is one of the six reform areas that the No Child Left Behind act of 2001 has identified as needing attention. Schools around the United States were advised to connect with and include families in their children's education in light of declining general success and widening achievement disparities between White and minority students, and parenting programs have multiplied (Cooper, 2010). In this context, the "family-school partnership" was framed as a solution to American students' low achievement. It has generated a significant body of literature documenting the positive associations between parental involvement and achievement, leading to multiple meta-analyses, including the majority of American studies (Iniesta-Sepulveda, Rosa-Alcazar, Sanchez-Meca, Parada-Navas, & Rosa-Alcazar, 2017; Jeon, Peterson, Luze, Carta, & Clawson Langill, 2020; Williams, So, & Siu, 2020). Due to the abundance of published meta-analyses, a quantitative meta-synthesis was created to combine them (Myers & Ladd, 2020).

Despite the substantial amount of literature synthesizing quantitative studies, there hasn't been a single meta-synthesis that summarizes the qualitative scholarship on the subject. The emotional component of parental participation and the perceived impediments to the involvement of underprivileged minority parents in the United States or the United Kingdom have generally been the subjects of more limited qualitative investigations (Zucker et al., 2021). By illuminating the deeper, more deeply ingrained cultural reasons and context of parental participation, such studies contribute significantly to the field. These studies give information on more marginalized groups and white, middle-class wealthy parents so that the results may be used to close the widening cultural gaps between impoverished families and schools (Boonk et al., 2018).

Joyce Epstein identified six parenting categories—parenting, communicating, volunteering, at-home learning, decision-making, and working with the community—are the foundation of most parental participation frameworks now in use (Dietrich & Salmela-Aro, 2013). This widely used concept has its roots in the U.S. environment, where closing achievement disparities and raising test scores are the main goals of school reform (Lerner, Grolnick, Caruso, & Levitt, 2022). Epstein's paradigm stresses the overlapping relationship between families, communities, and schools while concentrating on what schools and educational practitioners can do to actively include parents in schools from the viewpoint of schools (Arens & Jude, 2017). It demonstrates how the American family-school relationship has been conceptualized regarding parental engagement (Lau & Power, 2018).

Moving beyond a focus on boosting the absolute amount of parental participation is another advancement in the field of parental involvement research. The knowledge of how parent participation may important after the bare minimum has been met has been attempted to be advanced. Dietrich and Salmela-Aro, (2013) discuss how contemporary research examines how parents impact their kids'

education, asking what parents do that matters for kids, how, and why. Additionally, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler created a theoretical framework to illuminate the psychological drivers behind parents' involvement in education (Arens & Jude, 2017; Lerner et al., 2022). Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler's theoretical model of the parental involvement process has been updated to include parents' perceived life context, which they define as their self-perceived time and energy as well as their self-perceived skills and knowledge, which may not be constant depending on their stage of life (Brown, McBride, Bost, & Shin, 2011). Although these frameworks help deepen our knowledge of parental participation on an individual level, it is unclear how they would apply in non-Western settings, given that they were primarily created in more affluent nations like the United States or Canada (Karbach et al. 2013).

Parental involvement during childhood
Parental engagement in this research was determined by the frequency of parenting activities the mother and her spouse engaged in, as reported by the mother through a questionnaire at seven different points during the child's upbringing. Items included actions linked to basic care (such as bathing, feeding, and putting a child to bed), love (such as cuddling), play (such as singing, painting, and playing), and excursions/activities (such as classes, shopping, and sports) (Kim, 2018). The amount and kind of activity items changed as children aged in line with their developmental stage (Rosenthal et al., 2016). Three stages of childhood were identified: stage 1 infancy/toddler (0–2 years, including examinations at 6 and 18 months), stage 2 preschool age (3–4 years), and stage 3 school age (5-7 years, including assessments at 5, 5.5, and 7 years) (Castro et al., 2015; Otani, 2019). Parenting scores for all tests were normalized to a similar range since the parenting assessments utilized Likert scales with varying ranges of answer possibilities and used different numbers of questions throughout childhood. The mother's parenting score and the partner's parenting score for each of the seven evaluations were each determined as the total of the scores for each activity and then normalized into the range of 0–10. (Yotyodying & Wild, 2016). The parenting score at each of the seven examinations was the mean of the scores of the mother and spouse (range 0–10). The total parenting score was the average of all parenting scores provided across all seven evaluations (range 0-10). (Rosenthal et al., 2016). It served as a proxy for parental participation throughout childhood and a means of testing the accumulation hypothesis. The stage-specific parenting score ranged from 0-10. It measured the amount of parental involvement for each developmental time frame, which was the average score over the two or three examinations in each stage (Boonk et al., 2021; Cremades, Donlon, & Poczwardowski, 2013). The three distinct predictors may be used to evaluate the sensitive period hypothesis because they show the importance of exposure timing (i.e., which developmental stage matters more regarding parental engagement and future depression risk). Trajectories of parental participation across time were obtained in addition to parenting ratings for each stage and total parental involvement (Rosenthal et al., 2016). Using a semi-parametric group-based approach, a type of latent class growth analysis, we specifically identified parental involvement trajectories from birth to age 7. This approach classifies groups of people based on their likelihood of adopting a similar clear pattern or course over time (Chowa et al., 2013).

Theoretical background
Social capital is a multifaceted term in theory. Because Coleman's individualistic methods are widely used in education and because he is interested in the function that social capital plays in academic success, this study has used his conceptions of social capital (Coleman & Cross, 1988). By obligations, expectations, information flow, and informal sanctions ingrained in relationships among the actors, he proposes two dimensions of social capital: social capital in the family and outside the family, and claims that both types of social capital lower the dropout rate in high schools (Robin, 2021). Parents' likelihood of passing on their skills and human capital to their children is lowered by a lack of social capital (Asad, 2022; Kirschenbaum et al., 1984; Robin, 2021).

Following Coleman's theoretical lead, researchers have defined social capital with an emphasis on parental participation, such as involvement at home and in the classroom, because parental involvement denotes a deliberate investment in children. Following a review of the research on social capital, it is evident that parent-child dialogue, parental expectations, and family rules are often included in home-based engagement (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009; Kelsey et al., 1998; Worthington et al., 1991; Mendlowitz et al., 1999; Ygge & Arnetz, 2004). Scholars consistently offer intergenerational closure and engagement in school-based activities when conceptualizing school-based involvement (Worthington et al., 1991; Zick, Bryant, & Stelbacka, 2001). School-based participation, as opposed to involvement at home, is more concerned with parents' relationships with the school and with the parents of their children's friends. Coleman's ideas gave rise to the term "intergenerational closure," which designates a particular kind of social network in which parents interact with the parents of their children's friends (Mendlowitz et al., 1999). Even when their children are reluctant to share their academic performance with their parents, parents may learn information and establish expectations and standards for their children via the parents of their children's friends. When this closure network is built, it offers guidelines and knowledge that each parent may use to educate their children. Parents using this social network will keep an eye on their kids' academic progress and that of other people's kids (Coleman, 1988). Attending open houses or school events is part of participating in school-related activities, which enhances contact between parents and instructors (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). The five parental engagement aspects may help children learn the required knowledge, expectations, and norms, improving educational achievements. However, they are seldom discussed concurrently in existing material (Vahedi & Nikdel, 2011).

Effects of parental involvement on academic achievement

Studies have shown that parental participation and academic success are now favourably correlated. Studies have shown that parents' engagement in their children's education is advantageous for parents, kids, and schools (Kelsey et al., 1998). According to Wuerth, Lee, and Alfermann (2004), parents play a crucial role in laying the groundwork for their children's education. Kirschenbaum et al. (1984) made a similar observation, noting that when children are surrounded by loving, competent parents and have access to nurturing and moderately competitive kinship, a foundation for literacy is quickly built. The conclusion made by Bono and Stifler (1998) was a fitting one: the more parental involvement in their children's education, the better the impact on academic performance. Therefore, it is thought that children are more responsive and likely to do well in school when parents supervise homework, promote involvement in extracurricular activities, are engaged in parent-teacher organizations, and help children establish goals for the future (Shoho, 1994; Walsh, 2010).

Based on the findings of 66 studies, researchers (Kirschenbaum et al., 1984; Mendlowitz et al., 1999) concluded that parental involvement in the child's education, rather than family money, is the most reliable predictor of student accomplishment. In fact, (Gomes, 2015) observed that parental pressure had a favorable and substantial impact on academic achievement in public schools. This becomes more clear when the intensity of parental anxiety is applied to the kids' academic achievement. Similarly, Kelsey et al. (1998) revealed that passive parenting was linked to children's subpar academic performance. According to Huntsinger and Jose (2009), having parents that enforce regulations at home is favourably associated with academic success. The research findings presented in this study make it clear that family involvement enhances a variety of educational outcomes for kids, including daily attendance (Walsh, 2010), student achievement (Li, Hu, Ge, & Auden, 2019; Omar et al., 2020; Robin, 2021; Ustunel, 2009), behavior (Orly, 2015), and motivation (X. Li et al., 2022; McNeal, 2001). On this topic, (Orly, 2015) proposed that parental participation would likely significantly impact children's performance. The information above has shown that for a significant proportion of kids, a lack of

parental involvement in their children's education is one of the biggest obstacles to high academic accomplishment. In conclusion, research has proven that parents desire to be involved in their children's education, even though they are fully aware that this may lead to tremendous success (Lavenda, 2011). However, for parents to do this successfully, they need more guidance.

According to Lv, Yan and Luo (2019), schools might use six programs to develop practical parenting skills. One of these is helping families with parenting and child-rearing skills; two is communicating with families about school programs, student's progress, and needs; three is working to improve families as volunteers in school activities; four is encouraging families to participate in learning activities at home; five is including parents as participants in significant school decisions; and six is coordinating with businesses (Lv et al., 2019). The significance of these initiatives is more evidence of how closely linked the parent-school relationship is to students' academic success. Thus, it is impossible to overstate the impact of parental participation on academic success. Academic success increases with a closer bond, particularly between parents and their children's schooling (Robin, 2021).

This was justified, according to (Khajehpour, 2011), who emphasized the need to foster homeschool partnerships. (Mqatu, 2011) presented a model in which he examined how children learn and develop via three overlapping realms of influence: home, school, and community, in an effort to provide greater significance to his contribution to parental participation and children's education. He contends that these three realms must collaborate to serve the kid's needs effectively. Yingling and Bell, 2016 once again established six different forms of engagement) based on the connections between families, schools, and communities. These include communication, volunteering, at-home learning, decision-making, parenting (skills), and working with the district. He made it obvious that these six sorts of engagement must be present for partnerships to be effective (between the home and the school). According to Li et al. (2019), most studies that looked at the connections between parent participation and children's education gauge parent involvement using a single metric, including tallying the number of parents who volunteer, attend meetings, or attend parent-teacher conferences. Other studies used measures that included viewing closed-ended questions that focused on specific aspects of parent engagement and often placed emphasis on the frequency with which parents took part in certain activities (Khajehpour & Ghazvini, 2011; Lavenda, 2011; Y. Li et al., 2019; Omar et al., 2020). According to Lv et al. (2019), this kind of measure neither generates new ideas nor creates a complete picture of parent engagement.

Numerous studies have shown that the impacts of different social capital determinants differ depending on ethnicity. Parental expectation has been found to have the strongest predictive power for achievement of all the parental involvement dimensions (Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones, & Reed, 2002; Lv et al., 2019; Uludag, 2008), whereas the effects of parent-child discussion and family rules seem to vary less from study to study. For instance, parent-child interaction benefits White children's first accomplishment status directly, but Asian American students' initial success status is unaffected (Garcia & de Guzman, 2020; Sabia & Anderson, 2016). Family rules, such as restrictions on TV viewing and learning time, were previously found to be positively associated with reading achievement (Ressler, 2020). However, subsequent research has not been able to replicate this finding (Ni, Lu, Lu, & Tan, 2021), and it has been noted that family rules do not account for differences in reading abilities between ethnic groups. Intergenerational closure and involvement in school-based activities have varied effects, depending on racial background and cultural context (Klugman, Lee, & Nelson, 2012; Y. Li et al., 2019). Although factors of family background, such as the language spoken at home, family structure, and socioeconomic status (SES), can contribute significantly to achievement gaps between immigrant and native children (Burke, Mulvey, Schubert, & Garbin, 2014; El-Hilali & Al-Rashidi, 2015; Otani, 2019), little is known about whether varying levels of home- or school-based involvement can close

these gaps. Immigrant children in Taiwan may stay with native children at higher grades since the average reading trajectory of immigrant learners beginning at a lower reading level may catch up with native learners in roughly the sixth grade after keeping SES constant (Ni et al., 2021).

Along with cultural circumstances, parental participation has different long-term effects. Findings from three significant longitudinal research on various forms of social capital and academic success have provided insight into how social capital affects reading and math ability. To examine the effects of parental involvement factors on the theoretical growth rate of high school students, Ding et al. (2022) used a latent growth model. Their findings showed that the growth rate of reading was positively associated with educational aspiration but negatively associated with participation in extracurricular activities (Chowa et al., 2013). However, Hispanic and White groups rather than Asian American groups showed the long-lasting effects of educational desire.

A similar model was used by Li et al. (2019), who discovered that for Asian American teenagers, parent-child communication influenced eventual academic progress but not initial academic performance, while parental expectation benefited short-term success but not long-term success. Participation in school-based activities also directly impacted students' initial accomplishment status and pace of achievement development. Later, Blau and Hameiri (2012) examined how family capital and other variables affect the academic success trajectories of adolescents from immigrant households using the same information. Their findings demonstrate no relationship between parental participation and the development rates of reading and math scores.

It is noteworthy that, although Mqatu (2011) takes a favourable view of the role of social capital, she believes that the impacts of engagement at home and in school on immigrant success throughout early adolescence are limited since peers seem to be more important than the adolescent's parents (Lv et al., 2019). Results from elementary school studies show that, across ethnic groups, family social capital and social capital from outside the family seem to impact children's accomplishments at this level (Sabia & Anderson, 2016).

However, depending on the strength of social control (strong and effective norms) and collective punishment, the impact of social capital may not always be good. The closeness of the family bond may not always be beneficial for children's success if the needs for established societal control are greater than those for individual freedom (Garcia & de Guzman, 2020). Researchers have worked to determine any possible detrimental effects of engagement at home or school on academic results (Burke et al., 2014; Klugman et al., 2012; Ni et al., 2021). According to recent studies, parental ambition is adversely connected with early and middle adolescent math performance (Otani, 2019). Given that Chinese students are more inclined to follow their parents' counsel and meet their expectations than American students are (Li et al., 2022), the current research may have shown unfavourable relationships with certain aspects of parental engagement. According to social capital theory, it is anticipated that several social capital factors would lessen the more significant gaps in elementary school students' beginning academic performances and favourably influence yearly academic achievement gains in Chinese culture; however, a few parental involvement factors may have negative effects (Y. Li et al., 2019).

Goals and perspective

It has been shown that parental participation is a significant factor that favorably affects children's academic performance (Lv et al., 2019). More and more schools are recognizing the significance and motivating Families to participate more. It is crucial to comprehend what parental participation means and how it affects children's education in light of this new development. Epstein's paradigm offers a thorough understanding of engagement. Children learn and develop via three overlapping domains of

influence: family, school, and community, according to Boonk et al. (2021). To effectively satisfy the kid's needs, all three areas must collaborate. Based on the connections between the family, school, and community, Blau and Hameiri (2012) identified six categories of involvement: parenting (skills), communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making, and working with the community. Sabia and Anderson (2016) emphasized the need for all six forms of engagement to create effective relationships. Counting the number of parents who volunteer, attend meetings, or attend parent-teacher conferences is one example of how much research on the connections between parental participation and children's education evaluates parental involvement (Ding et al., 2022). Other studies (Blau & Hameiri, 2012; Gómez, Harris, Barreiro, Isorna, & Rial, 2017; Ni et al., 2021; Park, Stone, & Holloway, 2017) make use of measures that are composed of a few closed-ended questions that focus on a specific aspect of parental involvement and frequently center on the frequency of parents' participation in particular events. Jhang and Lee (2018) contend that this kind of measurement neither fosters innovation nor provides a complete picture of parental participation. Many of these metrics were used in the project that this article summarizes. Home-related activities that support children's education were also incorporated. Parents helped kids with their schoolwork, spoke to them about school-related subjects, and took them on field excursions, among other activities relating to the home. Additionally, this research included open-ended inquiries to allow the parents to elaborate on their engagement (Yingling & Bell, 2016). In relation to Epstein's six categories of parental participation, the different parental involvement domains were investigated. Several educational outcomes for kids are enhanced by family involvement, including daily attendance (Arens & Jude, 2017; Nguon, 2012; Prakhov, Kotomina, & Sazhina, 2020; Slicker, Barbieri, Collier, & Hustedt, 2021), behavior (Cremades et al., 2013; Dietrich & Salmela-Aro, 2013; Gahramanov, Hasanov, & (Acar, Chen, & Xie, 2021; Nguon, 2012; Rabahi, Yusof, & Awang, 2015). Parental participation was anticipated to have a significant impact on children's performance. This specific research looked at the connections between family participation and academic success.

Research Methodology

A relatively recent technique for synthesizing qualitative research, meta-synthesis has become increasingly popular in subjects like organizational studies, social work, and health emphasizing evidence-based policies and practices (Gahramanov et al., 2020). Despite Noblit and Hare's (1988) groundbreaking work on meta-ethnography, they have been less common in education, while meta-synthesis has been more common. Because of its implications for family and school practice and its ability to preserve the diverse and culturally ingrained educational parenting beliefs and behaviours that exist across contexts, qualitative meta-synthesis is a particularly promising method for studying the relationship between families and schools. The growing body of qualitative research analyzing parenting and education in developing nations offers a singular chance to create a thorough and original understanding of the nature of parental involvement in the context of development, where parents and schools deal with problems that are very dissimilar from those found in Western developed contexts. In light of the growing significance of the role played by families globally and the involvement of families and communities in building school capacity in developing countries with fewer resources, it must be address the current gaps of understanding about family-school relations in developing countries with less developed education systems (Philippe et al., 2022).

Sixteen articles out of 2029 were kept for the final sample after the title and abstract screening, which is within the advised number of studies (n = 2-20) for comprehensive manageable analysis (Cho, Glassner, & Lee, 2019). An overview of the studies that were included is given in Table 1. Most research relied on interviews and fieldwork, as seen in this table. There is a dearth of knowledge regarding family-school ties in underdeveloped countries, thus even if many of the studies' study designs tended

to be inadequate, often based on convenience samples and without a clear justification, they nevertheless add to the body of knowledge (Papadakis, Zaranis, & Kalogiannakis, 2019). With the ability that certain settings could be more complicated to investigate than others, dismissing studies based only on quality was challenging since each covered a nation or location that had seldom been examined. I thus did not rule out any research based on their quality (Lerner et al., 2022).

The instructions provided by Major, Arens, and Jude (2017), including the three processes of analysis, synthesis, and interpretation, were followed by me. First-order themes and codes were created to identify motifs that recurred in several research and those particular to each investigation. The family-school-community partnership outlined in Epstein's framework, parents' educational beliefs and opportunity structures, as well as discourses about family-school partnerships including tension and conflict, were all themes searched for while developing open codes using the qualitative software Atlas. ti 8. I also read the articles singly as a unit. Then I grouped them by area to look for developing trends inside and across these groupings in order to better identify common themes in each country/region. This study heavily referenced Papadakis et al., (2019)'s interpretative approach, reading and rereading the studies to capture the authors' original findings and concepts to generate the first order themes, then moving on to higher-order concepts and second-order themes to better integrate and translate the data collectively.

Findings

As the studies were reviewed many times, an intriguing pattern emerged that mapped onto the ecological framework developed by Bronfenbrenner, which served as the fundamental organizational foundation for this synthesis. So, primarily based on the categories proposed by Gruchel et al., the study divided the data into micro-, meso-, exo-, and macrosystem components of parental engagement (2022). The majority of the studies in this synthesis were descriptive, emphasizing the physical characteristics of the home learning environment and the engagement of parents at home as components of the micro-system of children's learning environment (Mqatu, 2011). Parents' engagement at home may take many forms, such as offering children emotional support, paying for their children's tuition, or checking and encouraging their children's homework completion (Dietrich & Salmela-Aro, 2013; Cai & Tu, 2021). The difficulties that parents in this group often experience are comparable to those described in the research on minority parents in the United States. The high rates of parent illiteracy and education gaps impeded parents' awareness of their children's needs and their expectations. Ishihara-Condo et al. (2022) discovered that Guatemalan parents had fundamental and low expectations for what their kids should learn in school, placing a greater emphasis on reading and communication in the native language and Spanish than on important subjects like arithmetic. Because they could not comprehend Paraguayan school materials, parents found it difficult to assist their children with their homework, according to Villiger, Wandeler, and Niggli (2014). Chinese parents from the countryside said, "I feel like a simple peasant without knowledge. However, instructors are trained, as stated in Xie & Postiglione (2016) on page 1023 or in Chi & Rao (2003) on page 339, who said that they "felt humiliated since they lacked a formal education." Some of the publications used the terms "schooled" and "unschooled" to describe people with and without schooling (Asad, 2022). Poverty was the second-biggest issue mentioned. In this sample of research, the material dimensions of poverty were more strongly addressed. Many parents' fees for sending their children to school were out of reach. For instance, rural Gambian parents struggled to pay for books, activities, and tutoring charges in addition to the cost of uniforms (Mendlowitz et al., 1999). In contrast, many Bangladeshi parents said that money was their biggest issue. Most parents worked long hours and had little free time to devote to their children's education (Ygge & Arnetz, 2004). Teachers agreed that poverty significantly harmed homeschool relationships and caused parents to experience extreme stress (Ygge & Arnetz, 2004).

This meta-analysis shows the importance of achieving collective goals in developing nations and the potential benefits of partnerships between families, schools, and communities (Hasnat, 2016). Studies carried out in developing nations typically expand on exo- and macrosystems in addition to the current literature's heavy emphasis on micro- and mesosystem level aspects of parental involvement because of how important shifting socioeconomic, demographic, political, and historical dynamics are to PI (Kim, 2018). In PI studies carried out in developing nations, the larger context of expanding mass education, nation-building, decentralization, constrained government capacity, and altering opportunity structures with urbanization was thoroughly examined (Uludag, 2008). In this review, key themes included parents' use of social networks, partnerships between families, communities, and schools, as well as narratives about educational beliefs that were embedded in cultural and societal contexts and were largely missing from earlier literature in Western developed contexts (Kelsey et al., 1998).

The present discourse on PI in developing countries includes a number of holes, according to this research. Inadequate home learning surroundings (microsystem) and geographic distance (mesosystem) are some of the greatest omissions mentioned (Huntsinger & Jose, 2009). Except for (Worthington et al., 1991), who utilized a HOME measure unsuitable for evaluating home learning environments in developing countries, the physical components of children's home learning environments were not examined. The geographical distance and accessibility of home schools are also likely to have a significant impact on the absence of parent-teacher contact. However, this was not expressly covered in the context of homeschool relationships. However, the main issue was the use of overlapping spheres of influence (Kelsey et al., 1998). Most of the research referenced parental engagement, which is how it is defined in the United States, as their central premise and claimed to investigate how policymakers and schools might improve parental participation. However, it is clear from carefully reading the studies' findings section that Epstein's framework, which focused on individual achievement and narrowing achievement gaps between different groups, is irrelevant in the context of development because developing nations continue to struggle with ensuring that all children have basic access to high-quality education (Asad, 2022). As background context for the interaction between the family and the school, the majority of the studies in this synthesis discussed colonial history, nation-building, and current government initiatives to offer access to excellent primary education for everyone (Cong et al., 2020; Gounden, 2016; Sebidie, 2015)

Conclusion and discussion

The weight of the evidence points to the significance of parental involvement in kids' education. Some parents are capable of promoting both motivations for achievement and cognitive development. More importantly, parents who lack these abilities can quickly pick them up. According to research, parents' involvement in their children's education can have a significant positive impact on academic outcomes for students when teachers and educational administrators are dedicated to doing so. The impact of parental participation on children's performance was explored in this experiment. To investigate parental participation, this research employed a variety of measurements. It looked at a number of topics, including volunteerism, engagement at home, parent education, etc.

Given that parental engagement is a key factor in children's education, many schools are attempting to promote more parental involvement. Understanding which forms of parental participation have the most effects on children's performance is thus crucial. Additionally, it has proven effective to analyze parental participation using a variety of metrics (Khajehpour & Ghazvini, 2011). Only approximately half of the

parents in this research completed the survey (presumably the more involved ones), therefore, incorporating the behavioral measures allowed for the inclusion of a more complete picture of all the parents. The findings of this research are supposed to help parents and educators better understand how certain types of parental participation impact children's performance (Mahlaela, 2021).

However, this synthesis emphasizes the potentially significant role that families and communities can play in supporting schools when governments cannot provide the necessary resources to improve education systems. As was noted in Kelsey et al. (1998)'s review, parental involvement cannot substitute for the minimum level of school quality. Because they have limited experience with parenting programs or have had bad experiences with school-family contacts that are often centred on the interests of the school rather than the parents, many parents today struggle with the idea of parental engagement and its advantages (Robin, 2021). Additionally, there are relatively few explicit definitions of parental responsibilities in education, and many of them are not rigorously enforced by the government (Jhang & Lee, 2018). This research highlights the need to further our knowledge of family-school connections in developing countries with implications for practice and policy, and analyze parental engagement using more context-relevant frameworks.

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