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ACHIEVEMENT GAP WITH LATINO MALES

A MASTER'S THESIS SUBMITTED TO FACULTY OF BETHEL UNIVERSITY

BY MATTHEW CARUSO

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF REQUIREMENTS

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WHAT ARE THE MAIN FACTORS THAT CAUSE THE ACHIEVEMENT GAP WITH
LATINO MALES

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MAY 2020

APPROVED

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ABSTRACT

This literature review reviews the literature of 30 studies completed in the last twenty years that examine barriers for Latinx youth, their parents, and their learning communities (student, parent, teacher, etc). The achievement gap for Latino males is growing in the U.S. while simultaneously the population of the Latinx community grows. Researchers are finding unique responses in the Latinx community in terms of perceived barriers by all learning communities (White, black, other...). Their uniqueness is they trend to higher and lower than the rest of sample data, or Latino males will have different responses than latina females, where non-Latino responses are different. This thesis will discuss four specific factors that impact Latino males academic achievement: Language Barriers, Student School Connection, Family Influence, and Student Mobility. Followed will be discussions on implications, limitations, and applications of the research.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

In 1964, The Civil Rights Act was passed in Congress and a provision required that within two years, the Commissioner of Education must report to the President and Congress any “concerning lack of availability of equal educational opportunities for individuals by reason of race, color, religion, or national origin in public institutions. (Dickenson 2016). In 1966, a Johns Hopkins University sociologist in 1966 locked himself into a room in a motel in D.C. The sociologist was Jim Coleman and what he created in that year in the motel was the Coleman report. This report was a genesis of study into educational disparities and the data behind what is causing them. The Coleman report pioneered the studies in this thesis 35-55 years later.

In 2012, the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) reported student achievement much like the Coleman report of 1966. The achievement gap between Latino males and their White counterparts in the last 20 years has slightly narrowed overall in the U.S. in both math and reading. However, in the last several years, the narrowing has stopped or, in some states, has widened. Between 2000-2005, the achievement gap of Latino males narrowed by 10 points in reading scores, and six points in mathematics scores while both White and Hispanic males tests scored improved over that time. Since 2005, test scores continued to improve although there was only a narrowing of the gap by one point in both math and reading. (Vanneman...2012).

This literature review will be focused on the factors that continue to keep the gap static. In some of the studies, they will discuss research and then recommendations on how to address barriers. All the studies were completed between 2000-2019, and peer reviewed. All articles

were located on EBSCO HOST and ERIC database, along with SAGE database for scholarly articles.

Definition of Terms

Self-efficacy: An individual's judgment of their ability to successfully perform a behavior (Burrell, Allan, Williams, Johnston 2018).

Homeless/Highly Mobility: Criteria for HHM status were based on the language of the McKinney Vento legislation, reauthorized in 2001 as Title X of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (2002). Children qualified as HHM if they lived in any of the following conditions: (a) in a shelter, motel, vehicle, or campground; (b) on the street; (c) in an abandoned building, trailer, or other inadequate accommodation; or (d) doubled up with friends or relatives because they could not find or afford housing. (Cutuli, Desjardins, Herbers, Long, Heistad, Chan, Masten 2012).

Tino's Theory of Student Departure: Vincent Tinto (1993) identifies three major sources of student departure: academic difficulties, the inability of individuals to resolve their educational and occupational goals, and their failure to become or remain incorporated in the intellectual and social life of the institution. Tinto's "Model of Institutional Departure" states that, to persist, students need integration into formal (academic performance) and informal (faculty/staff interactions) academic systems and formal (extracurricular activities) and informal (peer-group interactions) social systems. (Astin, Baird, Metzner, Birnbaum, G., L., Bolman, ... Voorhees. 1980).

Machismo: a strong sense of masculine pride : an exaggerated masculinity.

Familismo: a strong sense of identification with, and loyalty to, nuclear and extended family. It also includes a sense of protection of familial honor, respect, and cooperation among family

members. Through these values, individuals place their family's needs over their own personal desires and choices (Antshel, 2016).

Guiding Question

The guiding question for this thesis is as follows: “What factors contribute to the achievement gap of Latino male students in the United States?”

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, the different factors that contribute to the achievement gap will be discussed. Chapter II is organized by specific factors. The four factors I will be focusing on are language barriers, student school connection, family influence, and student mobility. Each factor will be explained and supported by studies and literature.

Language Barriers

Poza, Brooks, and Valdes (2014) emphasize the role of the family in positive academic outcomes, a factor that we will focus on in a later portion of the thesis. In their study, they focused on the impact of the lack of parent involvement in the San Francisco Bay area. They were already working on the premise that less involvement causes negative academic outcomes; they were in the search of “Why?” In the suburb where the study was conducted, 65% of the population was identified as Latino (Poza, Brooks, Baldes, 2014). The study focused on 1st generation parents, and used the “snowball” or “chain of referral” method to find participants. There were 24 total participants in the study. Participants were interviewed numerous times to collect data. The study used probing questions about the parent involvement in the school around communicating with teachers, presence at the school, and helping children with homework. Participants also discussed other aspects including community involvement, family in the area, and philosophies on parenting. The data from the questions were grouped into three categories: asking questions, attending, and altering/augmenting. Asking questions refers to communication parents have with school leaders pertaining to their child’s academic progress. Attending is gauging the presence of a parent at school based events. Altering/augmenting

referred to all other actions to supplement their child's academic success such as after school programs or sports (Poza, Brooks, Baldes, 2014).

Results were very clear in this study. The main obstacles were language barriers, time constraints, and financial resources. Often at parent teacher conferences, students had to translate for their parents. This translation also included correspondence like e-mail, phone calls, and exchanges at events. Some flyers sent home were in Spanish, but not all. Parents at times did not know when events were occurring. For some, the events would not be understood so they avoided them (Poza, Brooks, Baldes, 2014). Clearly, language barriers impacted the parent involvement which negatively impacted academic outcomes.

Portes and Zady (2002) approached the achievement gap of Hispanic students through the lens of a language barrier. Articles clearly explain that academic learning in a different language, even with support, is a disadvantage for students compared to their peers that don't need the support or are fluent in that language. Portes and Zady (2002) dug a little deeper into the psychology of students, specifically the students' self-esteem and depression caused by the language/cultural barrier. Studies of students with low self-esteem or depression perform academically worse than their peers who do not experience these barriers (Portez & Zady, 2002).

The total number of students that participated in the study was 5264 in the Miami, Fort Lauderdale, and San Francisco area. Participants in the study were either students who were foreign born or had at least one student foreign born. The study was limited to students in the 8th and 9th grade as many students with lower achievement drop out after their 8th and 9th grade year.

The study collected data with a survey and used academic records for the students. Variables used from school records also included English proficiency and other demographic data. Measures were taken to identify self esteem, depression, and familism. Several pre-existing studies like FAMSCA and other proven assessments were used to determine the degree of the students. Factors that the study measured included peer relationship numbers, how much television (media) was being watched, and discrimination experienced. The factors were measured specifically with levels of self-esteem and depression (Portes & Zady, 2002).

The Portes and Zady (2002) study did not follow the original model. The original model had specific predictors of self-esteem and depression that would cause poor academic achievement. The inverse was found instead. Students that considered themselves bilingual had higher levels of self-esteem and less depression compared to those who were fluent in only one language. To summarize, Portes and Zady did not see a significant difference in self-esteem and depression of students that only knew English or the language spoken at home; however, academic performance reflected differently. The theme that arises is that students without a language barrier performed academically better than those that did not.

Elvia and Johnson's study in 2006 reinforces the fact that language can be a barrier for students. In their study, 275 students from North Carolina were evaluated. They were both middle and high school students, grades 7-12th. Student questionnaires were used across 10 different counties. Students that self-identified as Latino were part of the sample used for the analysis. The questionnaire was only 22 questions long and on average took about 30 minutes to complete. The questions were guided by perceptions and needs/barriers for the student, school involvement, level of support, and life goals and aspirations. Open ended questions were coded

to collect the qualitative data and organized into four categories: Acculturation, Academic Aspirations, Perceived Level of Engagement, and Perception of School Environment (Elvia, Johnson, 2006). We will focus on acculturation.

Elvia and Johnson (2006) define acculturation as language preference and years in the United States. They emphasize results varying from high acculturation rates showing improved academic success to very little acculturation rates showing some success. Elvia and Johnson explain that other factors could influence high achievement with little acculturation, like Spanish immersion schools or schools that do not require education in English. Results in their study were interesting. In general, the students did not report a high level of barriers; violence (19%), drugs (17%), and discrimination (11%). Over 50% of the students reported high career aspirations or careers that involve post-secondary education. Students that reported low acculturation levels reported higher in discrimination. They also reported lower attendance, and significantly less parental involvement in the school. Students that had low acculturation had higher aspirations to do well in school; however, they were lower in going to college or high career aspirations. Overall, lower rates of English language preference is creating a barrier for students to see themselves successful academically, and it is impacting their academic success.

Student School Connection

Marrero (2016) summarizes several barriers specific to Latino students. She focuses on three barriers: Parental Engagement in Education, Culturally Competent School Personnel, Home and School Partnerships. Marrero extrapolates themes throughout the research of 30 different studies. While discussing the barrier of parental engagement in education, she uses the study from Shultz and Rubels “A Phenomenology of alienation in highschool: The experiences

of five male non-completers” to explain the strained relationships with school personnel, causing students not to complete highschool. Her paper is hyperfocused on the fact that students lacking school connections is detrimental to Latino male academic success. The following studies will explain in more depth.

Huerta and Garza (2014) explain that Latino students have challenges when stepping into the doors of their educational institution. Schools are mainstream focused, which translates to White English speaking students and their culture. Bilingualism isn't seen mainstream as a “linguistic capital” but rather a challenge to some educators. This dissonance between what Latino students experience at school compared to home. Many studies value eliminating this dissonance by teacher and administrative efforts through embracing culture in the classroom. Garza and Huerta (2014) call the elimination of dissonance the relevance of caring. The focus of their study is to measure the relevance of caring with Latino students using qualitative data.

Huerta and Garza (2014) completed their study of 377 Latino (male and female) students from a large suburban high school in Central Texas. The demographics were split 50/50 on gender. 134 students were freshman, 98 were sophomores, 57 were juniors, and 88 were seniors. Defining “caring” behaviors was a challenge. Huerta and Garza used a 28 item survey and determined which items students saw as “caring.” Results were interesting and different between male and female students. The top response “shows me an attitude that makes me feel comfortable in class” where the female top response was “prepares me for tests.” In the discussion portion of the results, other items that were at 80% or above selected by students were grouped into four categories that Huerta and Garza (2014) describe as validating student worth, individualizing academic success, fostering positive engagement, and validating Latino agency.

Huerta and Garza (2014) concluded that many of the findings are similar to Latino and White males when it comes to classroom instruction and helps with content; however, the focus on the relationship which is cultured through caring, is significantly more important to Latino males.

Another study, “Effects of Perceived Teacher Practices on Latino High School Students’ Interest, Self-Efficacy, and Achievement in Mathematics“ (2013), explains “Research suggests that the role a teacher plays is particularly critical when students are at risk as a result of poverty or prior academic failure”(pg. 52). A high percentage of Latino students fall into this category. Her focus in the study is motivation and teacher-related contextual variables and student achievement. Risconscete (2013) further broke down motivation into self-efficacy and student interest. She also broke down teacher-related contextual variables into four categories: Teacher Caring, Teacher Instructional Practices, Grade Level Differences, and Individual Differences (teachers).

Riconscente’s (2013) study examines the effects of perceived teacher caring, subject-matter explanations and interest, self-efficacy and achievement promotion of students. Riconscente’s sample group is 326 9th and 10th graders in an urban high school in California. Of the 326 students, 85% were Latino. Of the Latino group, 43% were male, 57% were female. The study only used this portion of the sample.

The students were given a survey with questions that correlate with motivation and teacher-related variables. There were multiple variables in this study. If a teacher was determined to be caring, the following items had a correlation in response: Caring teachers are positively correlated with promotion and self-interest in the content, which increases student interest (student interest positively correlates with achievement). Caring teachers are positively

correlated with effective explanations which positively correlate with student achievement. Caring teachers are positively correlated directly with student achievement.

The study's discussion continued on to explain that teacher interest did not correlate with self-efficacy. The majority of data aligns with previous studies with non-Latino. The unique positive correlation is the pathway of caring leading to self-efficacy. This means that being perceived as a caring teacher has a significant impact on Latino students where it is less significant with non-Latino males.

In school, there are more than just teachers that can establish a connection with a student; administrators, coaches, support staff, and counselors are great resources too. In the study *Culturally Responsive School Counseling for Hispanic/Latino Students and Families*; the authors go beyond the teacher connection and include the counselor connection (Smith-Adcock, Daniels, Lee, Villable 2006). The authors go on to explain that "Culturally responsive school counseling programs for Hispanic/Latino children and adolescents are critical because Hispanics/Latinos traditionally have not performed as well in school as their White peers." (p. 96). In this study, a thirteen item questionnaire was sent out collecting data to determine cultural barriers to schooling. The purpose of the study is to determine the gaps in services provided to what the students and their families need. There were 242 participants through different school districts in Florida, all students being Hispanic. The results unanimously reported a great need for Spanish speaking counselors. This was discussed in the Language Barriers section of this paper, but the reason they need Spanish speaking counselors is to connect the students and the students' families with the services they need the most to be successful.

Another study that supports school connection is “A Peer-Led High School Transition Program Increases Graduation Rates Among Latino Males” (Johnson, Simon, Mun 2013). This study focuses on the connection of peers, rather than teachers, administrators, or other school staff. Johnson, Simon, and Mun (2013) explain

It has been found that students who begin the process of transition to high school with higher levels of attachment to a prosocial norm environment may be protected from a variety of negative outcomes (Dedmond, 2006). By the time they reach freshman year, more than half of our high school students are chronically disengaged from school (pg.186).

The Johnson, Simon and Mun (2013) study, focused on 268 students from a Mid-Atlantic urban school. The groups were 92% Hispanic. Faculty led 16 senior student leaders to have peer meetings with the 268 students for their freshman year. The program is called for the breakdown. Half the students were measured under the control group, so each student leader had 12 freshmen to support. The peer group sessions that occurred throughout the year included teamwork, academic skills, and social skills exercises. Many of the same skills were learned in the classroom; however, the peer group sessions provided a more personal and connective space for the freshmen to learn. The results with the female students had no correlation to the graduation rate. Among the Latino males, there was a significant positive correlation. Male students that were part of the program had a graduation rate of 81% vs the control group. The average graduation rate for Latino male students that year in the U.S. was 49%. The connection of their peer leaders improved their academic success significantly.

Kent, Jones, Mundy and Isaackson (2017) wrote that a “lack of real world connection to the curriculum and engagement to the curriculum” were significant reasons Hispanic males drop out of school. In their study, they examined Tinto’s theory of institutional departure by surveying students that dropped out of a Texas school up to the year 2011. 473 students were solicited for the research and 76 students responded. That is a rate of 16%. Other factors were considered once the responses were collected including age of students, special services they received that included ESL and or special education programs. For 76% of this group English was their first language.

Quantitative data was collected by making statements to the sample population questions that pertained to three variables: engagement in the classroom, real-world connection to curriculum, positive relationships with staff members (Kent Jones, Munday, Isaackson, 2017). Statements were measured on a 1-4 scale, one being strongly disagree, 2, somewhat disagree, 3, Somewhat agree, four strongly agree. A sample statement such as “Classes taught things I needed in real life” was grouped under real-world connection. “The lessons taught in my class held my attention” was grouped under engagement in the classroom. “I could talk to my teachers” was grouped under positive relationships with staff members. The summary of the results show that the students that have dropped out responded very low in the areas of real-world experience and engagement in the classroom. The authors summarized that a significant reason Hispanic students drop out is because the students are bored with content and do not see a point in learning it.

In another study, Pearsall and Walker (2012) examined why Latino students were significantly underrepresented in Advanced Placement classes. The genesis of this research

occurred because of a grant in 2000 that encouraged teachers from all levels of education to meet for a week-long workshop. At the end of this workshop many of the teachers explained that a deeper understanding of the issues needs to be researched. Pearsall and Walker (2012) set out to find the factors that inhibit and encourage students to enroll in AP classes. They focused their research on the following four questions:

1. What policy factors inhibit Latino student access to AP coursework at the high-school level as perceived by Latino high-school students and their parents?
2. What policy factors encourage Latino student access to AP coursework at the high-school level as perceived by Latino high-school students and their parents?
3. What academic factors are identified by high-school Latino students and their parents as inhibiting or encouraging Latino student access to AP coursework?
4. What sociocultural factors are identified by high school Latino students and their parents as inhibiting or encouraging Latino student access to AP coursework?

Pearsall and Walker's (2012) research had participants from two different pools totaling 1300 students from a district of 13800 students in the western United States. Both pools have the following criteria: students have been in school their entire school career (no gaps), are a junior or a senior with Latino surname, and earned a C or better in all freshman and sophomore classes. The differences between pool one and pool two were that pool one had students that enrolled in AP coursework, pool two were not enrolled, however eligible. The way the students were investigated were single session focus groups and one on one sessions with participating

teachers. The focus group sessions were one hour and the one on one session were also an hour, done before or after school. These sessions would include parents. There were non-English speaking parents only sessions that lasted two hours.

Focusing on the 3rd factor that inhibits students from AP classes, Pearsall and Walker discover many of the students and parents did not understand why a student would take AP courses if they do not see college as an option. Their study shows that three in four Latino students having academic success in early education thought they would fail AP coursework. The students also did not feel comfortable in classes where they were the “only brown kid in class” or classified as “school Mexican or becoming White.” The students and parents lacked the school connection to overcome these obstacles for AP classes. If you propagate this barrier to a student who experiences significantly less academic success, staying in school would be extremely challenging.

Another example of school connection is Garrett, Gonzalez, and Velez’s (2010) study. The study is focused more on the positive outcomes of Latino achievement. They attempt to find what causes success within Puerto Rican males and the specific factors that are driving their high achievement. In a midwestern city school district of 1500 students, the focus was on the students that had a 3.0 GPA or higher, were either in 11th or 12 grade (many Puerto Ricans students will drop out in 9th and 10th grade), enrolled in at least one AP class, and at no point dropped out of high school. Three students met this criteria. The school itself is considered successful; 70% of the school continued education at a post secondary school even though 55% of the population falls below the poverty line. The school also offers many AP classes.

In-depth interviews were used to collect the data. Each student received three interviews spaced three weeks apart. Each session of interviews were grouped specifically: life history interview, details of experience interview, reflection on the meaning interview. Questions and answers were coded into eight different areas: academic orientation, academic support, peer influence, teaching characteristic, family involvement, aspiration, identity, and race or gender reference (Garrett, Gonzalez, Velez, 2010). The results showed that there were several factors for positive academic outcomes: mother and sister relationships, strong Puerto Rican identity, and religious and extracurricular activities. The one that trended on all students' surveys was caring teachers. Specifically, they defined the caring teacher as “individuals who were interested in getting to know them on a personalized basis, who could be trusted to talk about their personal problems and seek advice, and who would hold them to high academic expectations” (pg. 111).

Vega, Moore and Miranda's (2015) study asks both African American and Latino students what barriers keep them from positive education opportunities. This study does not isolate Latino students like most of the studies of this paper. In this study, the team used six different schools in a Miami area school. The school district had over 51,000 students. The demographics of the school district was 60.9% Black, 27.4% White, 5.9% Hispanic, 3.7% multi-racial, 1.9% Asian, and .2% American Indian. 81.1% of the school was economically disadvantaged. The six participating schools on average were similar to the entire district. Graduation rates for the six schools ranged from 49.6% to 71%.

The goal of the study was to collect very detailed information instead of more generalized data asked by a larger sampled group. The sample was 18 African American and Latino students

for this study. The method of data collection was surveys for demographics data, data provided from the school in academic performance, and recorded and transcribed interviews. Open ended questions were used during the interviews. An example of a question would be “ If you could change anything about your school, what would it be?” and “When selecting your courses, who helps you the most with making those decisions?” Each interview lasted about 35-45 minutes.

The results were clear. Half of the students reported that they would change their teachers. Specifically, changing to teachers that cared. The students explained “teachers aren’t involved. They put information on the board then moved on” (Vega, Moore, Miranda, 2015) Another trend found was little help from counselors. Specifically, they either didn’t know who they were, didn’t know what they did, or when they did help, they gave them generic answers for graduation instead of programs that were available. The study continues to show that school connection is key to student success, and barriers to that connection result in failure.

Becerra (2012) made the effort to identify the barriers of Latino students. In his study, he focused on the perceptions of barriers for success of Latino students compared to their White peers. For example, the perception of ‘Latino students being a behavioral problem’ could self-fulfill with Latino students. Becerra made a study based on the perception of adults and their attitude towards education. The study uses data from the Pew Hispanic Center between the date of August 7th and October 15th 2003. Questions that include demographics, self assessment of language proficiency and income were included. There were a total of 3,421 total participants, with 1508 self-identifying as Hispanic. 63% of the participants identified as being Mexican descent. 56% of the participants were women (44% men). 55% of the family’s total

income was below \$35,000 (Becerra, 2012). The survey used to question the participants had six statements and a three level grading scale: not a reason, minor reason, major reason. The six statements are as follows:

- The school is often too quick to label Latino kids as having behavior or learning problems.
- Schools that have mostly Latino students have fewer good teachers.
- Too many White teachers don't know how to deal with Latino kids because they come from different cultures.
- Because of racial stereotypes, teachers and principals have lower expectations for Latino students.
- Too many Latino parents neglect to push their kids to work hard.
- Latino students have weaker English language skills than White students.

Results varied based on the different factors (Becerra 2012). Older participants felt the least significant barrier was “too many Latino parents neglect to push their kids to work hard.”

Participants that had "higher levels of language affluency" believe that “too many Latino parents neglect to push their kids to work hard.” Participants with higher income levels thought that “The school is often too quick to label Latino kids as having behavior or learning problems” and “Too many White teachers don't know how to deal with Latino kids because they come from different cultures.” The results only had one theme where both participants could agree. That is the “too many White teachers don't know how to deal with Latino kids because they come from different cultures.” Most participants considered this perceived barrier in all demographics of

participants for either a minor reason or a major reason. Becerra's study is another example of student to school connection impacting Latino male academic outcomes.

Covarrubias and Stone (2014) worked on another study to specifically address the achievement gap of Latino males. They explained that Latino male educators make up less than 2% of all teachers and so Latino male students lack role models to model academic achievement. They continue to explain that the majority of their role models are not academic focused. Academic achievement is feminine, and machismo causes them to resist academics. A few examples given are potential rap and pop stars or family adults that focus on work. They followed up with the study and focused on the theme of self-monitoring. They describe self-monitoring as the "controlled projected self-image to an extent that regulating one's behavior in order to fit different situations."

In Arizona, 265 White students and 148 Latino students participated and would receive credit. Of the White students, 192 were female, 73 were male. Of the Latino students, 105 were female and 43 were male. All students complete a survey using a questionnaire packet. Their goal was to measure self-monitoring to student achievement. They used an 18-item scale from Snyder, a previous study defining self-monitoring from 1987. An example of the question would be "I am not the person I appear to be" or "I have considered being an entertainer." The responses were on a scale of strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Student achievement was defined by SAT score.

Covarrubias and Stone (2014) hypothesized that the higher the self-monitoring, the higher the achievement. The results were mixed. We find that White males have an inverse relationship. The higher the self-monitoring level was, the lower the SAT scores. White females

had a very little correlation, but was not an inverse relationship. Female Latino has a stronger correlation. Latino males had a significant correlation. For example, a female student with a measured self monitoring level of three equated to an estimated 510 SAT. A level four was about 550 SAT score. For male Latino students, a level three is a 510 score, however at a level 4, they are estimated at a 660 SAT score. This study furthers emphasizes the need for role models so that Latino males self-monitoring can have a positive academic impact.

As discussed in the previous study, Clark, Flores, Ponjuan, Orrock, Wilson (2013) explain that barriers exist to Latino male academics success. In their study, they leveraged the knowledge of administrators and counselors to approach learning barriers in the areas of support. Although the authors recognize the bias in the support staff and not being either the parents of Latino students or Latino students themselves, they have a unique view on barriers that many other observers may miss. The study occurred in the southeastern state of the U.S. that currently has a growing Latino population. There were a total of six high schools, a community college, and one research intensive university. The county has both suburban and rural areas, with free and reduced lunch is higher than 55%. The participants in the study were 14 counselors, administrators, and education leaders from highschools, community college, and university. The demographics of the study were nine men and five women. Of the men, three were Latino, two were black, four were White. Of the women, four were White and one was latina.

The participants were interviewed for 45 minutes (Clark, Flores, Ponjuan, Orrock, Wilson, 2013). The phenomenology, or the research of life experiences, was used in the interviewing process. The goal of the study was to understand their responses in depth and richness. The interviews were transcribed and graduated students coded and grouped responses

to identify patterns. The guidance of these questions were focused on Latino barriers, recalling participants' actual experiences that Latino's faced while pursuing positive educational outcomes.

The team of graduate students were able to group their responses into two main groups/barriers: Impact of Peers and Mentoring and Role of Family Influence (Clark, Flores, Ponjuan, Orrock, Wilson, 2013). All participants mentioned that support programs for Latino males did not exist. There were programs that existed for any underrepresented, however nothing for solely for Latino students. They continued to explain that very few programs are designed for Latino populations. They provided examples of programming classes and other classes that do not include much Latino culture. They continued by discussing that peers of Latino males students seemed to have a significant impact and decisions based on academic achievement. The participants became self-aware that because of lack of role models, lack of programming, and lack of positive peer influence many Latino males were destined to have poor academic outcomes. They concluded that even though they do not know yet what programming is needed, they know there is a gap and feel strongly that some mentoring and peer mentoring programs through school would be significantly beneficial.

Good, Masewicz, and Vogel (2010) went on a fact finding study to discover what are barriers for English language learners besides language. In their study, they selected teachers and parents only in rural school districts in the Rocky Mountain regions to participate in focus groups (Good, Masewicz, Vogel 2010). The parents had students that were English language learners. Data used were transcripts and data around supports for students provided by the district. The qualitative data is the focal point of the study.

The authors of the study used a district that had over 2500 students, 63% which identified as hispanic. 36% of the total students were identified as ELL by the district. The participants were the parents and teachers of these students. The students had to be a student in the district for at least one year. Teacher had to be in the district for a minimum of three years. The final test group ended with eight teachers and eight parents.

The participants were part of a 90-min focus group type interview. The study was explained to the participants and the goal to understand better barriers. The focus group leader reread transcripts from other focus groups and let each person respond individually to their own perceived barrier (Good 2010). The study offered trends from the data. five items stood out the most for teachers and parents: communication gaps, culture clash, lack of systemic ELL plan, lack of teacher preparedness in multiculturalism, lack of support systems for transitioning families. All teachers and parents participants agreed that the all district teachers should learn the impact of culture on teaching and learning. The current English only approach to language did not provide enough time for students to grasp the new concepts (Good 2010). They all agreed that administrators and teachers understand more about the culture. That lack of connection is detrimental to the student outcomes.

As discussed in the previous study, Clark, Flores, Ponjuan, Orrock, Wilson (2013) explain that barriers exist to Latino male academics success. In their study, they leveraged the knowledge of administrators and counselors to approach learning barriers in the areas of support. Although the authors recognize the bias in the support staff and not being either the parents of Latino students or Latino students themselves, they have a unique view on barriers that many other observers may miss. The study occurred in the southeastern state of the U.S. that currently

has a growing Latino population. There were a total of six high schools, a community college, and one research intensive university. The county has both suburban and rural areas, with free and reduced lunch is higher than 55%. The participants in the study were 14 counselors, administrators, and education leaders from highschools, community college, and university. The demographics of the study were nine men and five women. Of the men, three were Latino, two were black, four were White. Of the women, four were White and one was latina.

The participants were interviewed for 45 minutes. The phenomenology, or the research of life experiences, was used in the interviewing process. The goal of the study was to understand their responses in depth and richness. The interviews were transcribed and graduated students coded and grouped responses to identify patterns. The guidance of these questions were focused on Latino barriers, recalling participants' actual experiences that Latino's faced while pursuing positive educational outcomes.

The team of Clark, Flores, Ponjuan, Orrock, Wilson (2013) were able to group their responses into two main groups/barriers: Impact of Peers and Mentoring and Role of Family Influence. All participants mentioned that support programs for Latino males did not exist. There were programs that existed for any underrepresented, however nothing for soley for Latino students. They continued to explain that very few programs are designed for Latino populations. They provided examples of programming classes and other classes that do not include much Latino culture. They continued by discussing that peers of Latino males students seemed to have a significant impact and decisions based on academic achievement. The participants became self-aware that because of lack of role models, lack of programming, and lack of positive peer influence many Latino males were destined to have poor academic outcomes. They concluded

that even though they do not know yet what programming is needed, they know there is a gap and feel strongly that some mentoring and peer mentoring programs through school would be significantly beneficial.

Family Influences

Family influences can be a myriad of different factors. The family dynamic, the level of familism in each family, male mentors in the family, the level of education in the family, the parent involvement at home and at the school. We'll be reviewing literature that explains the barriers of many of these family influences.

Marschall (2006) determined that there are several factors that cause an achievement gap. Poverty, school segregation, lack of bilingual programs or other factors. What was interesting was that there were reasons that students showed success in spite of these factors. She assumed that if more school representation was available that outreach to parents would improve and then improve student achievement in spite of all these other factors. Marschall's study focuses on effects of parent involvement in urban schools that support heavy Latino populations with guidance from the following three research questions: What are schools doing to support parents, How effective are schools fostering parental involvement, Do schools perform better with more effective parent involvement practices?

Marschall (2006) study was conducted in Chicago, in a single school district. Latino's reported to be 46.5% foreign born or family from Mexico. The Chicago area was identified as a good area to conduct the study. Data was also pulled from multiple sources for analysis. Data was pulled from the Chicago school district along with the LSC (Local School Council), along with the additional surveys from Marschall research. A total of 370 full observations occurred

(participants) She conducted a survey for each of the research questions; the following details would be the study to answer the research question “Do schools perform better with more effective parent involvement practices?”

The measure used for academic achievement was the ISAT tests in reading and math. The study broke down results into three different groupings to eliminate bias: School size, elementary or not, and school type (magnet, charter, or selective enrollment). Since these factors may contribute an increase or decrease in test scores, the additional grouping was put in place to remove those variables. In all three groups, higher levels of parents involvement had a significant impact on the students academic achievement. What was found more interesting is the positive effect on students' math performance more than reading. Language barriers may have been a factor in their difference between math and reading; however the study was conclusive that parental involvement significantly impacts the academic outcome of student achievement.

Another study by Vera, Heineke, Carr, Chamacho, Israel (2017) continued to support the Marschall study in 2017. They explain that

Parental educational involvement has been widely studied as one of the most important predictors of school success for all students (Jeynes, 2003, 2007, 2011; Niehaus & Adelson, 2014). Regardless of age, children with more involved parents tend to have higher attendance, achievement levels, and more positive attitudes toward school than children whose parents are less involved (pg. 1).

The journal focuses on identifying factors that both facilitate and prohibit home-based and school based educational involvement of English Learning (EL) families that attended Catholic schools. The purpose was to discover how immigrant families can be more successful by being provided the concise support (Vera, Heineke, Carr, Chamacho, Israel (2017)).

The study originally focused on all EL students, however 76% of EL students in the US are Spanish speaking, with a higher percentage at Catholic Schools being Spanish speaking. The study changed the focus to Spanish Speaking families to analyse more specific commonalities (Vera, Heineke, Carr, Chamacho, Israel 2017).

A factor determined very early is that EL parents are more likely to have less formal education as their non-EL peers. EL students also have a higher likelihood to come from low-income immigrant families. The factors provided along with discrimination and family stresses put EL students at an academic disadvantage (Vera, Heineke, Carr, Chamacho, Israel (2017)).

The authors continue to discuss that EL parents have unique barriers to participating in school based activities that assist their child's success. This included poor relationships with staff and other parents, lack of English proficiency, work and child care responsibilities.

The authors found 329 parents among 13 private schools in a midwestern urban environment for the study. Originally 1851 surveys were sent out, meaning there was an 18% response rate. The parents were surveyed using the Family Involvement Questionnaire. The questions assessed involvement and what promotes involvement from parents. It also asked questions pertaining to why they wouldn't be involved and what aspirations they have for their child (Vera...2017).

The authors concluded several factors that affected parent involvement in their child's education that were statistically significant: feeling that teachers are invested in their child, feeling encouraged to be involved by the teachers, feeling overwhelmed by other obligations. These three factors cause less involvement with their child's education, which lowers their likelihood of academic success.

Garcia and Fasules (2017) explain that students with parents that have completed post-secondary education have a higher likelihood to graduate. They were part of a Georgetown effort to close the gap in Colorado's labor needs. Between the years of 2010-2015, they pulled data to highlight the gap and what were the causes. All data was provided by the Colorado Department of Higher Education. The article did not provide any additional data collection process besides data that is collected by the state of Colorado. They continued to explain that they are much more likely to enter the workforce without highschool degrees, perpetuating a cycle for the next generation.

Cooper (2011) explains that closing the achievement gap starts at home. In her report, she explains that immersion and practice are key to success and they do not happen at home. Her focus was that English was not a priority at home. "Six in 10 young Latinos say their parents often encourage them to speak Spanish, and less than half of Older Latinos say the same." She explains that numbers aren't adding up because 97% of Latino families value education as important, yet only 24% of Latino youth plan to have a bachelor's degree. The study she completed was limited, referencing the study by Zarate. Cooper (2011) frequently refers to the work of Dr. Zarate and her data from the study "Understanding Latino Parental Involvement

in Education: Perceptions, Expectations, and Recommendations" to help her come to some of her conclusions.

Much like Cooper's study, Zarate's (2007) study starts her focus where Latino students are overrepresented in low-skill service sector jobs. She attributes overrepresentation to the Latino educational experience which is often shown to have lower graduation rates, low college completion rates, and substandard schooling conditions. Zarate examined the perception of parent participation in education of their children, teacher expectations of parents, what initiatives addressed parent involvement, students perception of the role of their parents in their education. In her study, she sampled from the following three cities: Miami, New York, and Los Angeles. They used a sample of size 8-10 parents of students in middle and high school. There were three groups for each city, so the range was from 72 to 90 people. The education of the sample groups had 59% not completing High School. 85% of the parents were also not born in the U.S. however have been in the U.S on average 21 years. She also interviewed 15 counselors, teachers, and administrators at 30 minutes per person.

Zarate (2007) concluded that there were significant discrepancies in what each stakeholder expected from one another; the student, the student parents, and the schools' staff. Parents expectations were focused on more generalized moral and life specific elements of the child's life with very little reference to the child's education. She continued to explain that challenges were there because of the lack of the education they had to assist with homework, language barriers when communicating with the schools expectations (conferences, report card consequences). Higher work demands or other social economic reasons limited parents to attend meetings without having financial consequences for missing work. In summary, parents felt they

were accountable for the students character and behavior, but the school would be responsible for all things academic. Zarate (2007) also continued to examine studies that showed schools that did not have strategic objectives to address these discrepancies in expectations; the discrepancies were greater. She found success when schools had specific policies that addresses help students' parents be more involved in their academic success.

Hopeless students have low academic achievement. Anxious students struggle to be successful in school. Diperro, Johnson, and Motoyanna (2017) explain that the correlation of student hopelessness is driving down student achievement. In their study, they discuss the role of family and religion as a means for increasing/decreasing hope and anxiety. Diperro, Johnson, and Motoyanna (2017) gathered data from an academically focused charter school in the midwest. The way the students were recruited for the study was through parent teacher conferences. During the conferences, parents were asked by research assistants for consent to have their student participating in their study. 75% or 153 students provided consent for the survey. Two-thirds of the 153 students were spanish speaking and were given survey forms to fill out. The survey reduced the amount to 134 students who self-identify as Hispanic/Latino, and 85% of this subgroup identified as being of Mexican descent. 55% were female and 45% were male. 95.4% had free or reduced lunch.

The method Diperro, Johnson, and Motoyanna (2017) used to collect data was an interview read aloud by researchers. Students were compensated with 5\$ gift cards after completing the interviews. Estimated time of the interview was 30 minutes. The results between religious and non-religious students followed the same trend. The higher the hope, the lower the anxiety. However the religious students were more elastic to the cause and effect. The religious

students with lower hope had significantly higher anxiety than non-religious students with the same amount of hopelessness. And the religious students with high hope and less anxiety than the non-religious students. We can formulate that we can have higher achievement with students if they are provided with hope.

Another approach to understand the family influence with Latino males can be explained with a study by Esperaza and Sanchez (2008). Esperaza and Sanchez define “familism” as “caring foremost for the welfare of the family.” They explain in their study that familism alone does have strong academic outcomes. Familism couples with parent education have a strong positive correlation with positive academic outcomes. Esperaza and Sanchez had 143 students from a school in an urban area. The school had students receiving free or reduced lunch at a rate of 85%. The graduation rate was 53%. Demographics of the 143 students were 52% female, 48% males. All students have a Latino background. 32% were first generation (parents and students were foreign-born). 51% were 2nd generation and 8% were 3rd generation. 35% of their parents had at least a high school education.

209 students were invited to participate in the study. The study was in English and Film classes that included 13 course 12. The students received a \$15.00 gift certificate. The participants were surveyed. The questions were grouped into eight categories: Demographics, Familism, acculturation, spanish language preference, perceived discrimination, parents education level, acadmic motivation, academic effort. When asked about familism with a scale of strongly agree (10) to strongly disagree (1) an example question would be “A person should cherish time spent with her or his relatives.”

Results were mixed. They found that familism was not correlated to GPA, or motivation. Parental education was not significantly correlated to any factor but academic effort. What they did conclude was that high familism had correlation with academic attendance. Coupled with a mother's education level, familism had a strong positive correlation to academic success. The study proves that if a student has a strong relationship with the family and the family has a higher level of education, the likelihood the student's academic is positive is dramatically improved. Cross, Rivas-Drake, Rowley, Waller, Ledon, and Kruger collaborate on a study that dug a little deeper into parental involvement, a factor in Latino students in academic achievement. Other studies previously discussed explain the correlation of parental involvement and how it correlates with positive academic outcomes, Cross's team discuss how documentation status is a specific barrier for student parents involvement. One in four Latinx student has one parent that is undocumented. This means four million children in the country experience the stress and fear related to the risk of having their families torn apart. (Cross, Rivas-Drake, Rowley, Waller, Ledon, Kruger, 2019) The goal of their study was to remove the additional issue of documentation status as a factor for the parents involvement in their child's education.

A survey called The Good Neighbor attempted to collect data from 487 participants. This occurred in a midwestern county in the US. Community leaders, University project researchers, leaders from the Latinx community collaborated to effectively distribute and complete the surveys. The participants included only parents that were not born in the US and had current children in the school, specifically middle and elementary school. The sample size used for study was 125 participants. A preliminary survey was used to identify the participants, and an additional survey to determine how documentation status impacted parents educational

involvement. The other measure to consider is parental involvement. The survey leaders created a measure that tracked visiting the school, speaking with school leaders, speaking with the principal, attending school sports, and attending other school events. The concern measure survey asked questions like “My legal status has limited my contact with family and friends” and “I will be reported to immigration if I go to a social or government agency.” The scale developed to answer each of the questions strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) (Cross, Rivas-Drake, Rowley, Waller, Ledon, Kruger, 2019).

Cross, Rivas-Drake, Rowley, Waller, Ledon, and Kruger (2019) explain that on average, a parent is involved about one time per month on average. Documentation status impacted 66% of the participants, and 51% felt that documentation status strongly impacted. The remainder of the questions followed the results of documentation questions, estimated that two-thirds had some impact, and about half had a significant impact. Why is this important? Parents that are in fear of being removed from their family and are not able to be as involved as other parents dramatically impact their child's academic success. It also will likely increase mobility of the students that also have dramatic negative influence on students' academic outcomes.

Nero (2010) re-emphasized the family influence as a factor in her study in 2010. The focal point of her study was to examine Latino and non-Latino parents' views of their childrens' school success and nature of their involvement (Nero 2010). She achieved this by conducting a study with 104 parents of students in an Omaha, Nebraska school district. 90% of the participants were mothers, and 71% were Latino immigrants. Almost all were 1st generation that have been in the US on average 9.14 years. Most were from Mexico, some were from Guatemala, Honduras, Paraguay, and Puerto Rico. The participants were recruited by flyers sent

home with the students. They were instructed to come to the schools' cafeteria and verbal instructions were given explaining what the questionnaire was and how to complete it.

Questions on the questionnaire were broken into categories: Views of Social and Academic Success, Parent and Other Involvement, Cultural orientation, Demographic Data, and Language Fluency. The responses were different per the category. The view of Social and Academic success were scaled on a frequency; one (almost never) and five (almost always) on behaviors of the parents. For example; Help your child with schoolwork and read with your child. Demographic obviously are more concise questions and answers; name, age, sex, etc.

Data did not show a statistically significant difference between Latino and non-Latino involvement at home. Latino parents also valued academic success higher than their non-Latino counterparts. Compared to other studies, this is counter to expectations; however the academic outcomes are different than most areas. The academic success is nearly homogeneous with non-Latino students in this school district. Emphasis of and actual at home involvement has positive academic outcomes.

A Niemeyer, Westerhaus, and Wong study in 2009 was more granular than some of the previous studies. Their approach differentiated parental involvement (school) and familismo, or strong sense of family loyalty in the Latino culture. The study was conducted on the premise that parental involvement is correlated with positive academic outcomes. However; there is ambiguity for the definition of "parental involvement" between caucasion families and Latino families. The study is to provide us data that has disambiguated the definition and 163 students participated in the study. 59% were female (41% males). 49% were from middle school and 51% from highschool. All participants were from a rural town in southeastern Idaho

(Neimeyer, Westerhaus, Wong, 2009) The study does not explain how many of the students were Hispanic or caucasian. The students were sent a questionnaire. The questions asked were focused on parental activities. For example; Hispanic students reported high on the following activities: making sure they went to bed on time for school, did their homework before bed, and did they attend school. These activities are more defined as supporting school activities, rather than be an active participant. Caucasion students reported higher areas that the schools define as “parental involvement” like attending school events, or assisting with homework.

The results met the expectation. Hispanic students reported high “at-home” involvement and Caucasion students reported “at-school” involvement. Studies concluded that both involvement improved academic outcomes from both categories, however “at-school” involvement produced better results. Barriers discussed in the study explained potential Hispanic “at-school” involvement is language barrier, education gap of the parents, and miscommunication of the definition of “parental involvement” (Neimeyer, Westerhaus, Wong, 2009). All sets of data conclude that the more the parent is involved in the child's academics, the more positive that student's academic outcomes will be.

LeFevre and Shaw (2012) supports the Neimeyer study and takes the next step. The Neimeyer study separates parental involvement in their study, while LeFevre and Shaw created a study to see the effects when both types of parental involvement occur with Latino students. LeFevre and Shaw use “Formal” and “Informal” instead of “at-school” and “at-home.” Informal parental involvement includes activities and emotional supports from home. Formal parental involvement includes activities like participating at school events, contacting the school,

The participants were selected using a national database; NELS:88. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) had this file. There were 12,000 students in the file and was reduced to students that identified as Latino. The final number was 1476 participants. This was a longitudinal study. The questionnaire used for these students focused on parent involvement at home and parent involvement at the school (formal and informal). There were questions about multiple behaviors and intervals. For example: Do you attend conferences two times per school? The measure used for academic achievement was simplified. The student either graduated from highschool on time (1) or did not graduate on time (0) (Neimeyer, Westerhaus, Wong, 2009).

The results were predicative to current studies. Both informal and formal parental involvement had a significant impact on the student's academic achievement. As predicted of the Neimeyer study, formal parental involvement had high positive academic outcomes, however in this study it was only slightly better than informal parental involvement (LeFevre...2012) This is a surprise as formal parental involvement performs significantly higher in other studies. Only $\frac{1}{3}$ of the parents were considered formally involved in the students, and of that $\frac{1}{3}$, nearly 100% of those students were informally involved in the students achievement. Coupled together had the best achievement numbers. Again; this is another example of how any parental involvement will improve student achievement.

Student Mobility

Mobility with Hispanic families is significantly higher than the average mobility of all U.S. families. From the Annual Homelessness and Assessment report (2018); 29% of homelessness families are Hispanic families, even though the population of the US that is Hispanic is 18%. I chose Hispanic families as many families will have students that participate

in public education. This means mobility and homelessness is more common among Hispanic families than non-Hispanic families.

Cutuli, Desjardins, and Herbers (2012) measured the effects of student achievement with students that are homeless or highly mobile. The measurement was longitudinal over five years in Minneapolis. The study included over 60,000 students from 3rd grade through 8th grade. The student groups were broken down into four categories: General, Reduced Lunch, Free Lunch, and HHM (homeless or highly mobile). In table 4.3 and 4.4, The math and reading test scores of HHM students were significantly lower than other student groups. In general, 8th grade students scored a 240 in math. However, HHM 8th students scored on average 208. For reading, the scores followed the same trend as general 8th grade students scored 230 and HHM 8th grade students scored 203 (Cutuli, Desjardins, Herbers 2012). Highly mobile and students that experience homelessness has a significant negative impact on their academic achievement.

Another study by Bohan and MacPherson (2004) discuss multiple barriers for Latino students in the state of Georgia. They discussed the following six barriers:

- (a) lack of understanding of the U.S. school system
- (b) low parental involvement in the schools
- (c) lack of residential stability among the Latino population
- (d) little school support for the needs of Latino students
- (e) few incentives for the continuation of Latino education
- (f) barred immigrant access to higher education (pg. 43).

In this review of the study, we are going to focus on the lack of residential stability barrier. The study itself was conducted by in-depth interviews and focus groups in six different counties.

Multi-method qualitative techniques were used to collect data. There were multiple phases when collecting data. The first phase used "Informants" for each county. The purpose was to reduce any bias for families that had concerns taking interviews. The Informants were religious workers, social workers, attorneys, policemen and other people in the Latino communities. A total of 68 informants were interviewed using McCracken's long interview format. Only 20% of this group was Latino themselves. The second phase questioned 13 focus groups. Each was about 50 people, all legal U.S. citizens. Majority of the participants were Mexican, the remaining were Puerto Rican and Cuban. The two most common roles were homemakers (22) and farm workers (30). About 20% had attended college and 87% had children. Both groups were questioned about educational adjustments they have experienced and are observing with their children (Bohan and MacPherson 2004).

Results identified an unexpected trend. Many of the population were Sojourners, people who do not intend to stay in the United States. Many of the families encouraged adolescent children to drop out of school to assist them with labor and the family. Because the effort to move back to their homeland was a higher priority, dropout rates were significantly higher and moving to where a better paying job was available was a higher priority than staying one school district to help their children grow and be academically successful. Bohan and MacPherson's (2004) study also suggested that their education was a way to get into college, and since many of the parents did not see their own children going to college, education was deprioritized and job mobility to be more important.

Gibson and Hidalgo (2009) reiterate the point that mobility among Latino families has drastic negative effects on their children's educational success. Their focus was specifically

migratory farmers of Northern California and their families. The study itself focused more on the additional support that helps overcome migrant farmers' children from dropping out of Highschool. The design of the study evaluated four years of five different highschools. The interviewed students that graduated or should have graduated. The graduation rates were high in this area with a 80% graduation rate among migrant Latino families whereas the rest of California was at 50%. The study also interviewed staff that included teachers identified as role models and counselors. They found that schools that had additional support specifically for Latino students dramatically. The specific program is called the Migrant Education Program.

LaBoeuf and Fantuzzo (2018) continue to explain the impacts of student mobility and positive academic outcomes. In their study, they focused on intradistrict mobility of students and how it impacts students' reading achievement. They explain that “school mobility is a contributor to school disengagement that has received a substantial amount of national attention. (2018) The method was to identify students from the grades of 1st grade to 3rd grade reading achievement scores. Of the group, they would identify students that have moved in within a three year timeframe. The sample students were from a school district in Philadelphia. There were a total of 13,268 total students. 50% were male, 62% were african american, 17% were Hispanic, 14% were White, 6% were another race. (2018) The process of tracking records was to give each student a unique identification for enrollment and reading test score. If the student that was missing at any end of year snapshot but reappeared in the district was considered mobile. Any new identification at any enrollment snapshot was considered a mobile student. 39% of students in the study were identified as mobile.

They were able to measure a student that has moved once, twice, and more than two times. The results were clearly indicative of the impact of mobility on student achievement. In the first year of the study, students that had no mobility on average scored 581 on reading, students some turnover (1 time) average score was 578, and highly mobile students scored a 575. The students in their second year maintained the same trend. Students with no mobility scored a 605, students with some mobility scored 600, and highly mobile students scored on average a 596. By the third year, the gap grew. Students with no mobility on average scored a 615, students with some mobility scored 610, and highly mobile students on average test five pts less at 605 (LaBoeuf, Fantuzzo 2018).

There are gaps in the study as there are other factors that occur along with high mobility; socioeconomic factors, immigration status, family structure. However, students that lack a consistent environment for education test lower than students that are provided consistently. Student mobility is a challenge for students. Adjusting to new rules, new people, and new ways of things being achieved is an extra barrier that mobile students have to overcome.

Chapter III Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter will include the discussion and conclusion of the 30 articles reviewed in the thesis. It will include professional application and limitations and recommendations on studies to fill gaps.

Summary of Literature

The purpose of the thesis was to answer the question: What factors contribute to the achievement gap of Latino male students in the United States? The question was answered by reviewing literature on Latino male achievement. Four topics were formed: language barriers, student school connection, family influences, and student mobility.

Language barriers are a growing problem in the U.S. educational system because students that do not speak English are growing in the U.S. ELL programs are not fully adequate, and communication with parents is difficult. Students feel a lack of belonging with their teachers and some peers because of the lack of clear communication. Poza, Brooks, and Valdes (2014) emphasized that language barriers for parents limited their involvement in their child's direct academic success, causing a barrier for their child that fluent speaking students do not experience. Portes and Zady (2002) focused on the psychology of students that did not speak English in schools, their language barrier causing self-esteem issues and depression, which made academic success more difficult. Elvia and Johnson's study (2006) discussed language barrier in terms of acculturation. Students with a language issue in the school also didn't share the same goals as English speaking schools, limiting their academic success.

Student school connection is extremely important for Latino students success. A strong relationship with a teacher, coach, or at school mentor helps a student along with programs to

assist the community of the students. Marrero's paper (2016) discussed strained relationships between student and personnel increased dropout rates. Huertz and Garza's (2014) study showed that students that are mainstream focused and not embracing Latino culture turn students away from academics, impacting their success. Riconcete's study proved that self-efficacy of Latino students is dramatically impacted by teachers' ability to show that they care. Garret, Gonzalaz, and Valez's (2010) study supports Riconcete's conclusion. The impact was so much more than their White male student peers. Not only do teachers make an impact, but counselors and administrators make an impact too. "Culturally responsive school counseling programs for Hispanic/Latino children and adolescents are critical because Hispanics/Latinos traditionally have not performed as well in school as their White peers" (p. 96). The study explains the relationships both students and their families have with all aspects of school and how their school connection impacts student achievement (Smith-Adcock, Daniels, Lee, Villable 2006). Johson, Smith and Mun (2013) explained that the way student peers at school treat Latino students significantly impacts their success. Kent, Jones, Mundy and Isaakson (2017) correlate how the information at school needs to be engaging and relevant as a determining factor for whether or not students keep coming to school. Students cannot have academic success if they are not at school. The students who struggled the most in Vega, Moore, and Miranda's (2015) study stated it was because "teachers weren't involved." Becerra's (2012) study learned that the largest contributor to Latino male students barriers were perceptions that schools label Latino kids as poor behaved, students do not think they have good teachers, and administration doesn't push Latino students enough. All perceptions that damage a student and their family's connection with the school. Covarrubias and Stone (2014) discovered that having a low

percentage of Latino teachers, let alone Latino male teachers, greatly impacted the school connection and student achievement. Student peer and mentoring programs greatly impacted student success (Clark, Flores, Ponjuan, Orrock, Wilson...2013) and the lack thereof negatively impacted students' success. Good, Masewicz, and Vogel (2010) determined that the lack of cultural awareness at school created issues with families and their involvement at their school, negatively impacting student outcomes. All the studies were very clear that to improve student outcomes at a school, a school needs to improve the student and student's family connection with the school.

Family is especially important in the Latino community. Studies have shown that the perception in Latino family expectations (familism) are considered more impactful than White male student peers. This thesis explains the many different factors of family that have influence on Latino students' academic success. Marschall (2006) completed a study that explains parental involvement at the school was integral for student success. Vera, Heineke, Carr, Charmacho, and Israel study (2017) supported this conclusion. Cooper's (2011) study explained achievement starting at home. Not only is it just parental involvement, but specifically with immersion and practice of curriculum. Zarate (2007) discovered a miscommunication of expectations in her study. Parents did not understand the policies for their students and it was causing academic barriers. They remedied the situation in which the student's parents were more involved improving the academic outcomes. Eperaza and Sanchez (2008) continued to explain the family influence with their study of familism. They explained that coupled with familism, education of a parent of a student strongly impacts the academic outcome of the students. Documentation status of a student's family impacted the academic outcomes of Latino students (Cross,

Rivas-Drake, Rowley, Waller, Ledon, and Kruger, 2019). The stress of students' families being lost to immigration had a negative impact on their academic achievement. Nero (2010) identified that parental involvement equal to White male peers had equal results in academic achievement. Neimeyer, Westerhaus, Wong (2009) and LeFevre and Shaw (2009) discovered that there is a difference in what parental involvement means. They both discovered that academic, or at school/formal parental involvement, produces higher student achievement. In all of the studies, the outcomes were some iteration of a family factor and its impact on Latino male students' academic achievement.

The final factor discussed was students' mobility. Latino populations have a higher rate of mobility in the U.S. Factors could be socioeconomic status, immigration status, or other unknown factors. What this thesis successfully attempted was to explain the impact of mobility on the student. Cutuli, Desjardins, and Herbers's (2012) study determined that highly mobile students had significantly higher dropout rates and lower academic performance. Gibson and Hidalgo (2009) reiterate this factor in their study. Dropout rates in California are significantly higher with immigrant, highly mobile families. LaBoeuf and Fantuzzo (2018) explain that mobility increases disengagement of both the student and the family. Test scores were significantly lower for mobile students than less or not mobile students. Student mobility has a drastic impact on Latino male academic performance.

Professional Applications

We live in a mosaic of cultures in the U.S. As we continue to grow and become more diverse, our school, business, and economy has to change along with the pace in which it changes. Professional industries are learning that the global economy is becoming closer as

communication technology improves, as our supplier chains become more robust, and our world acculturation grows. 20 years ago, if you were going to buy a product, you look for U.S.A brands because the channels and the market encourage us to. Now, scales of production allow us more variety, quicker deliveries, and mutually beneficial global relationships. Mexico is the U.S.'s 3rd largest importer. Our economy is changing, yet the educational system is lagging behind, causing achievement gaps in education, higher education, and in the working industry.

Learning the barriers for these students and proactively eliminating these barriers is key. It can be accomplished by how we develop a school connection with students and their families. It can be achieved by eliminating the language barrier through diversifying our instruction and educational staff coupled with new technologies to allow access to curriculum in all languages, communicating clear expectations with families on how to support their students from home. We can reduce the gap by eliminating the reason for Latino families to be mobile. All would be great strategies to tear down the factors that are causing the achievement gap.

Limitations

There were limitations to the literature review. Some of the older studies may not have been as applicable in today's educational system. Limiting to only five years would have been difficult finding the literature to support the thesis. Other limitations included sample sizes and data collection in some of the studies. Many of the reporting came from Latino families that responded. Many that did not respond represent the groups of students we are attempting to research. Another limitation of research is there are more than the four factors discussed in the thesis, and very limited discussion on the outcomes of combining and measuring these factors. There is plenty more opportunity for study to improve these gaps.

Recommendations for Future Research

Longitudinal studies were very effective measuring students in areas of mobility. I find that data collection is not universally standard at the NCES. Pushback at school can be understandable as teachers are typically the data collectors in the classroom and after school hours. There are numerous opportunities to collect data. Attendance at conferences could be an effective streamline process to include parent improvement. Providing better, standardized feedback loops to parents may encourage them to improve their parental involvement. We don't know because that data is very difficult to measure. School interventions with parents are loosely measured; however, creating an easy to use system of feedback/intervention tracking could provide so much more data for research. Specifically, a recommendation for research is to analyse rigor per state and performance of the achievement gap. Minnesota has very rigorous state standards and a large Latinx population. Although Minnesota is considered one of the best in public education in the country, the Latino male achievement gap is large, growing, and has one of the highest dropout rates.

Conclusion

This thesis's goal was to identify and explain factors that contribute to the Latino male student achievement gap. The literature review provided an explanation of those factors and how they impacted student achievement. Many studies explain these factors and other factors. The research isn't done yet, and new research can replace some of the older, non-applicable studies. Students will have more success when language barriers are removed. They will narrow the achievement gap when schools strengthen their relationships with their Latino male students and their families. Dropout rates will decrease with more parental involvement, specifically

school involvement. We can reduce negative student outcomes by assisting Latino families being less mobile. These factors along with more to be discovered will close the achievement gap.

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