THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT OF HISPANIC ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS AND HIGH SCHOOL GRADE POINT AVERAGE

by

Jameka Charmaine Floyd

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Liberty University

2021

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT OF HISPANIC ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS AND HIGH SCHOOL GRADE POINT AVERAGE

by Jameka Charmaine Floyd

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA

2021

APPROVED BY:

Jeffrey S. Savage, Ed.D., Committee Chair

Tamika S. Hibbert, Ed.D., Committee Member

ABSTRACT

Parental involvement has consistently been associated with a child's academic performance. However, much less is known about the effects of parental involvement of Hispanic English language learners (ELLs) in high schools. This study addressed parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs in the high school setting where there is currently very little research. The purpose was to test the theory of overlapping spheres as it relates parental involvement to high school grade point average (GPA) of Hispanic ELLs. The research design for this study was a non-experimental, correlational design. The participants of this study were a convenience sample of parents of Hispanic ELLs from five high schools located in central North Carolina. Parents completed the Parent-Teacher Involvement Questionnaire (*PTIQ*) and student GPAs were calculated at the end of the spring semester. A multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the predictive level of each sub-scale of the PTIQ on GPA. The linear combination of predictor variables were found to be significantly related to high school GPA. Frequency of parent-teacher contact, school involvement (volunteering), and parent endorsement were also significant predictors of GPA. Day & Dotterer (2018) also found that among Hispanic adolescents, parents should use a combination of parental involvement strategies to include academic socialization, home-based involvement, and school-based involvement as it was linked to higher GPAs. Recommendations for further research include using a different instrument, using multiple reports, and combining quantitative and qualitative research, and then replicating this study in additional school districts across the United States.

Keywords: English Language Learner, Grade Point Average, Parent-Teacher Contact, Parental Involvement, Parent-Teacher Relationship, Parent Endorsement, School Involvement

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations

English Language Learner (ELL)

English as a Second Language (ESL)

Grade Point Average (GPA)

Parent-Teacher Involvement Questionnaire (*PTIQ*)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

There are many benefits for parents to get involved in the education of their children. However, not all parents participate in their child's education in a way that is satisfying to educators. This may be because parental involvement is more prevalent at different ages and in different cultural contexts. Research has shown a decline in parental involvement across middle school and high school (Bhargava & Witherspoon, 2015). Additionally, race/ethnicity and socioeconomic status can be contributed to the change in parental involvement in secondary schools (Bhargava & Witherspoon, 2015). However, much less is known about the effects of parent involvement of Hispanic ELLs in high schools. Such knowledge could be used to help school systems develop resource centers for parents to help them become more comfortable with getting involved in their child's education, which may increase student achievement of Hispanic ELLs in high schools. This chapter provides the background of the study, as well as the research problem and the significance of studying the effects of parental involvement and its correlation to the GPA of Hispanic ELLs. The research questions are proposed, and definitions are defined.

Background

There are many benefits for parents to get involved in the education of their children (Dotterer & Wehrspann, 2015; Liu & White, 2017). Dotter and Wehrspann (2015) found parental involvement to be positively associated with behavioral and cognitive engagement, which in turn contributes to academic competence and achievement. Conversely, this may also depend on parenting styles and levels of engagement. When parents have a greater level of engagement in their child's education, test scores increase and there is a lower probability of dropping out (Liu & White, 2017). However, higher levels of parental involvement and

engagement may be difficult for immigrant Hispanic parents as they experience relationships with their child's teacher and school differently from the majority of the population (Tarasawa & Waggoner, 2015). They face disadvantages in school related to cultural barriers between the school and home, as well as teacher bias and low expectations (Sibley & Brabeck, 2017). As a result, immigration to the United States may change the established process in which a family functions in a school, which can disrupt children's home life and academic performance in school (Jung & Zhang, 2016). Consequently, students may not have the same educational outcomes as they did prior to their arrival to the United States (Moon, Kang & An, 2009). Thus, schools and communities may need to help facilitate immigrant parents' positive roles in children's academic achievement in American public schools.

Traditionally, parents were responsible for educating their children. Dating back to the 19th century, children were taught by their families. This mostly continued in the United States until the mid-1940s (Comer, 1986). Beginning after World War II, in 1945, many women began leaving home to enter the workplace. Therefore, student enrollment in schools went up. Consequently, the teaching and learning processes in education were formalized and systemized, which contributed to parents becoming more disconnected from their children's education (Berger, 2008; Epstein, 1996). Although parents were no longer teaching, they could still get involved by participating in activities at school. Parents attended parent-teacher conferences and Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meetings, helped raise funds for the school, and helped monitor children. By the late 1950s, most teachers thought they should be the exclusive teachers of children, while parents would become supporters of formal education (Berger, 2008). Ultimately, parent involvement began to emerge as a major issue in public schooling, especially

among low-income families, which resulted in various parent involvement in legislative mandates.

For the past 25 years, research activity on parental involvement and the ways schools, families, and communities can get involved in the education of students has increased. There are several reasons for this growth, including low achievement scores and the increasing number of high school dropouts. Consequently, many educators and researchers learned they had to pay closer attention to the importance of involving parents and communities to help schools to be more effective and increase positive academic outcomes. Though the achievement gap has narrowed over the years, there is still a significant gap between all Hispanic students and other racial and ethnic groups of students (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). Therefore, parent, school, and community involvement is especially important, as the Hispanic population is the fastest-growing ethnic group in U.S. public schools, making up 78% of the population in the ELL program.

Day & Dotterer (2018) found that among Hispanic adolescents, parents should use a combination of parental involvement strategies to include academic socialization, home-based involvement, and school-based involvement as it is linked to higher GPAs. This suggests that Hispanic adolescents would benefit the most if their parents were more involved overall. However, these categories of parental involvement are too broad. There may be dimensions of parental involvement that have a stronger relationship with positive student outcomes for Hispanic students. Deng et al. (2017) found that frequent parent-teacher contact and the quality of the parent-teacher relationship were closely related to the academic, personal, and social development of high school students, which is the result of effective family-school partnership.

Many studies surrounding parental involvement were driven by Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, which proposes that children grow within a multi-layered system of relationships in various contexts of their environment, including the social, community, and political contexts. Five levels of relationships and contexts seen as circles on a common axis spreading outward from the child were defined as the child's involvement with home, family, and friends were thought to be important to a child's development (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). However, this theory does not depict the dynamics of changing relationships of individuals across contexts – family, school, and community – for student learning. Therefore, Joyce Epstein's theory of overlapping spheres may be a better fit for the conceptualization of parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs. This theory consists of family, school, and community represented as the three spheres, while the overlapping parts denote the partnership between the three institutions, while the child is the focus at the center (Epstein, 1987). Schools and communities may need to help facilitate immigrant parents' positive roles in children's academic achievement in American public schools.

While there is much research on the issue of parental involvement, a considerable amount of that research was conducted on elementary-aged children using a parental involvement model that was not suitable for high school families. Conversely, much of the research involving adolescents, the three-domain model of home-based involvement, school-based involvement, and academic socialization was utilized. However, each category is too broad. Educators and researchers have begun to look at the part that schools might play in assisting parents to get involved in the education of their children. Therefore, it is vital for schools, parents, and communities to develop a relationship. Increasing evidence supports the notion that the quality of these relationships does influence students' success. Consequently, there may exist dimensions

of parental involvement that have a stronger relationship with positive student outcomes for Hispanic students. This study expected to bridge this gap by examining the impact parental involvement on high school GPA of Hispanic ELLs as well as linking dimensions of parental involvement among Hispanic students. Further research was needed to uncover if certain dimensions of parental involvement contribute to higher GPA for Hispanic ELLs.

Problem Statement

Numerous studies have shown that children are more likely to have higher academic achievement levels when parents are involved in their education (Benner, Boyle, & Sadler, 2016; Day & Dotterer, 2018; Jeynes, 2007; Jung & Zhang, 2016; Ross, 2016; Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2014). However, parental involvement within the Hispanic community may be much lower, as there is a significant achievement gap between all Hispanic students and other racial and ethnic groups of students (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). The Hispanic population is the fastest-growing ethnic group in U.S. public schools, making up 78% of the population in the ELL program (around 3.6 million participating) (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017); therefore, knowing Hispanic parental involvement strategies is crucial.

A vast amount of research has also shown the different ways parents can be involved across all racial and ethnic groups and the related academic outcomes (Benner, Boyle, & Sadler, 2016; Day & Dotterer, 2018). Still, it has not been without disagreement. Day & Dotterer (2018) found that among Hispanic adolescents, parents should use a combination of parental involvement strategies to include academic socialization, home-based involvement, and school-based involvement as it is linked to higher GPAs. Yet, Benner, Boyle, & Sadler (2016) found that home-based involvement may be less critical for supporting academic performance, and Wang and Sheikh-Khalil (2014) suggested that school-based involvement may not be directly

related to student academic performance. Having broad categories such as home-based or school-based involvement conceals important distinctions of parental involvement (i.e., parent-teacher communication); therefore, it would be beneficial for researchers to assess multiple subdomains to gain a more comprehensive assessment of parental involvement (Hurley, Lambert, January, & D'Angelo, 2017). The problem is parental involvement of high school Hispanic ELLs has not been assessed using multiple dimensions of parental involvement, which is needed to get a better understanding of Hispanic parental involvement and how it relates to the high school GPA of Hispanic ELLs.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to test the theory of overlapping spheres as it relates parental involvement to the high school grade point average of Hispanic ELLs. The predictor variable was generally defined as parenting strategies or activities used at home or at school that helps to improve academic outcomes (Day & Dotterer, 2018). Parenting strategies included homework help, participating in educational-related activities at home, school-home communication, attending school activities, parent-child communication about education, and parental aspirations for their child's education. The criterion variable was generally defined as the student's grade point average earned in high school. The participants in this study were drawn from a convenience sample of ELLs and parents from five inner-city high schools located in central North Carolina during the Spring semester of the 2020-2021 school year. All participants were in either grade 9, grade 10, grade 11, or grade 12.

Significance of the Study

There were similar studies related to the issue of parental involvement and student achievement. Deng et al. (2016) found that parent-teacher partnerships, including parent-teacher

contacts and parent-teacher relationships, were directly linked to the academic, career, and personal/social development of high school students. However, their investigation was limited to only teacher reports, which warrants another study in which different or multiple reports are to be used. The current study used parent reports, and it supplements the existing body of literature on the topic of parental involvement and academic outcomes, particularly parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs. It also contributed to the literature on parental involvement because it examined the impact of parental involvement on high school GPA, as well as the linking dimensions of parental involvement among high school Hispanic ELLs. It also added to the research by demonstrating that theoretical models proposing parent-teacher partnerships, such as the theory of overlapping spheres, do benefit high school Hispanic ELLs. These partnerships assist parents in providing better support for their children because schools and communities can give parents important information (Carpenter et al., 2016).

This study is also important to schools and educators because it will help them to understand if there is a correlation between parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs and high school academic achievement. Hispanic parents experience relationships with their child's teacher and school differently from the majority of the population (Tarasawa &Waggoner, 2015). Therefore, this study will help them understand how they can do a better job in asking parents to participate through the outreach efforts they use and in being willing to provide accommodations such as interpretation services. This will help schools ensure that no family is excluded because they did not know how to get involved or just did not take the initiative to get involved—in turn, strengthening their partnerships with Hispanic families.

Research Question

The following research question intends to test the predictive relationship between parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs and high school grade point average. However, understanding the different aspects of parental involvement is needed in order to recognize the overall impact parental involvement has on a child's education.

RQ: How accurately can high school grade point average be predicted from a linear combination of parental involvement factors: frequency of parent-teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationship, school involvement (volunteering), and parent endorsement for Hispanic English language learners?

Definitions

1. *English language learners* - Individuals whose first language is not English (Jimerson, Patterson, Stein, & Babcock, 2016).
2. *Grade Point Average* – the average of all final course grades at the end of a semester, (Thayamathy, Elango, & Karunarathna, 2018).
3. *Parent Endorsement* – how pleased parents are with your school's services (Chambers & Michelson, 2016).
4. *Parental Involvement* - parenting strategies or activities used at home or at school that helps to improve academic outcomes (Day & Dotterer, 2018).
5. *Parent-Teacher Contact* - communication that links families and schools (Serpell & Mashburn, 2011).
6. *Quality of Parent-Teacher Relationship* - a child-centered connection between parents and teachers, both who share the responsibility for supporting the child's growth and development (Reschly & Christenson, 2012).

7. *School Involvement* – the in-person interactions between parents and schools, such as participating in parent-teacher meetings, volunteering in the school, and collaborating with teachers (Chang, Choi, & Kim, 2015).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

Parental involvement is a key element to student's academic achievement and has been associated with higher levels of academic performance across grade levels and racial-ethnic groups (Benner, Boyle, & Sadler, 2016; Day & Dotterer, 2018; Jung & Zhang, 2016; Ross, 2016; Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2014). Similarly, research has also shown a decline in parental involvement across middle school and high school (Bhargava & Witherspoon, 2015). Decreased parental involvement could potentially have an impact on academic achievement. Through a related literature review, the predictive relationship between parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs and high school grade point average was examined. A greater understanding of the relationship between parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs and high school grade point average was needed.

Theoretical Framework

Joyce Epstein, a pioneer in the field of parental involvement research, developed the theory of overlapping spheres of influence. She suggested that students learning is maximized when families, schools, and communities cooperate to guide and assist students in their education (Epstein, 1987, 1995, 2001; Epstein et al., 2009). One of the main concepts of the theory is that fixed goals (e.g., academic achievement) are important to families, schools, and communities, and the best way to accomplish these goals is through the support and cooperation of all three entities (Epstein, 1995). Thus, the educational success of each student is strongly affected when the three spheres work together (Epstein, 1987, 1995, 2001; Epstein et al., 2009). Epstein's family-school-community partnership model gave a practical explanation of the shared responsibilities of the school, family, and community for a child's educational accomplishments

(Epstein et al., 2009). Within this model, the three spheres of family, school, and community overlap with distinctive and shared influences on the child via the interactions of parents, teachers, community sponsors, and students across settings (Figure 2.1). The overlapping parts denote the partnership between the three institutions, while the child is the focus at the center (Epstein, 1987).

Figure 1

Epstein's Overlapping Spheres of Influences

Adapted from *Conceptualizing and Defining Family Involvement for Research: Setting New Directions*, by J.L. Epstein, 2010, http://iapr.unl.edu/videos/ppts/1_Epstein.pdf.

The model of overlapping spheres of influence has an external structure that acknowledges the child at the center as the focal point inside the family, school, and community (Figure 2.2). The overlap between the family, school, and community are the result of experiences, philosophies, practices, time, age, and grade level pulling the spheres closer together or farther apart (Epstein, 1987, 1995, 2001; Epstein et al., 2009). The degree of the overlap between family, school, and community is ever-changing; however, they never overlap entirely because each entity has different practices that do not depend on the other entities (Epstein, 1987, 1995, 2001; Epstein et al., 2009).

Figure 2

Overlapping Spheres of Influences - External Structure

Adapted from *School, family, and community partnerships: Preparing educators and improving schools* (p. 32), by J. L. Epstein, 2011, Westview Press.

The model of overlapping spheres of influence also has an internal structure that gave a practical explanation of the interpersonal relationships between school, families, and communities. There are social interactions between families, schools, and communities at the individual and institutional levels (Figure 2.3). Individual interactions involve just one parent, child, teacher, or community partner, and institutional interactions involve all families, children, educators, and the entire community (Epstein et al., 2009).

Figure 3

Overlapping Spheres of Influences - Internal Structure

Adapted from *School, family, and community partnerships: Preparing educators and improving schools* (p. 32), by J. L. Epstein, 2011, Westview Press.

For much of Epstein's work, she was concerned with what teachers and other school staff could do to generate more overlap between spheres. Using overlapping spheres of influence model, she studied middle school students and families, where she identified multiple types of parent involvement (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009). She connected her theory of overlapping influences by developing a framework of six types of parent involvement. Each type of parent involvement is linked to different activities, challenges, and possible results for students, parents, and schools. This framework benefits teachers and other staff in learning how to form a partnership that would provide students with more support. The six types of parental involvement include parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making, and collaborating with the community.

Parenting. This type of involvement comprises schools helping families to create home environments that will support children as students (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009). Activities linked to this type of involvement includes providing suggestions for home conditions,

parent workshops, family support programs, and parent education opportunities, with possible student results including good or improved attendance and a created awareness on the importance of school (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009).

Communicating. This type of involvement relates to schools creating effective forms of communication between the school and home that update parents about school programs and the students' progress (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009). Activities linked to this type of involvement includes parent-teacher conferences, newsletters, and open communication of school policies, with possible student results including students awareness of their own progress and what is needed to maintain or improve grades and an understanding of school policies on behavior, attendance, and other areas (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009).

Volunteering. Volunteering results in schools soliciting parent help and support for students and school programs (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009). Activities linked to this type of involvement include school volunteer programs that would help teachers, with possible student results, including the opportunity to receive tutoring or targeted interventions (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009).

Learning at Home. Learning at home has schools providing information and ideas to families on how they can help their children at home with school-related activities such as homework, as well as with decisions and planning (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009). Activities linked to this type of involvement includes a calendar with activities for parents at home and summer learning activities, with possible student results including a gain in skills and abilities, a positive attitude toward schoolwork, and an improved self-concept of learning abilities (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009).

Decision-Making. This type of involvement consists of schools including families in school decisions and developing parent leaders and representatives (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009). Activities linked to this type of involvement include parent participation in committees, advisory councils, and other parent organizations, with possible student results including specific benefits linked to policies (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009).

Collaborating with Community. Collaboration involves schools finding and integrating resources and services from the community to strengthen school programs, family practices, and student learning and development (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009). Activities linked to this type of involvement include providing families with information on community programs and activities that link learning skills, with possible student results including increased skills and talents through enriched curricula and awareness for future college and career options (Epstein, 1995; Epstein et al., 2009).

The research on parent involvement has acknowledged that parental involvement is an essential element in the value of a child's education. However, Epstein believes the partnership is a better word than parental involvement because now everyone recognizes that parents, teachers, and communities are all responsible for student learning development (Epstein, 1995, 2001; Epstein et al., 2009). Therefore, her model identifies how family, school, and community are related as overlapping spheres of influence that share a common interest in a child's education. The model is driven by using six key involvement types, as they are the key to a successful school, family, and community partnerships. This model and framework of parental involvement types has evolved throughout her years of working with teachers and families from all school levels (Epstein et al., 2009). Nevertheless, this framework continues to be one of the most widely referenced paradigms for parental involvement. This framework helps schools increase parental

participation, all while being able to assess outcomes so that school and parent involvement practices can be improved. It has been effective in influencing educational policies concerning parent involvement in education.

As the theoretical framework for this study of examining parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs concerning high school grade point average, the six key involvement types within the home, school, and community guided this paper. It framed the upcoming analysis of parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs and high school grade point average. This study advanced the theory by demonstrating that theoretical models proposing parent-teacher partnerships, such as the theory of overlapping spheres, do benefit high school Hispanic ELLs, making it more applicable to all populations, as there was limited research on the non-English speaking population of students and parents.

Related Literature

This topic is very important because increased parental involvement within the Hispanic ELL community can have a positive influence on high school students' GPA, standardized test scores, student attitudes, and behaviors, according to Jeynes (2007).

Parental Involvement

Many studies have shown that children are more likely to have higher academic achievement levels when parents are involved in their education (Benner, Boyle, & Sadler, 2016; Day & Dotterer, 2018; Jeynes, 2007; Jung & Zhang, 2016; Ross, 2016; Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2014). However, after many years of research, still, there is not a definition that can be agreed upon that omits or consists of all the elements asserted by different people (Carpenter, Young, Bowers, & Sanders, 2016). It is a term that can be defined in various ways, depending on who is defining it. Parents, teachers, educational leaders, policymakers, and researchers all have

different standpoints on what constitutes parental involvement (Carpenter, Young, Bowers, & Sanders, 2016).

Parent involvement can generally be defined as parenting strategies or activities used in the home or at school that helps to improve academic outcomes (Day & Dotterer, 2018). Activities include having active connections and communication between home and school, home activities, assisting with homework (Duppong Hurley, Lambert, & D'Angelo, 2017; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994), volunteering at school, attending school activities, conveying attitudes and expectations about school and education (Duppong et al., 2017), introducing stimulating educational activities and experiences, and conveying the enjoyment of learning (Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994). Due to all these strategies, parental involvement is considered a multidimensional construct, as it cannot be defined as a single behavior nor a set of behaviors, but rather a combination of different types of actions. Each combination can be classified as home-based involvement, school-based involvement, or academic socialization (Hill & Tyson, 2009). Activities that parents can implement in the home that supports what the child is learning in the school, including monitoring homework and enrichment activities are classified as home-based involvement (Benner, Boyle, & Saddler, 2016; Hill & Tyson, 2009). Activities that parents are involved in at school, including volunteering, attending parent-teacher conferences, attending PTA meetings, or participating in other on-campus activities are classified as school-based involvement (Benner et al., 2016; Hill & Tyson, 2009). The messages parents communicate to their children about the importance through their education-related views, expectations, and behaviors and the discussions they have about future college and career plans are classified as academic socialization (Benner et al., 2016; Hill & Tyson, 2009).

Parents use different involvement strategies for many different reasons. Some strategy uses are determined by a parent's race (Bhargava & Witherspoon, 2015). Both Bhargava and Witherspoon (2015) and Wang and Sheikh-Khalil (2014) found that African-American parents preferred to use home-based involvement strategies and academic socialization the most as opposed to school-based involvement compared to European American who preferred school-based involvement (Bhargava & Witherspoon, 2015; Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2014). Although African Americans preferred home-based involvement and academic socialization, they still engaged in school-based communication (Bhargava & Witherspoon, 2015). Higher levels of academic achievement for African Americans have actually been linked to the increased levels of home-based involvement academic socialization (Day & Dotterer, 2018). Hispanic adolescents would benefit the most if their parents were more involved overall than they currently are. Day & Dotterer (2018) found that Hispanic parents may need to intensify their use of academic socialization, home-based involvement, and school-based involvement as the combination of the three is linked to higher GPAs.

Socioeconomic status also determines which involvement strategies parents may actually utilize (Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2014). Research shows that low SES parents are less likely to socialize academically with their children and are less likely to participate in their child's education at home or at school (Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2014). Take the Hispanic population for an example. Hispanics are disproportionately represented as underprivileged. Eighteen percent of the U.S. population are Hispanics, yet 27.2 percent of the Hispanic population is in poverty (Edwards, 2019). This could explain why Day & Dotterer (2018) found that Hispanic adolescents could have better academic outcomes if they had more academic socialization, home-based involvement, and school-based involvement from their parents. Though there are

various involvement strategies, not all strategies produce the same student outcomes. Various dimensions of parental involvement relate differently to student academic outcomes (Epstein, 1987; Hill and Tyson 2009; Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2014). This may be particularly true for Hispanic ELLs and their families.

Hispanic Student Academic Outcomes

Hispanics are the fastest-growing ethnic group in the U.S. Between 1990 and 2016, the Hispanic population went from 22.6 to 57.8 million (9 to 18%) (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). Consequently, Hispanics are also the fastest-growing subgroup in public schools. Between 2000 and 2016, the percentage of Hispanic students increased from 16 to 25% while European American students decreased from 62% to 52% and African American students decreased from 15 to 14% (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). They are one of the fastest-growing ethnic groups for many reasons, including immigration to the U.S. Moreover, not all Hispanic students speak English. In 2014, of the 4.7 million public school students participating in ELL programs, 78% of the program consisted of Hispanic students, with around 3.6 million participating in ELL programs (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). Language barriers can have a negative effect on ELL students' academic outcomes.

Though the achievement gap has narrowed over the years, there is still a considerable gap between all Hispanic students and other racial and ethnic groups of students (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). While Hispanic students are likely to graduate high school, they still have dropout at a higher rate than White and Black students. From 1992 to 2015, the high school dropout rate for Hispanic students (9%) was higher compared to White (5%) and Black students (6%) (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). Though their high school completion rate was 88 percent (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017), not many Hispanics are enrolled in college. In 2014, Hispanics made up 35 percent of

total college enrollments (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). Not only is there a disparity in high school completion and post-secondary attendance, but also in their achievement scores. The White-Hispanic achievement gap in 2015 for reading was 24 points in grade 4, 21 points in grade 8, and 20 points in grade 12 (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). The White-Hispanic achievement gap in 2015 for math was 18 points in grade 4 and 22 points in grade 8, while only 10 percent of Hispanic students earned a calculus credit in high school compared to White students (18 percent) and Asian students (45%) (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). In order to close this achievement gap, it is imperative to identify strategies that promote Hispanic students' academic achievement, beginning with Hispanic parental involvement.

Hispanic Parental Involvement

Though parental involvement provides many academic benefits, research reports that Hispanic parental involvement in schools is low (LeFevre & Shaw, 2011), which may clarify why Hispanic students still lag all other racial and ethnic groups academically. Still, this challenges other studies that indicate that majority of Hispanic parents are very concerned about the education of their children have high educational aspirations for them and want to be involved in their education (LeFevre & Shaw, 2011). This may be because Hispanic parents do not spontaneously make the distinction between schooling (academics) and upbringing (morals) that is made in English/America. After all, both are part of a larger whole that leads to becoming a good person (Reese, Balzano, Gallimore, & Goldenberg, 1995).

The combination of morals (or educación) with academics (formal school education) gives Hispanic parents a unique perspective on the importance of education, especially as it relates to U.S. schools. In fact, other cultural expectations impact Hispanic parental involvement in U.S. schools, such as respeto (respect), personalismo (personal relationships), and confianza

(trust). Interactions within families, school, and the community at large are governed by the rules of respeto, personalismo, and confianza. Each of these cultural expectations plays an important role in understanding Hispanic families.

Teachers and other school staff are traditionally viewed as being in positions of authority (Shim, 2018), which merits respeto. Therefore, Hispanic parents may view behaviors such as asking teachers about the curriculum or advocating for their child's needs as challenging someone in a position of authority, which would violate cultural expectations of respeto (LeFevre & Shaw, 2011). This certainly pertains to the Hispanic families of ELLs, as they may not be acculturated to American culture. Shim (2018) found that ELL parents felt the imbalance of power impacts the dynamics of the ELL parent-teacher interactions; hence, many ELL parents did not ask the teachers questions for fear of repercussions.

Hispanics also value personal relationships. Therefore, teachers need to build a rapport and invest in Hispanic students (Vera et al., 2017). One study found that Hispanic families do not contact teachers because they are less comfortable with teachers and schools in the U.S. due to perceived discrimination (LeFevre & Shaw, 2011). This especially pertains to families of Hispanic ELLs, as many teachers may believe that students and parents whose first language is not English cannot think at the same level as people whose first language is English (Shim, 2018). This is a misunderstanding that derives from one of the most common misconceptions about people whose first language is not English, which is that language proficiency is related to intelligence (Cummins, 2000). Hence, Hispanic families may perceive certain situations as unfavorable when teachers are more professional than personal.

Additionally, when non-family members (i.e., teachers) take the time to develop personalismo with a family member it will result in confianza, which indicates that Hispanic families trust that the person is looking out for the best interest of their child and family. One study linked respecto with parental involvement by staff members showing everyone in the building respect at all times, which supports parents' attempts in teaching this same value to their children (Carpenter, Young, Bowers, & Sanders, 2016). This shows that teachers and other school staff should collaborate with immigrant Hispanic families using an approach that highlights their strengths, acknowledging that their language and cultural values will support their children in their academic development (Sibley & Brabeck, 2017).

Though a vast amount of research has also shown the different ways parents can be involved across all racial and ethnic groups, and the related academic outcomes, it has not been without disagreement. Day & Dotterer (2018) found that among Hispanic adolescents, parents should use a combination of parental involvement strategies to include academic socialization, home-based involvement, and school-based involvement as it is linked to higher GPAs. However, Benner, Boyle, & Sadler (2016) found that home-based involvement may be less important for promoting academic achievement, and Wang and Sheikh-Khalil (2014) found that school-based involvement and academic achievement are not connected. This is a consequence of having broad categories like home-based or school-based involvement. It disguises important distinctions of parental involvement (i.e., parent-teacher communication); therefore, it would be beneficial for researchers to assess multiple subdomains to gain a more comprehensive assessment of parental involvement (Hurley, Lambert, January, & D'Angelo, 2017). This is especially important when assessing Hispanic parental involvement because Hispanic culture must be considered. There may be dimensions of parental involvement that have a stronger

relationship with positive student outcomes, such as frequency of parent-teacher contacts, quality of parent-teacher relationship, parent school involvement (volunteering), and parent satisfaction.

The Parent-Teacher Involvement Questionnaire (PTIQ) shows considerable promise as a measure of Hispanic parental involvement. In one study, the researchers examined the construct validity of the Quality of Parent-Teacher Relationship factor of the Parent-Teacher Involvement Questionnaire (PTIQ) intending to determine its potential for assessing home-school collaboration and the results of their research support the reliability and validity of the PTIQ (Mautone et al., 2015). Additionally, Riggs (2004) used the PTIQ to measure how involvement influences migrant Latino children academic outcomes and he found parent engagement with their child's school activities were related to increases in math achievement.

Parent-Teacher Contacts

Frequent parent-teacher contacts are necessary if the school wants positive student outcomes. When parents and teachers communicate and work together effectively, it can significantly affect each student's long-term success. When parents frequently contact teachers and become involved in the school, children tend to do better (Deng et al., 2016; Deng et al., 2017). However, many Hispanic parents, especially immigrant parents, are not confident in their language and academic skills; therefore, they are hesitant to communicate with teachers and other school staff (Conus & Fahrni, 2017; Delgado, Huerta, & Campos, 2012). Nevertheless, there are several communication methods that teachers and parents can utilize.

Regular parent-teacher communication includes verbal communication and written communication. Verbal communication refers to phone calls, parent-teacher meetings, and informal face-to-face conversations, while written communication refers to memos, notes sent home, and newsletters. Despite the different methods of communication, frequent contact

between parents and teachers equips parents to help their child at home (Deng et al., 2017). The more parents and teachers are in contact, the more they can exchange important information about a student, which equips both to provide better academic support for the child. Despite the research, some teachers and schools are not in frequent contact. In one study, parents reported that they were not in frequent contact with teachers, as some only communicated with the teacher once per month, and some had communication at all, while very few communicated with their child's teacher multiple times per week (Natale, 2018). However, this study was limited to traditional methods of communication. It did not account for the different technology-based communications.

Technology is rapidly changing to the point that it has become a convenient, interactive tool that is being used by many teachers and families. Consequently, many parents have accepted the need to change how their parents and teachers communicate (Nitza & Roman, 2017). There, many teachers have moved away from traditional communication methods and toward electronic communication methods (e.g., email, "Google Classroom," or other apps) (Currie-Rubin & Smith, 2014). In one study, the researchers found that 73 percent of middle school teachers and 68 percent of high school teachers primarily communicate with families using an electronic method (Kosaretskii & Chernyshova, 2013). This is most likely due to smartphones.

Thompson, Mazer, and Grady (2015) suggested that parents view digital technology communication methods as important to the education of their child. Many families believe their child's teacher can easily be reached with technology (Natale, 2018). Email is a preferred form of communication for many families (Thompson, Mazer, & Grady, 2015; Natale, 2018) because many believed it provided more immediate feedback through timely responses (Thompson et al., 2015). The convenience of smartphones plays a big role in this certainty. Though many families

prefer email, text messaging, and the use of social media are also beginning to emerge in parent–teacher communication (Thompson et al., 2015). With the invention of apps such as "Remind: School Communication," parent-teacher texting may rise because texting is even more immediate. Social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram may also be on the rise because accessing from smartphones is so convenient (Thompson et al., 2015).

Regardless of how parents and teachers chose to communicate, frequent parent-teacher contacts have been shown to be effective in promoting high school student development (Deng et al., 2017). Deng et al. (2016) found traditional parent-teacher contacting ways (e.g., phone calls, parent-teacher conferences, and informal conversations) and attending PTA meetings to be linked to students' positive developmental outcomes. Additionally, Deng et al. (2017) found that technology-based communication was also positively linked to high school students' positive developmental outcomes (Deng et al., Fang, 2017). Therefore, teachers should use multiple ways to communicate with parents in order to facilitate students' positive development (Deng et al., 2017) as a collaboration between teachers and parents has an overall positive effect on academic outcomes (Natale, 2018). It allows parents to gather information about school programs, monitor academic performance, and resolve problems, all of which shape the child's educational trajectory.

Teachers and parents each hold pieces of knowledge and information that are critical to maximizing the student's academic potential. However, the frequency of parent-teacher contact is low among low SES families. Low SES families are not likely to contact their child's teachers because many have had negative experiences with the school (Jensen, 2009). Although communication is generally seen as a shared responsibility between the parents and teachers, parents believe teachers are primarily responsible for initiating communication even if there is

not a problem or specific event happening at the school (Conus & Fahrni, 2017). Hence, teachers should reach out to low SES families. In a recent study by Li, Lin, Liu, Johnson, Li, and Loyalka (2019), they found that only about half of the parents and teachers of disadvantaged students interact, in any form, during the course of an entire school year. Moreover, teachers set up parent-teacher conferences for less than half of their students (Li et al., 2019). This really limits lower SES parents' abilities to support their child at school and at home.

In general, most parents generally will initiate contact with their child's teachers if there was a problem. However, not all parents are willing to initiate contact to get a progress update about their child (Conus & Fahrni, 2017). This is particularly an issue with the families of Hispanic ELLs. To start with, Hispanic parents may view behaviors such as asking teachers about the curriculum or advocating for their child's needs as challenging someone in a position of authority, which would violate cultural expectations of respeto (LeFevre & Shaw, 2011). Moreover, many immigrant Hispanic parents are not familiar with the U.S. educational system and do not know how to navigate it (Behnke, Taylor, & Parra-Cardona, 2008). Lastly, many are not confident in their language and academic skills; therefore, they are hesitant to communicate with teachers and other school staff (Delgado, Huerta, & Campos, 2012). Nevertheless, the amount of direct contact with the teacher matters, regardless if it is in person, by phone, or written. Therefore, communication needs to be personalized by communicating in the parent's dominant language because communication is critical to a student's success (Carpenter et al., 2016). The more parents and teachers are in contact, the better quality the parent-teacher relationship will be (Adams & Christenson, 2000).

Parent-Teacher Relationship Quality

Hispanic parents experience relationships with their child's teacher and school differently from the majority of the population (Tarasawa &Waggoner, 2015), specifically immigrant Hispanic parents. In fact, parents' perceptions of school expectations can be influenced by personal experiences of education, which for more recent immigrants may have occurred outside the United States (Vera et al., 2017). Therefore, teachers need to develop a relationship with families of Hispanic ELLs. Having these relationships allows schools to provide parents with important information that will enable the families to provide better support for their children (Carpenter et al., 2016).

There are many benefits to high-quality parent-teacher relationships (Epstein, 1995; Hill & Taylor, 2004), as teachers and parents both play an important role in a student's success. Deng et al. (2017) found that parent-teacher relationship was linked to high school students' developmental outcomes. They also found frequent parent-teacher contacts to be related to high school students' developmental outcomes (Deng et al., 2017). This may be the case because parents who have high-quality relationships with their child's teachers are more likely to initiate contact with the school. However, when teachers initiate contact, parents have reported that it made them feel valued and respected (Carpenter et al., 2016). This is important as it helped create aligned perceptions of each other.

A mismatch between the perceptions of parents and teachers may negatively affect the quality of the parent-teacher relationship, which could also negatively affect a child's academic success (Miller et al., 2016). This quite possible with Hispanic families, as some do not speak fluent English. When teachers and parents do not speak the same language there are more opportunities for misunderstandings, which increases the potential of teachers and parents having

a misunderstanding about the quality of the parent-teacher relationship. Miller et al. (2016) found that if teachers and school staff do not provide interpretation services, Hispanic parents perceived teachers and school as unwelcoming because teachers and other school staff did not speak Spanish and did not share the parents' cultural knowledge of a good education and appropriate teacher-parent relationship. Therefore, teachers and school staff need to provide an interpreter in order to personalize communication as it is critical to a student's success (Carpenter et al., 2016).

Having a low SES can also affect the quality of the parent-teacher relationship. A study found that parent's trust in their child's teacher and school diminished if their child received free or reduced lunch (Santiago et al., 2016). Eligibility for free or reduced lunch is likely to be high within the Hispanic student population as many Hispanic families have a low SES. Additionally, many Hispanic ELLs may live in a single-parent home as many of their parents emigrated from Latin America with only their children leaving their partner behind. Single parents usually feel less supported by the school or even unwelcomed, which harms the quality of the parent-teacher relationship (Santiago et al., 2016).

In order to form a strong parent-teacher relationship, teachers must first form a relationship built on trust. There is nothing of significance to talk about if a parent does not trust the teacher. The best approach to building trust is communication. Therefore, teachers should frequently contact their parents. Leenders et al. (2019) suggested that teachers must familiarize themselves with the cultural background of their students and families so that when difficult circumstances arise, they can respond appropriately. This is particularly true for Hispanic families, for they value personal relationships. When teachers take the time to develop personal relationships (personalismo) with the family, the expected result is trust (confianza). If teachers can obtain a high level of their parents' trust, then they receive fewer difficulties from students

and parents, as well as a predicted increase in parental involvement in school (Santiago et al., 2016).

Strong parent-teacher relationships built on trust are important to the educational success of immigrant students (Sibley & Brabeck, 2017). Parent-teacher relationships are positively associated with high school students' academic, career, and personal/social developmental outcomes (Deng et al., 2017). Therefore, trust must be gained, and perceptions must align so that the quality of parent-teacher relationships can be strengthened, which can happen through family-school partnership collaborations (e.g., Garbacz et al., 2016; Miller et al., 2016; Pemberton & Miller, 2015). This supports healthy development and positive educational and social outcomes for all students, which keeps parents happy.

Parent Endorsement (Satisfaction)

Some studies have explored what constitutes parental school satisfaction only to find a wide variety of factors, including academic achievement, the curriculum, the school environment, school-parent communication, parental involvement, and the quality of staff (Friedman, Bobrowski, & Markow, 2007). Despite the reasons, it is important for parents to be satisfied with their children's school and the quality of education they are receiving. Hispanic parents are very concerned about the education of their children (LeFevre & Shaw, 2011) as they want their children to become good persons. When educators are culturally responsive, Hispanic parents may experience higher levels of satisfaction with the school.

Parent satisfaction has been linked to how well students in the school perform academically (Chambers & Michelson, 2016; Gibbons & Silva, 2011). This is important to Hispanic parents as they have high educational aspirations for their children and expect their children to achieve at a certain level, regardless of any roadblocks they run into as low SES

families. One study found that low-income parents felt satisfied with their children's school because the teachers are highly effective as measured by test scores (Chambers & Michelson, 2016). High academic achievements usually lead to better opportunities for their children in the future, including admissions to prestigious colleges and universities (Gibbons & Silva, 2011). Consequently, parents judge the quality of schools and teachers based on the school's academic performance grade (Gibbons & Silva, 2011).

Moreover, parents who felt they had a stronger connection with their child's school experienced higher levels of satisfaction with their child's school (Hampden-Thompson & Galindo, 2016). Hispanic families feel more of a connection when the school staff takes the initiative to build a personal relationship with them. If they have a personal relationship, they feel received. Meier and Lemmer (2018) reported that parents were happy with their child's school because they felt welcomed, and the teachers and readily available for conferences. Parents were very happy with the school's communication practices, as they strongly liked receiving information in hand and electronically (Meier & Lemmer, 2018). When parents feel welcomed at the school their child attends and are familiar with the established ways to communicate with the teachers, it allows them to increase their knowledge and confidence in helping to provide effective support for the learning of their child (Epstein 2010).

Another factor that is important when considering parent satisfaction is their child's emotional wellbeing. Jónsdóttir, Björnsdóttir, and Bæck (2017) found that parent satisfaction or dissatisfaction with school is related to their child's happiness and emotional development. For example, if children are afraid to go to school because of bullying, parents expect the school to respond in a way that will help their child. Parents that feel they can influence the school are usually more satisfied with their child's school (Jónsdóttir, Björnsdóttir, & Bæck, 2017).

Therefore, when the school's response is not timely and appropriate, parents will be disappointed and dissatisfied, which may harm the school-family partnership. Parents are more satisfied with their child's school when they can see that their children desire to go to school and are excited about it (Kaczan, Rycielski, & Wasilewska, 2014). If parents have a high level of satisfaction, they may be more likely to participate in activities at the school.

School Involvement (Volunteering)

Hispanic parents do not involve themselves in school activities, including volunteering, at the same rate as home activities. That does not mean they are not willing to participate in school activities. In fact, Delgado-Gaitan (1994) found that Hispanic parents are willing to be involved in their children's education using various parental involvement strategies, including school activity participation and volunteering. Nonetheless, many immigrant Hispanic parents are not familiar with the U.S. educational system; therefore, they do not know how to navigate the system (Behnke, Taylor, & Parra-Cardona, 2008). It is not that they are not interested in their child's education (Vera et al., 2012). If Hispanic parents participated in school activities and volunteered at school, it may enhance their ability to guide the education of their children from middle grades to their last years of high school (Catsambis, 2001).

Research has shown that parent participation in school activities has positive effects on academic outcomes. One study found that parent participation in extracurricular activities (i.e., sporting events) and other school-sponsored events was directly related to high school completion (Ross, 2016). Wang and Sheikh-Khalil (2014) found that volunteering in high school had no direct connection to academic achievement but supplied emotional benefits for students whose parents participated in activities at the school level. When considering Hispanic culture, they have a cultural expectation that parents must provide their children with emotional and

moral support (apoyo). If Hispanic parents participate at the school, even volunteering, it could affect the academic achievement levels of Hispanic ELLs because of the emotional and moral support. In one study, Hispanic college-bound high school students placed significant importance on the emotional support and motivation of their parents (Zarate, 2007). Therefore, it is beneficial for Hispanic parents to participate in their child's school as it could have a positive effect on their child's future success in education.

High schools are larger than elementary and middle schools; therefore, it may be more challenging for all parents to get involved on the school level, despite the positive relationship between volunteering and school-level achievement. One study found that schools with a great deal of parent participation in the PTA or other volunteer activities (e.g., test proctoring) had higher academic success as a school (Park & Holloway, 2016). This could be the result of a more positive learning environment. When higher percentages of parents within a school are involved in school activities, administrators reported stronger school organizational properties, as represented in school administrators' perception of leadership support, a spirit of collaboration, less teacher turn-over, and less overcrowding (Park, Stone, & Holloway, 2017). Giving parents opportunities to get involved in the school program transfers some responsibility for the instructional program from school to parent (Park, Stone, & Holloway, 2017). As one can see, parent volunteers offer numerous benefits to communities and schools. They contribute to increased support for the school, supplement teacher's efforts, and provide valuable additional resources for school operations. Many functions of the school would be disrupted if volunteers were not present to provide much-needed help (i.e., test proctors). However, not all people choose to volunteer.

Gender has been found to influence a person's decision to volunteer or participate in school activities. Wang and Fahey (2010) found that mothers are more likely to volunteer in schools than fathers are because schools give them a chance to nurture children, which is similar to homemaking. If schools solicit the participation of immigrant Hispanic families, more may volunteer. Particularly with so many Hispanic immigrants opting to be stay-at-home mothers. According to Livingston (2014), 44 percent of Hispanic immigrant mothers stay home, believing their children are better off if they do not work outside the home.

Racial and ethnic backgrounds have been found to influence a person's decision to volunteer or participate in school activities. Whites are more likely to volunteer at their child's school (Wang & Fahey, 2010). A significant contributing factor may be cultural differences. The obvious one is language. Having a language barrier may contribute to the low rate of immigrant parent volunteers (Wang & Fahey, 2010). Additionally, many immigrant Hispanic parents are not familiar with the U.S. educational system; therefore, they do not know how to navigate the system (Behnke, Taylor, & Parra-Cardona, 2008). In the Hispanic culture, teachers play a primary role in a child's education. Teachers are viewed as being in positions of authority (Shim, 2018), so parents do not want to interfere with the educational process at school (Wang & Fahey, 2010). Consequently, Hispanic parents are not familiar with being able to volunteer in the schools. Many immigrant parents do not understand the school's expectations for parent involvement, so it is the school's responsibility to help them. Schools must include culturally sensitive practices to encourage the involvement of immigrant parents (Carpenter et al., 2016).

Lastly, socioeconomic status might influence a person's decision to volunteer. High SES families and families with a higher degree of education may be more likely to volunteer or participate on the school level. Many low-income parents just do not have the time to volunteer.

This is especially true for immigrant parents who may have to work more than one job or work long hours for low pay (Wang & Fahey, 2010). To increase the number of low SES immigrant parent participants, schools and teachers need to understand these barriers (Wang & Fahey, 2010).

Barriers to Parental Involvement

Many parents face challenges that may prevent them from getting involved in their child's education. Immigrant Hispanic parents, however, encounter unique barriers that may hinder their involvement in their child's education. These barriers include language barriers, a lack of familiarity with the educational system, socioeconomic status, school environment, parent perceptions, and immigration status.

Language barriers. Many Hispanic parents are not confident in their language and academic skills; therefore, they may hesitate to get involved in their child's education (Delgado, Huerta, & Campos, 2012). Hispanic parents with limited English proficiency have a hard time with school communication (Antony-Newman, 2018). Therefore, many immigrant Hispanic parents sometimes do not get needed information from the school, causing gaps in communication. This can discourage Hispanic parents from participating in school-level decision-making that will ultimately affect their child's education. These feelings are magnified if the educators fail to provide interpreters to bridge the communication gaps (Good, Masewicz, & Vogel, 2010).

Lack of familiarity with educational system. Doing well academically is linked to being successful later in life. Therefore, many immigrant families believe education is the roadmap for upward economic mobility (Arellanes, Viramontez Anguiano, & Lohman, 2017). Thus, one can infer that immigrant Hispanic parents do believe getting an education is important

and that they have high aspirations and expectations for their children. However, many immigrant Hispanic parents are not familiar with the United States educational system; therefore, they do not know how to navigate the system (Behnke, Taylor, & Parra-Cardona, 2008). Specifically, parental involvement. Many Hispanic parents are not familiar with parental expectations of the U.S. public school system. Studies show that in the English-speaking countries, it is the parent's responsibility to initiate involvement with the school (Crozier and Davies 2007). In contrast, Hispanic parents often limit their involvement in the home because of their experiences with the educational system in their native country (Johnson et al., 2016). In Hispanic culture, teachers have the primary responsibility of educating children. Therefore, there are often mismatches between parents and schools on values and role expectations (Hill & Torres, 2010). Consequently, many parents do not know how they can get involved in their child's education.

Socioeconomic status. Socioeconomic status affects the lives of many ethnic and racial minority groups. Though the percentage of African American students living in poverty is the highest at 37% (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017), Hispanic families are also disproportionately represented as underprivileged in comparison with other racial and ethnic groups in the U.S. population. Thirty-one percent of Hispanic students living in poverty, which is more than double the 12% poverty rate for non-Latino, White, and Asian students (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). Additionally, 18% of the U.S. population are Hispanics, and 27.2% of the Hispanic population is in poverty (Edwards, 2019). Hence, many Hispanic families fall in the low SES group. Low SES families find it challenging to participate in their child's education because some families work long hours, and some families do not have transportation to get to the school.

Many Hispanic parents work hourly, and some families even require both parents to work to survive. Working long hours on a low-paying job is the only way they can take care of their families. In order to attend parent-teacher conferences or participate in school activities during school hours, at least one parent loses wages (Freeman, 2010). Therefore, in most cases, Hispanic families cannot afford to be absent from work. Hispanic parents just simply do not have the time to participate in their child's education at the school (Ratcliff & Hunt, 2009). Sometimes parents cannot even participate in activities at home because they may be too exhausted when they get home from work.

Additionally, some families lack transportation. Lack of transportation may be due to a family's lower SES and may pose significant problems for Hispanic parents. Not having transportation is a significant challenge as many parents are unable to attend a parent-teacher conference. Many must do a phone conference. Some studies found that low SES families were unable to participate in activities at school because they lacked transportation (Baker et al., 2016; Davis-Kean & Sexton, 2009).

Level of education. Many Hispanics have low levels of educational attainment, especially immigrant Hispanic women. Only 58 percent of foreign-born Hispanic women have at least a high school diploma (Livingston, 2014). Additionally, only 67% of Hispanics have obtained a high school diploma, college degrees, or have participated in post-graduate studies, which is low when compared to adults from other racial and ethnic groups (Ryan & Bauman, 2016). Therefore, many Hispanic parents are cautious when involving themselves in their children's education because many are not confident in their academic abilities (Delgado, Huerta, & Campos, 2012).

Often times, Hispanic parents feel limited in their ability to help their adolescent children with their schoolwork because some parents did receive a formal education. Additionally, they may be too embarrassed about their own educational level that they do not want to ask the teacher for assistance. Plunkett and Bamaca-Gomez (2003) examined parental involvement and Hispanic adolescent's academic outcomes looking at four aspects of parenting, including parental education level. They found a positive relationship between home-based parental involvement and parents who had a higher educational level.

School environment. Turney & Kao (2009) reported that immigrant Hispanic parents are almost three times more likely to feel unwelcome at their children's school than white Americans. They often feel alienated from teachers, which leads to low participation in school events (Good et al., 2010). Hispanic parents depend on the school to reach out to them to provide school-related information (Lee et al., 2012). This is the only way they will feel comfortable approaching teachers and administrators (Lee et al., 2012).

Immigration status. All parents of school-aged children are obligated by law to send their children to school. Immigrant Hispanic parents are not exempt. Nonetheless, undocumented Hispanic parents fear deportation; therefore, it influences how they engage and interact with their child's school (Dreby, 2015). Although teachers and administrators are discouraged not to report the status of immigrant families to immigration officers, undocumented Hispanic parents may believe the teacher should enforce federal immigration laws since they are government employees (Olivos & Mendoza, 2010). Consequently, immigrant Hispanic families may be apprehensive about participating in meetings or activities at school.

Hispanic Parental Involvement Strategies

Parental involvement decreases as students enter secondary school (Bhargava & Witherspoon, 2015). However, much less is known about the outcomes of parent involvement of Hispanic ELLs in high school. If schools did a better job soliciting participation through the outreach efforts they use and were willing to provide accommodations such as interpretation services, more Hispanic parents may appear to be involved in the education of their children.

The first strategy that will help increase parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs is using their preferred language. Speaking in a family's native language provides a common language where communication can take place. ELL parents communicate less frequently with teachers than native English-speaking parents (Harper and Pelletier, 2010). Therefore, teachers and parents of English language learners recognized that a lack of communication was a major barrier to student achievement (Good, Masewicz, & Vogel, 2010). Therefore, in order to ensure the effective communication of important school information, schools need to provide bilingual interpreters, translate any written communication that is sent home, and provide parents with a list of bilingual staff. Each of these ways will help schools to build a relationship with ELL parents.

The second strategy is educating the parents on the U.S. school system. Many immigrant families have different cultural values and beliefs. For example, Hispanic families are focused on relationships as opposed to competing for a high grade point average. However, the U.S public school system values independence and academic achievement. Therefore, schools need to listen to the concerns of the parents, as well as answer any questions they may have about U.S. public schools. It would also be helpful to give them this information written in their preferred language. Many parents stated that schools do not listen to them (Good, Masewicz, & Vogel,

2010). However, schools need to make sure that they understand the school curriculum, including standards, teacher/school expectations, and how school works. Schools can also offer parent workshops that would allow parents to learn more about parent involvement activities that are available to them (Panferov, 2010). It would be beneficial to offer the workshop in their preferred language. Each of these strategies will help the parents of Hispanic ELLs better understand how the public-school system and culture of American schools work so that they can support their child's education.

The third strategy is welcoming parents into the school. Having an open house/back-to-school night is a great way to welcome families into the school. However, it will have a bigger impact if the night is in their native language. This can be done by having an interpreter on-site. This night would allow parents to learn about the things planned for the upcoming school year as well as ways for parents to get involved. They also can learn about any language learning opportunities for them. Having a back-to-school night also allows the school to recruit volunteers. Encouraging parents of ELLs to volunteer at the school or participate in activities at the school allows them to share their heritage with others at the school. This helps ELLs to have a positive attitude about their first language and learning experiences (Panferov, 2010). In addition, getting parents involved in school activities helps build relationships.

The last strategy is doing home and community visits. Doing home and community visits allow schools to limit transportation issues as a barrier to parental involvement. In addition, it is helpful for parents who are apprehensive about the school setting because of their own school experience. Lastly, teachers can build personal relationships with Hispanic families and students. When teachers take the time to develop personal relationships with Hispanic families, it results

in earning the family's trust. They will believe the teacher is looking out for the best interest of their child and family.

Several strategies have been identified that will help increase parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs. Using the parents' preferred language is important because it provides a common language so that communication can take place. Many immigrant families have different cultural values and beliefs; therefore, it is important to educate the parents of English language learners in the U.S. school system. Welcoming parents into the school and getting them involved in activities at the school helps build better relationships. Lastly, going into the home and community of English language learners will also help build relationships with parents. It will also help parents overcome the transportation barrier as well.

Summary

Through a related literature review, the predictive relationship between Hispanic ELL parental involvement and grade point average was examined. Many studies have shown that children are more likely to have higher academic achievement levels when parents are involved in their education (Benner, Boyle, & Sadler, 2016; Day & Dotterer, 2018; Jeynes, 2007; Jung & Zhang, 2016; Ross, 2016; Wang & Sheikh-Khalil, 2014). Yet, there is still a considerable gap between Hispanic students and other racial and ethnic groups of students (Musu-Gillette et al., 2017). However, before anyone can assess the parental involvement of Hispanic families, especially ELL Hispanic families, Hispanic culture must be considered. Some parental involvement dimensions may have a stronger relationship with positive student outcomes, including frequency of parent-teacher contacts, quality of the parent-teacher relationship, parent satisfaction, and parent participation in school activities. Hispanic parents do not visibly participate in their child's education at a rate that satisfies educators. However, many Hispanic

parents face challenges that prevent them from getting to participate on the school level. Nonetheless, there are parental involvement programs that schools can utilize to get parents involved at school and at home.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

Chapter three includes information about the research design employed to understand more clearly Hispanic parental involvement and how it relates to the high school GPA of Hispanic ELLs. Other than a rationale for and description of the present study's research methodology, this chapter also outlines the research question and hypothesis, describes the setting and participants, explains the instrumentation and procedures, and provides an overview of the data collection and analysis.

Design

The research design for this study was a non-experimental, correlational design. This type of design examines the relationship between two or more existing, non-manipulated variables drawing from a single group of research participants (Rovai & Ponton, 2014). This type of design is only applicable if the researcher believes the statistical relationship is causal, yet a true experiment cannot be conducted as the predictor variables cannot be manipulated (Rovai & Ponton, 2014). In this study, the researchers wanted to learn more about the relationship between four predictor variables of parental involvement: (a) frequency of contact between parent and teacher; (b) quality of the parent-teacher relationship; (c) parent's endorsement of their child's school; and (d) parental school involvement (volunteering); and one criterion variable: grade point average. Since this study wanted to predict relationships between parent involvement and grade point average, and the predictor variables cannot be manipulated, the correlational design was most appropriate.

This study also measured parent involvement of the sample using the self-reported parent-teacher involvement questionnaire instrument described by the Conduct Problems

Prevention Research Group (Fast Track, 2003) as the predictor variables. The criterion variable was high school grade point average. This research design has been used in previous studies of parental involvement and student outcomes in elementary, middle, and high school settings (Kohl, Lengua, & McMahon, 2000; Mautone et al., 2015).

Research Question

The research question for this study was:

RQ: How accurately can high school grade point average be predicted from a linear combination of parental involvement factors: frequency of parent-teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationship, school involvement (volunteering), and parent endorsement for Hispanic English language learners?

Hypothesis

The null hypothesis for this study was:

H_0: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable of high school grade point average and the linear combination of predictor variables: frequency of parent-teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationship, parents' endorsement, and parental school involvement (volunteering) for Hispanic English language learners.

Participants and Setting

The participants for this study were drawn from a convenience sample of English language learners and parents from five inner-city high schools located in central North Carolina during the spring semester of the 2020-2021 school year. Only the parents and students who returned their parental consent forms (see Appendix A for consent forms) sent via email were selected to take part in this study. Each parent completed the survey, and the Office of Research and Accountability determined each student's grade point average by reviewing the student's

transcript. The high schools targeted in this study had a demographic breakdown as follows: 71.8% Black or African American, 22.6% Hispanic or Latino, 2.5% Multi-racial, 2.5% White, 0.4% Asian, and 0.2% Native American or Alaskan Native. In addition, approximately 11% of the students were English language learners, of which 222 were female and 237 male. The setting for administering the survey to the parents was online via Qualtrics. After the consent forms were received, the researchers administered the survey to the parents. Six hundred participants were recruited for this study. Assuming a medium effect size with statistical power of .70 at the .05 alpha level, a sample size of at least 108 was required (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007; Warner, 2013).

Instrumentation

The central instrument that was used in this study was the Parent-Teacher Involvement Questionnaire (PTIQ). Additionally, document analysis in the form of transcript evaluation was used to analyze the official GPA of each participant.

The main instrument that was used for this study was the *PTIQ* based on the 47-item self-reported teacher and parent questionnaire initially developed by the Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group in 1991 (Fast Track, 2003).

> This instrument assessed the amount and type of contact that occurred between parents and teachers, the parent's interest and comfort in talking with teachers, the parent's satisfaction with their children's school and the parent's degree of involvement in the child's education" (Fast Track, 2003, Abstract section, para. 1). A few studies have already used this instrument (Kohl, Lengua, & McMahon, 2000; Mautone, Marcelle, Tresco, & Power, 2015).

Each study has confirmed that this instrument can measure parental involvement in schools, and therefore, can be soundly used for this study. Nevertheless, only the parent version was used for this study. The parent version of the *PTIQ* included 26 items, and its intention was to assess certain dimensions of parent involvement relative to their children's learning experience (Fast Track, 2003). The four key dimensions were: (a) the quality of the relationship between parent and teacher; (b) the parent's involvement in school activities and the degree of academic stimulation at home; and (c) the parent's satisfaction with the child's school; and (d) the amount, type, and initiator of contact that occurs between parents and teacher (Fast Track, 2003). The *PTIQ* items uses a 5-point Likert scale: from 0 representing no involvement/communication to 4 representing high involvement/communication (Fast Track, 2003). The total composite score on the *PTIQ* range from 0 to 104 points. A score of 0 points is the lowest possible score, meaning parents are not involved or in communication with the school. A score of 104 points is the highest, meaning that parents are highly involved at their child's school.

Additionally, Miller-Johnson and Maumary-Gremaud (1995) identified four factors within the measure and composed corresponding subscales: Quality of the Relationship between Parent and Teacher (items 11-17), Parent's Involvement and Volunteering at School (items 5-7, 10, and 18-22), Parent's Endorsement of Child's School (items 23-26), and Frequency of Parent-Teacher Contact (items 1-4, 8-9). The total composite score on the subscales ranged from 0 to 28 for the Quality of the Relationship between Parent and Teacher, 0 to 36 for Parent's Involvement and Volunteering at School, 0 to 16 for Parent's Satisfaction of Child's School, and 0 to 24 for Frequency of Parent-Teacher Contact. Reliability coefficients associated with each subscale, as measured by Cronbach Alpha, were reported to be .91, .82, .92, and .75, respectively. (Miller

Johnson & Maumary-Gremaud, 1995). Thus, the use of this instrument provides reliable and valid scores to assess parental involvement in schools.

Although not an instrument, PowerSchool was used to compute participant GPA. PowerSchool is the data management system that all schools across North Carolina use to calculate and communicate each student's grade point average. The researcher used the official transcript of each participant from PowerSchool to analyze his or her GPA. Specifically, the cumulative GPA each participant earned during school year 2020-2021 was used.

Procedures

The researchers sought approval from Liberty University's IRB for this study before officially beginning in May 2021, and procedures continued through June 2021. Documentation used during the data collection to gain consent from school districts, specific schools, parents, and students was submitted to the IRB for approval, including parent consent forms (see Appendix A for IRB permissions).

After the IRB approved the study, the researcher began by getting consent from the school district to carry out the study in their school system. Once the school district approved, the researchers reached out to five principals from five different high schools for their consent to participate in the study. After the principals provide consent to use their schools, an email was sent to the parents of all English language learners containing a letter inviting them to participate in the study. The letter also informed the parents and students of every detail about the study, including the purpose of the study, data collection procedures, how long the study would be, anticipated risks and benefits associated with the study, and how confidentiality would be maintained. When the parents chose to volunteer for the study, they had to sign the consent form before proceeding to complete the questionnaire.

The parents completed the survey after signing the consent form. There was a total of 600 surveys delivered via email between all five schools. About 18% of the sample completed the survey; therefore, it provided the researcher with a sample of 108 parents and 108 completed parent surveys. There was no problem obtaining 108 completed parent surveys; therefore, the researcher did not have to follow up with families. After 108 parent surveys were completed, the researcher concluded data collection with the parents. Lastly, the researcher reached out to the Office of Research and Accountability to have them calculate the end of the semester grade point averages for all English language learners whose parents completed a survey. The identity of each participant was protected as each of them was given a participant code. The identity of the school was also protected. Consequently, potential bias during analysis was limited.

Data Analysis

A multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the predictive level of each sub-scale on grade point average. This allowed the researcher to see if overall parental involvement would predict GPA and if any single subscale or group of subscales combined best to predict GPA as the outcome variable.

The purpose of this study was to test the theory of overlapping spheres as it relates parental involvement to the high school grade point average of Hispanic ELLs. The research question for this study required the researcher to assess any possible predictive relationships between two variables: parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs and high school grade point average. A predictive relationship between these two variables can be determined by using linear regression analysis. However, there are four predictor variables (e.g., four subscales from the parental involvement instrument). Therefore, a multiple regression analysis was used to test for a predictive relationship between all predictor variables (e.g., parental involvement) and grade

point average. Multiple regression analysis was the most suitable data analysis technique for a study that has multiple predictor variables (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007).

Data Assumptions for Multiple Regression Analysis

There are three assumptions underlying multiple regression analysis: bivariate outliers, multivariate normal distribution, and non-multicollinearity among the predictor variables. (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). First, multiple linear regression assumes there are no bivariate outliers as they can influence regression lines. A scatterplot between each pair of predictor variables was used to check for extreme bivariate outliers in the data. Next, multiple linear regression assumes that the errors between observed and predicted values (i.e., the residuals of the regression) should be normally distributed. This assumption was checked by looking at a scatterplot. A visible elongated, cigar-shaped pattern ensures the data conforms to the assumptions of a normal distribution. Lastly, multiple linear regression assumes that there is no multicollinearity in the data. Multicollinearity was checked using a Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) to ensure that a predictor variable was not highly correlated with another predictor variable, as they would essentially be providing the same information about the criterion variable. VIF values higher than 10 indicates that there was multicollinearity.

Multiple Regression Data Analysis

To test the null hypothesis, a sample size of at least 108 was needed to assume a medium effect size as measured by Cohen, with a statistical power of .70 at the .05 alpha level (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007; Warner, 2013). The researcher examined the significance of the linear combination of predictor variables (the amount, type, and initiator of contact that occurs between parents and teacher; the quality of the relationship between parent and teacher; the parent's involvement in the child's school; the degree of academic stimulation at home; and the parent's

satisfaction with the child's school) as it relates to grade point average. Beta coefficients for each predictor variable was also examined for significance. If $p < .05$, then the null hypothesis has to be rejected. Multiple regression analysis produced three output tables:

(1) A measure of the model's explanatory power to fit the data via the coefficient of determination (R^2);

(2) An ANOVA table that shows if the explanatory power of R^2 is statistically significant;

(3) A table of coefficients that explains which, if any, of the individual predictor variables are statistically significant predictors of the outcome variable.

Analyzing the three tables helped determine which hypotheses to reject or fail to reject.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

This chapter presents the results from a quantitative study that assessed the effect parental involvement has on the high school grade point average of Hispanic ELLs. The chapter begins with the research question and the null hypothesis. Next, data is summarized using descriptive statistics. Subsequently, the results are presented, including data screening and assumptions testing. Lastly, the results of the null hypothesis are presented.

Research Question

RQ1: How accurately can high school grade point average be predicted from a linear combination of parental involvement factors: frequency of parent-teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationship, school involvement (volunteering), and parent endorsement for Hispanic English language learners?

Null Hypothesis

H_0: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable of high school grade point average and the linear combination of predictor variables: frequency of parent teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationship, parents' endorsement, and parental school involvement (volunteering) for Hispanic English language learners.

Descriptive Statistics

A sample of 108 parents of Hispanic English language learners were selected as participants for this study. Parents were evaluated using their child's high school GPA and their responses to the *PTIQ.* The *PTIQ* consisted of 26 items and it used a 5-point Likert scale: from 0 representing no involvement to 4 representing high involvement (Fast Track, 2003). The total

composite score on the subscales ranged from 0 to 24 for Frequency of Parent-Teacher Contact, 0 to 28 for the Quality of the Relationship between Parent and Teacher, 0 to 36 for School Involvement (Volunteering), and 0 to 16 for Parent's Endorsement of Child's School. Composite scores from the *PTIQ* and related GPA for each participant can be found in Table 1.

Table 1

PTIQ Composite Scores and Grade Point Averages

GPA	PTC Composite	PTR Composite	SIV Composite	PE Composite
4.125	5	21	9	16
4.0417	4	22	12	16
4	4	18	13	16
3.9091	4	17	9	16
3.8947	6	24	11	16
3.7609	4	17	10	16
3.7368	6	26	9	16
3.7368	4	17	6	16
3.65	3	19	11	16
3.5625	3	18	10	16
3.5476	4	21	11	16
3.3529	5	20	9	16
3.3182	6	18	9	16
3.2727	2	19	8	16
3.098	0	14	4	13
3.0909	3	18	10	16
3	2	18	11	16
3	5	18	10	16
3	4	25	5	16
2.974	4	11	5	12
2.9583	6	8	5	12

2.9091	6	14	5	16
2.8478	2	8	3	13
2.8261	6	12	4	16
2.8182	6	19	5	16
2.75	0	8	4	12
2.75	5	13	5	12
2.7273	6	12	7	16
2.7083	6	13	4	12
2.7	5	12	5	12
2.6	0	11	3	12
2.6	6	11	4	13
2.5833	7	14	6	12
2.5	6	12	4	14
2.4545	4	11	1	13
2.4444	4	11	4	12
2.35	3	9	1	13
2.3333	5	8	3	12
2.3226	6	13	7	13
2.28	4	9	2	13
2.25	6	11	2	12
2.25	4	10	2	12
2.25	4	9	2	12
2.2321	3	8	2	13
2.2222	4	9	2	13
2.222	4	10	2	15
2.22	2	4	1	10
2.1667	4	8	1	12
2.1	4	12	3	16
2.0909	4	10	2	12
2.06	4	9	3	12
2.0588	3	10	1	13
2.0417	5	10	3	12
2.0263	6	13	4	12

2	4	9	2	10
2	5	13	4	15
2	4	8	2	13
2	3	9	3	13
1.9167	1	5	1	11
1.9091	6	10	3	14
1.875	4	9	1	12
1.8684	5	14	2	16
1.8636	2	7	1	12
1.75	7	9	1	12
1.75	7	7	1	12
1.7115	3	14	1	13
1.625	7	9	1	11
1.5556	4	10	1	13
1.55	8	14	6	7
1.5238	3	9	1	13
1.5	5	7	1	12
1.4808	3	3	1	13
1.45	3	9	1	10
1.4286	5	9	1	12
1.375	4	8	1	15
1.3704	3	13	1	13
1.3182	5	8	1	12
1.25	7	9	1	15
1.25	5	6	1	12
1.25	3	8	1	12
1.2115	0	13	1	15
1.1346	7	8	3	12
1.125	4	12	3	11
1.125	3	10	1	9
1.1111	6	8	1	12
1	5	10	2	12
1	7	9	1	14

1	7	8	1	12
1	6	5	1	10
0.96	7	10	1	11
0.7826	7	13	1	12
0.7647	6	9	1	13
0.75	8	8	1	13
0.75	2	7	1	12
0.6667	6	12	1	12
0.5789	5	6	1	12
0.5	7	10	1	12
0.5	5	3	1	9
0.5	5	11	1	9
0.3846	5	5	1	10
0.375	7	9	1	15
0.375	7	5	1	5
0.3125	5	9	1	12
0.25	7	5	1	10
0.25	6	10	1	11
0.25	6	5	1	10
0.25	4	8	1	12
0	5	5	1	10

The variables examined were frequency of parent-teacher contact with *M* = 4.6204 and *SD* of 1.75998, quality of parent-teacher relationship with *M* = 11.2130 and *SD* of 4.77151, school involvement (volunteering) with *M* = 3.4074 and *SD* of 3.24120, parent endorsement with *M* = 12.8981 and *SD* = 2.20424, grade point average with *M* = 1.9834 and *SD* = .1.03545. Data obtained for each variable can be found in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

Variables	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Frequency of Parent-Teacher Contact	4.6204	1.75998	108
Quality of Parent-Teacher Relationship	11.2130	4.77151	108
School Involvement (Volunteering)	3.4074	3.24120	108
Parent Endorsement	12.8981	2.20424	108
Grade Point Average	1.9834	1.03545	108

Results

Hypothesis

The null hypothesis for this study is the following: "There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable of high school grade point average and the linear combination of predictor variables: frequency of parent teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationship, parents' endorsement, and parental school involvement (volunteering) for Hispanic English language learners." To test the null hypothesis, a multiple regression analysis was performed using a sample size of 108, which assumed a medium effect size as measured by Cohen, with a statistical power of .70 at the .05 alpha level (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007; Warner, 2013).

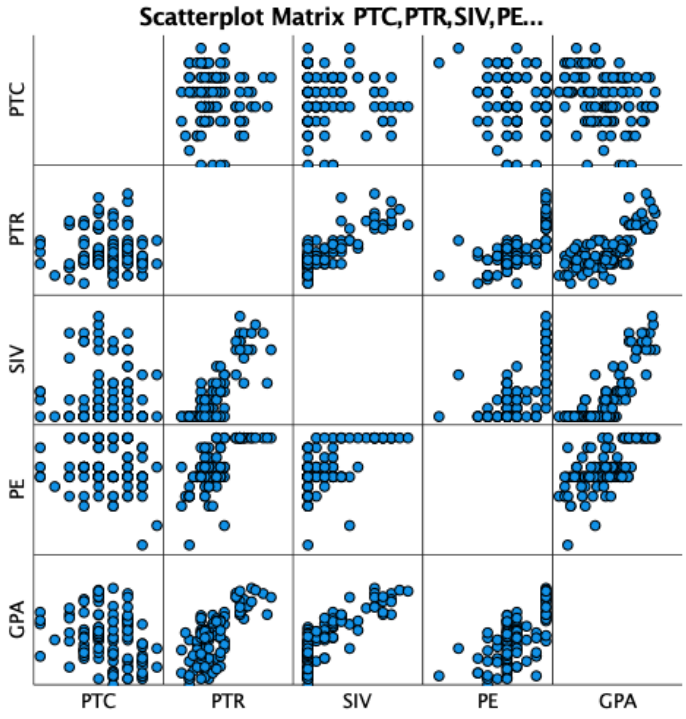
Data Screening

Preliminary data screening was conducted on each variable concerning data inconsistencies and outliers. Data were sorted for each variable and scanned for inconsistencies.

There were no data errors or inconsistencies identified. Scatterplots were used to detect outliers on each variable. There were no outliers identified. See Figure 4 for the scatterplot.

Figure 4

Scatterplot for Criterion Variables and Linear Combinations of Predictive Variables.



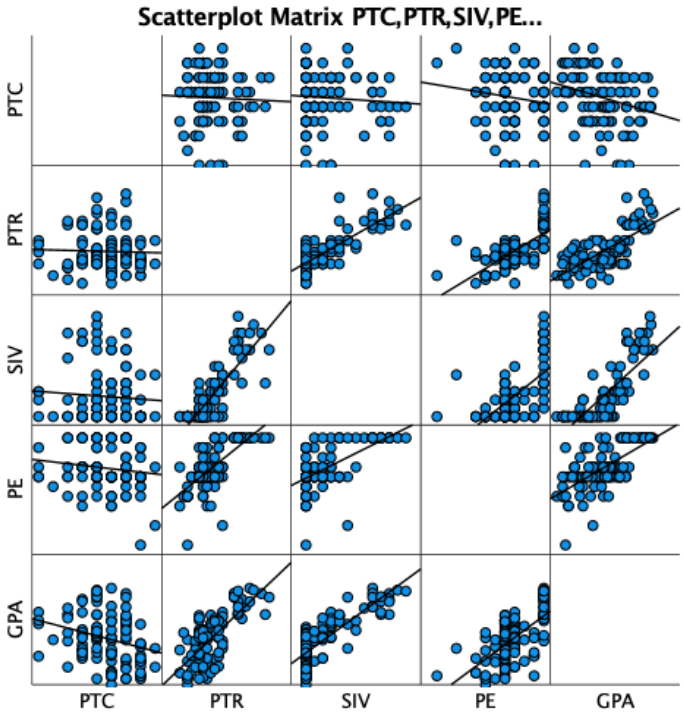
Assumptions

A multiple linear regression test was performed to test the null hypothesis that evaluated the predictive relationship between the criterion variable (high school GPA) and the linear combination of predictor variables (frequency of parent-teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationship, school involvement/volunteering, parent endorsement) for parents of Hispanic English language learner. The multiple linear regression test required that the assumptions of multivariate normality and non-multicollinearity among the predictor variable are met. The

assumption of multivariate normality was examined using a scatterplot. An elongated, cigar-shaped pattern was visible for three pair of the predictor variables and three pair of predictor variables and criterion variable. However, an elongated, cigar shaped pattern was not visible for the other three pair of the predictor variables and one pair of the predictor variables and criterion variable. Therefore, the power of the test is reduced. . See Figure 5 for scatterplot, correlation, and regression analysis.

Figure 5

Scatterplot, Correlation, and Regression Analysis



The assumption of non-multicollinearity among the predictor variable was examined using variance inflation factor. No violations of non-multicollinearity among the predictor variable were found. See Table 3 for the variance inflation factor.

Table 3

Variance Inflation Factor

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients				
		B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**	***t***	**Sig.**	**Tolerance**	***VIF***
1	(Constant)	.567	.398		1.422	.158		
	Frequency of Parent-Teacher Contact	-.123	. 030	-.209	-4.126	<.001	.970	1.031
	Quality of Parent-Teacher Relationship	.021	.021	.095	.974	.332	.263	3.798
	School Involvement (Volunteering)	.195	. 029	.609	6.826	<.001	.312	3.197
	Parent Endorsement	.085	.033	.180	2.536	.013	.494	2.025

Dependent Variable: GPA

Results for Null Hypotheses

A multiple linear regression test was performed to test the null hypothesis that evaluated the predictive relationship between the criterion variable (GPA) and the linear combination of predictor variables (frequency of parent teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationship, school involvement/volunteering, parent endorsement) for Hispanic English language learners. The linear combination of predictor variables was significantly related to high school grade point average, F (4, 103) = 74.555, p < .001. See Table 4 for the *ANOVA*.

Table 4

ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
1	Regression	85.271	4	21.318	74.555	<.001
	Residual	29.451	103	.286		
	Total	**114.722**	**107**			

a. Dependent Variable: GPA

b. Predictors: (Constant), PE, PTC, PTR, SIV

The sample multiple correlation coefficient was .86, indicating 74% of the variance of the GPA in the sample can be accounted for by the linear combination of predictor variables. See Table 5 for the coefficient of determination (R^2).

Table 5

Coefficient of Determination

Model	*R*	*R* Square	Adjusted *R* Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.862	.743	.733	.53473

a. Predictors: (Constant), PE, PTC, PTR, SIB

T-statistic coefficients for each predictor variable were examined for significance. The frequency of parent-teacher contact (t = -4.126, p < .001), school involvement/volunteering (t = 6.826, p < .001), and parent endorsement (t = 2.536, p =.013) were all found to be significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. See Table 6 for results of the regression model of coefficients.

Table 6
Regression Model Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations		
		B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**	*t*	Sig.	**Zero-order**	**Partial**	**Part**
1	(Constant)	.567	.398		1.422	.158			
	Frequency of Parent-Teacher Contact	-.123	. 030	-.209	-4.126	<.001	-.281	-.377	-.206
	Quality of Parent-Teacher Relationship	.021	.021	.095	.974	.332	.731	.096	.049
	School Involvement (Volunteering)	.195	. 029	.609	6.826	<.001	.815	.558	.341
	Parent Endorsement	.085	.033	.180	2.536	.013	.658	.242	.127

a. Dependent Variable: GPA

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

This chapter begins with a discussion of the results of this study, highlighting how the results correspond to the research, theory, and practice of the role parental involvement plays in Hispanic ELL student GPA. Next, implications of the study are discussed to demonstrate how the study added to the existing body of knowledge and theory and helped improve the field of education. Subsequently, the limitations of the study are discussed. Lastly, recommendations for further research are addressed and discussed.

Discussion

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to test the theory of overlapping spheres as it relates parental involvement to the high school grade point average of Hispanic ELLs. The researcher looked for a predictive relationship between four aspects of parental involvement and high school grade point average as the research question was "How accurately can high school grade point average be predicted from a linear combination of parental involvement factors: frequency of parent-teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationships, school involvement (volunteering), and parent endorsement for Hispanic English language learners?" The research question was answered using the *PTIQ* and high school grade point average of Hispanic ELLs. Grade point average was strongly and significantly correlated with quality of the parent-teacher relationship, school involvement (volunteering), and parent endorsement (see Table C1). Nevertheless, only frequency of parent-teacher contact, school involvement (volunteering), and parent endorsement of the school were significant predictors of GPA. The combination of all four parental involvement factors were also significant predictors of GPA as the combination accounts for 74% of Hispanic ELL students' GPA. Each of these

parental involvement factors are discussed in detail in the following sections.

Frequency of Parent-Teacher Contact

In this study, frequency of parent-teacher contact relates to the parents calling or emailing teachers, teachers calling or emailing parents, teachers inviting parents to a parent-teacher conference, and parents attending parent-teacher conferences. This study revealed that frequency of parent-teacher contact was a significant predictor of grade point average, but in a negative way. Frequent parent-teacher contacts were related to a lower GPA. These results are inconsistent with other studies. Deng et al. (2017) reported that when parents frequently contact teachers, children tend to do better. Young (2020) also reported that parent-teacher contact is linked to improved student performance through its impact on teachers' attention. Furthermore, Yong Tan et al., (2020) found that parent-teacher communication had a strong association with the achievement of students whose parents were more educated as opposed to students with less-educated parents. This is because when they communicate with their children's teachers, they more readily discuss learning and behavioral issues in the schooling and broader educational context (Yon Tan et al., 2020). Lastly, frequent parent teacher contact was directly linked to the developmental outcomes of high school students (Deng et al., 2016). The preponderance of evidence makes this a curious finding.

According to the results of this study, the highest composite score for frequency in parent-teacher contact was seven out of twenty-four, while the mean was 4.6204. However, when the results were examined more closely, the researcher found that teachers regularly made contact with parents of students with lower GPAs, but those parents rarely initiated contact with teachers (see Table C2). LeFevre and Shaw (2011) found that many Hispanic families do not contact teachers because they are less comfortable with teachers and schools in the U.S. due to

perceived discrimination. Also, many immigrant Hispanic parents are not familiar with the U.S. educational system; therefore, they do not know how to navigate the system (Antony-Newman, 2019). In the Hispanic culture, teachers play a primary role in a child's education; therefore, parents often limit their involvement in the home because of their experiences with the educational system in their native country (Johnson et al. 2016).

There was a difference in who made contact with teachers. Most participants who had a child with a GPA below 2.500 rarely initiated contact with their child's teacher but were always contacted by their child's teachers either by phone or email on multiple occasions throughout the school year, while many participants who had a child with a GPA of 2.500 or above initiated contact with their child's teacher a couple of times throughout the year (see Table C2). The latter results align with Epstein's theory of overlapping spheres and her framework of the six types of parental involvement. When schools create effective forms of communication between the school and home that updates parents about school programs and students' progress, it allows the educational success of each student to be strongly affected because the three spheres (families, schools, community) are working together (Epstein, 1987, 1995, 2001; Epstein et al., 2009).

Quality of Parent-Teacher Relationship

In this study, quality of parent-teacher relationship involved parents feeling welcome to visit the school, enjoying talks with their child's teacher, feeling that the teacher cares about their child and is interested in getting to them, and feeling comfortable enough to ask questions and make suggestions. It was not a significant predictor of grade point average in this study. These results are inconsistent with other studies. Sibley and Brabeck (2017) reported that strong parent-teacher relationships built on trust are important to the educational success of immigrant

students. Parent-teacher relationships are positively associated with high school students' academic, career, and personal/social developmental outcomes (Deng et al., 2017).

According to the results of this study, the highest composite score for quality of parent-teacher relationship was twenty-six out of twenty-eight, while the mean was 11.2130. When the results were examined more closely, the researcher found that some participants were very comfortable talking to their child's teacher, but many were only a little comfortable talking to their child's teacher or not at all (see Table C3). Hispanic parents, especially immigrant parents, are not confident in their language and academic skills; therefore, they are hesitant to communicate with teachers and other school staff (Conus & Fahrni, 2017; Delgado, Huerta, & Campos, 2012). If teachers and school staff do not provide interpretation services, Hispanic parents perceived teachers and school as unwelcoming because teachers and other school staff did not speak Spanish and did not share the parents' cultural knowledge of a good education and appropriate teacher-parent relationship (Miller et al., 2016).

Additionally, the researcher found that many participants did not ask the teachers questions, and no one made suggestions (see Table C3). In the Hispanic culture, interactions within families, school, and the community at large are governed by the rules of respeto, personalismo, and confianza. Each of these cultural expectations plays an important role in understanding Hispanic families. Teachers and other school staff are traditionally viewed as being in positions of authority (Shim, 2018), which merits respeto. Therefore, Hispanic parents may view behaviors such as asking teachers about the curriculum or advocating for their child's needs as challenging someone in a position of authority, which would violate cultural expectations of respeto (LeFevre & Shaw, 2011).

Participants who had a child with a GPA below 2.500 exposed that they had an unhealthy relationship with their child's teacher. In contrast, many participants who had a child with a GPA of 2.500 or above showed that they had a positive relationship with their child's teacher (see Table C3). These results support Epstein's theory of overlapping spheres and her framework of the six types of parental involvement. When a partnership approach between parents and teachers is apparent, parents and teachers communicate more effectively, develop stronger relationships with one another, and develop skills to support children's learning at home and school (Epstein, 1987, 1995, 2001; Epstein et al., 2009).

School Involvement (Volunteering)

In this study, school involvement (volunteering) consisted of parents stopping by the school, attending special events and Parent-Teacher Association meetings, sending items to school, parents taking their child to the library, and volunteering at the school. The study revealed that school involvement was the most significant predictor of GPA for Hispanic ELL students. The emphasis on school involvement (volunteering) is consistent with most studies. Catsambis (2001) reported that if Hispanic parents participate in school activities and volunteer at school, it could enhance their ability to guide their children's education from middle grades to their last years of high school. Ross (2016) also found that school involvement is directly related to of high school completion.

According to the results of this study, the highest composite score for quality of parent-teacher relationship was 12 out of 36, while the mean was 3.4074. When the results were examined more closely, the researcher found all participants were invited to attended special events, but only some attended (see Table C4). Also, not one subject in this study participated in

the PTA (see Table C4). This is important because Park and Holloway (2016) found that parent participation in the PTA lead to higher academic success as a school.

Participants who had a child with a GPA below 2.500 were less likely to participate in school-sponsored events even if they were invited by the school, while many participants who had a child with a GPA of 2.500 or above were more likely to participate in school-sponsored events, especially if they were invited (see Table C4). Thus, Hispanic parents are willing to be involved in their children's education using various parental involvement strategies, including school activity participation and volunteering (Delgado-Gaitan, 1994), but they need to be encouraged. These results support Epstein's theory of overlapping spheres and her framework of the six types of parental involvement. Parents become more involved in their children's education at home and school when they perceive that their collaboration is actively encouraged by the teachers and the school (Epstein, 1987, 1995, 2001; Epstein et al., 2009).

Parent Endorsement of the School

In this study, parent endorsement consisted of parents believing the school was a good place for their child, the school is doing good things for their child, they have confidence in the staff, and the school is doing a good job preparing students for their futures. This parental involvement factor was also a significant predictor of GPA. This is consistent with literature as parent satisfaction has been linked to how well students in the school perform academically (Chambers & Michelson, 2016; Gibbons & Silva, 2011). However, one of noticeable difference in the results of this study, as compared to existing studies, was that almost all participants in this study either endorsed or strongly endorsed their child's school regardless of GPA (see Table C5). Milovanska-Farrington (2021) reported that excellent academic performance of the child is associated with higher parental satisfaction. Nevertheless, participants who had a child with a

GPA below 2.500 still endorsed their child's school (see Table C5). This may be the case because Hispanic parents often limit their role of involvement to the home because of their experiences with the educational system in their native country (Johnson et al. 2016). They believe teachers have the primary responsibility of educating children, so they don't question their work.

The Combination of Four Parental Involvement Factors

Lastly, the study revealed that the linear combination of the four parental involvement factors: frequency of parent-teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationships, school involvement (volunteering), and parent endorsement was significantly related to high school grade point average. These results are consistent with the literature. Day & Dotterer (2018) found that among Hispanic adolescents, parents should use a combination of parental involvement strategies to include academic socialization, home-based involvement, and school-based involvement as it is linked to higher GPAs.

The study also revealed that participants who had a healthy relationship with their child's teacher and were satisfied with their child's school were parents of students who were achieving at a high academic level. This is consistent with other studies. Hampden-Thompson and Galindo (2016) found that while positive school-family relationships were a predictor of achievement, that association was mediated by the degree of parents' satisfaction with their child's school. Therefore, positive school-family relationships and high levels of school satisfaction do have the ability to raise achievement (Hampden-Thompson & Galindo, 2016).

Implications

Chapter two included a description of Epstein's theory of overlapping spheres and her framework of six types of parent involvement. The results of this study and how it connects with this model and framework and implications for practice will be discussed below.

One of the main concepts of the theory of overlapping spheres of influence is that fixed goals (e.g., academic achievement) are important to families, schools, and communities, and the best way to accomplish these goals is through the support and cooperation of all three entities (Epstein, 1995). This theory is connected to the six types of parent involvement framework as it helps generate more overlap between spheres. In this study, frequency of parent-teacher contact, quality of parent-teacher relationships, school involvement, and parent endorsement are all linked to one of the six types of parent involvement. The frequency of parent-teacher contact is most closely linked to communicating. The quality of parent-teacher relationships is most closely linked to decision-making. School involvement is most closely linked to volunteering. Parent endorsement is closely linked to parenting and learning at home. The result of this study aligns with Epstein's theory of overlapping influences as it confirms that the educational success of each student is strongly affected when the three spheres work together (Epstein, 1987, 1995, 2001; Epstein et al., 2009). When parents participate in the education of their child, the zone of interaction between the three spheres increased and was at a maximum when the school and the family functioned as genuine partners, which included a number of shared activities (e.g., parent-teacher conferences, phone calls, emails, school events, etc.).

The current study supplemented the existing literature on parental involvement and academic outcomes, particularly parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs. It examined the impact of parental involvement on high school GPA and the linking dimensions of parental involvement

among high school Hispanic ELLs. Lastly, it advanced the theory of overlapping spheres of influence by demonstrating that theoretical models proposing parent-teacher partnerships do benefit high school Hispanic ELLs, making it more applicable to all populations, as there was limited research on the non-English speaking population of students and parents. These partnerships assist parents in providing better support for their children because schools and communities can give parents important information (Carpenter et al., 2016).

One implication drawn from this research study is the variations in communication levels between parents and schools among students with high GPAs. The study found that teachers contact parents of struggling students more than parents of students who achieve high academic levels. High school students typically have more than one teacher. If students with a low GPA are struggling in one class, they are most likely struggling in another class. Therefore, the results of this study suggests that multiple teachers may be contacting parents, but at different times, about the same thing. This study also suggests that high schools are larger than elementary and middle schools; therefore, teachers have more students making it harder to contact families. So, they do their due diligence by only reaching out to parents of struggling students to make them aware that their child is struggling in their class. This may explain why frequent parent-teacher contact was a significant, but negative predictor of GPA.

A second implication drawn from this research study is that parents had varying degrees of comfortability with talking to their child's teacher. It also implies that if parents are uncomfortable with a teacher, they are most likely uncomfortable participating in school activities. The study found that parents of students with a GPA of 3.0000 or higher felt a great deal of comfort, while parents of students with lower GPAs only felt a little comfort. This suggests that there is a language barrier, and no one is available to help with interpretation

services.

These implications are important to high school educators so that they can work toward creating effective forms of communication between the school and home that updates parents about school programs and the students' progress. Additionally, the amount of direct contact with the teachers and parents is important, no matter if it is in person, by phone, or written. Educators just need to know which method of communication is best for each family so that they can ensure that there is open communication between them and their students' parents. Additionally, educators need to be sure someone is available to communicate in the parent's dominant language, as communication is critical to a student's success.

These implications are important to researchers because they can work on conducting research in more locations to see if these results are consistent with a larger sample. In addition, researchers can conduct future studies to determine how other types of parental involvement impact high school grade point average. By determining how other types of parental involvement impact high school grade point average, schools can implement programs that help parents practice positive parental involvement, and hopefully, decrease the academic achievement gap among Hispanic ELL students and other ethnicities.

Limitations

There were three limitations with this research study. The first limitation of this research study is that it was limited to one school district in Durham, North Carolina, and the sample of 108 only included 35 students who had a GPA considered to be college-ready (>2.5000). This threatens the external validity as the results cannot be representative of a larger population. The data from this research study may be skewed since it only represents one school district, and

there was a low number of parents of students with a 2.5 or higher GPA. To overcome this limitation, the results of this study can be compared to other similar school districts.

The second limitation of this research study is that the data does not include participant variables (e.g., gender). This threatens the internal validity as the study could have had extraneous factors that can equally explain the results of the study. Certain aspects of a participant's background (e.g., mom vs. dad) could have affected the results of the study. Therefore, the data may not be strong enough to explain the complexity of parental involvement.

A third limitation of this study is its correlational nature. The study's findings must be viewed through the lens of probabilities associated with explained variation in data instead of causal factors associated with parent-teacher involvement. One cannot say with certainty that any of the variables in this study caused the outcome. Data-driven (or data-influenced) decisions in education benefit from as much certainty as we can give the stakeholders involved in making these decisions.

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the results of this study and the review of the related literature, the following recommendations for further research are presented regarding parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs and high school grade point average:

1. Replicating this research study in additional school districts across the United States would allow for a larger sample of data to be analyzed. By analyzing a larger sample of data, the results would be more representative of the United States' population of ELLs.
2. Replicating this study by combining quantitative and qualitative research would allow for more robust data that will help the researcher get better picture of how parental

involvement affects high school grade point average; this includes implementing experimental controls with variables analyze causal outcomes.

3. This research study was limited to parent reports, which warrants another study in which parent and teacher reports are to be used. Using multiple reports of parental involvement would allow the researcher to analyze the data among parents and teachers as it relates to parental involvement. It would help to obtain an all-inclusive view of parent involvement.
4. Future research could benefit from using a different instrument that is more appropriate for parents of high school students. The *PTIQ* is more applicable to parents of elementary students. A different instrument would allow the researcher to obtain data that would be more relevant to how a parent is truly involved in a high school student's education.
5. Replicating this research study with immigrant parents whose native language is English to determine if the results will differ if the language barrier does not exist.
6. Conducting a study that focuses on the relationship between the parents and the school counselors as the student support services team members play a pivotal role in the students' academic, social-emotional, and career development.

REFERENCES

Adams, K. S., & Christenson, S. L. (2000). Trust and the family–school relationship examination of parent–teacher differences in elementary and secondary grades. *Journal of School Psychology*, *38*(5), 477–497. doi: 10.1016/s0022-4405(00)00048-0

Antony-Newman, M. (2018). Parental involvement of immigrant parents: A meta-synthesis. *Educational Review*, *71*(3), 362–381. doi: 10.1080/00131911.2017.1423278

Arellanes, J. A., Viramontez Anguiano, R. P., & Lohman, B. (2017). The desire to thrive: Families overcoming economic hardships through educational aspirations. *Journal of Family and Economic issues*, *38*(3), 338–353. doi:10.1007/s10834-017-9539-2

Baker, T. L., Wise, J., Kelley, G., & Skiba, R. J. (2016). Identifying barriers: Creating solutions to improve family engagement. *School Community Journal*, *26*(2), 161–184. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1124003.pdf

Behnke, A. O., Taylor, B. A., & Parra-Cardona, J. R. (2008). I hardly understand English, but...": Mexican origin fathers describe their commitment as fathers despite the challenges of immigration. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, *39*(2), 187–205. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/41604210

Benner, A. D., Boyle, A. E., & Sadler, S. (2016). Parental involvement and adolescents' educational success: The roles of prior achievement and socioeconomic status. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *45*(6), 1053–1064. doi: 10.1007/s10964-016-0431-4

Berger, E. H. (2008). *Parents as partners in education: families and friends working together*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Bhargava, S., & Witherspoon, D.P. (2015). Parental involvement across middle and high school: Exploring contributions of individual and neighborhood characteristics. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 44*(9), 1702-1719. doi: 10.1007/s10964-015-0334-9

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1994). Ecological models of human development. In *International Encyclopedia of Education* (2nd ed., Vol. 3, pp. 1643–1647). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

Carpenter, B. W., Young, M. D., Bowers, A., & Sanders, K. (2016). Family involvement at the secondary level: Learning from Texas Borderland Schools, *NASSP Bulletin, 100*(1), 47–70. doi: 10.1177/0192636516648208

Catsambis, S. (2001). Expanding knowledge of parental involvement in children's secondary education: Connections with high school seniors' academic success. *Social Psychology of Education, 5*(2), 149-177.

Chambers, S., & Michelson, M. R. (2016). School satisfaction among low-income urban parents. *Urban Education, 55*(2), 299–321. doi: 10.1177/0042085916652190

Chang, M., Choi, N., & Kim, S. (2015). School involvement of parents of linguistic and racial minorities and their children's mathematics performance. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 21*(3), 209–231. doi: 10.1080/13803611.2015.1034283

Comer, J. (1986). Parent participation in the schools. *The Phi Delta Kappan, 67*(6), 442–446. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/20387682

Conus, X., & Fahrni, L. (2017). Routine communication between teachers and parents from minority groups: An endless misunderstanding? *Educational Review, 71*(2), 234–256. doi: 10.1080/00131911.2017.1387098

Crozier, G., & Davies, J. (2007). “Hard to Reach Parents or Hard to Reach Schools? A Discussion of Home-School Relations, with Particular Reference to Bangladeshi and Pakistani Parents.” *British Educational Research Journal*, *33*(3): 295–313. doi: 10.1080/01411920701243578

Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Currie-Rubin, R., & Smith, S. J. (2014). Understanding the roles of families in virtual learning. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, *46*(5), 117–126. doi: 10.1177/0040059914530101

Davis-Kean, P., & Sexton, H. R. (2009). Race differences in parental influences on child achievement: Multiple pathways to success. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, *55*(3), 285-318. doi:10.1353/mpq.0.0023

Day, E., & Dotterer, A.M. (2018). Parental involvement and adolescent academic outcomes: Exploring differences in beneficial strategies across racial/ethnic groups. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *47*(6), 1332-1348. doi: 10.1007/s10964-018-0853-2

Delgado-Gaitan, C. (1994). Consejos: The power of cultural narratives. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly, 25*(3), 298–316. doi: 10.1525/aeq.1994.25.3.04x0146p

Delgado, R., Huerta, M.E., & Campos, D. (2012). Enhancing relationships with parents and English language learners. *Principal Leadership*, *12*(6), 30-34. Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ975843

Deng, L., Zhou, N., Nie, R., Jin, P., Yang, M., & Fang, X. (2017). Parent-teacher partnership and high school students' development in mainland China: The mediating role of teacher-student relationship. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, *38*(1), 15–31. doi: 10.1080/02188791.2017.1361904

Dotterer, A. M., & Wehrspann, E. (2015). Parent involvement and academic outcomes among urban adolescents: Examining the role of school engagement. *Educational Psychology, 36*(4), 812-830. doi:10.1080/01443410.2015.1099617

Dreby, J. (2015). *Everyday illegal: When policies undermine immigrant families*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Duppong Hurley, K., Lambert, M.C., January, S.A., & D'Angelo, J.H. (2017). Confirmatory factor analyses comparing parental involvement frameworks with secondary student. *Psychology of Schools, 54*(9), 947-964. doi: 10.1002/pits.22039

Edwards, A. (2019, February 27). Hispanic poverty rate hit an all-time low in 2017. Retrieved October 10, 2019, from https://www.census.gov/library/stories/2019/02/hispanic-poverty-rate-hit-an-all-time-low-in-2017.html.

Enriquez, L. E. (2015). Multigenerational punishment: Shared experiences of undocumented immigration status within Mixed-Status families. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 77*(4), 939-953. doi:10.1111/jomf.12196.

Epstein, J. L. (1987). Toward a theory of family-school connections: Teacher practices and parent involvement. In K. Hurrelman, F. Kaufmann, and F. Losel (Eds.), *Social intervention: Potential and constraints* (pp. 121-136). New York: DeGruyter.

Epstein, J. L. (1995). School/family/community partnerships: Caring for the children we share. *Phi Delta Kappan, 76*(9), 701. Retrieved from https://www.govinfo.gov/content/pkg/ERIC-ED467082/pdf/ERIC-ED467082.pdf

Epstein, J.L. (1996). Perspectives and previews on research and policy for school, family, and community partnerships. In *Family-school links: How do they affect educational outcomes?* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Epstein, J. L. (2001). Building bridges of home, school, and community: The importance of design. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk, 6*(1-2), 161-168. doi:10.1207/S15327671ESPR0601-2_10

Epstein, J. L. (2010). School/Family/Community partnerships: Caring for the children we share. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *92*(3), 81–96. doi: 10.1177/003172171009200326

Epstein, J., Sanders, M., Sheldon, S., Simon, B., Salinas, K., Jansorn, N., et al. (2009). *School, family, and community partnerships: Your handbook for action.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Fast Track. (2003). Parent-teacher involvement questionnaire: Parent version (original and grade 4+). Durham, NC: Duke University. Retrieved from http://www.fasttrackproject.org/techrept/p/ptp/

Freeman, M. (2010). Knowledge is acting: Working-class parents' intentional acts of positioning within the discursive practice of involvement. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, 23*, 181-198. doi:10.1080/09518390903081629

Friedman, B. A., Bobrowski, P. E., & Markow, D. (2007). Predictors of parents' satisfaction with their children's school. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *45*(3), 278–288. doi: 10.1108/09578230710747811

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction* (8th ed.). New York, NY: Allyn & Bacon.

Garbacz, S. A., Mcintyre, L. L., & Santiago, R. T. (2016). Family involvement and parent–teacher relationships for students with autism spectrum disorders. *School Psychology Quarterly, 31*(4), 478–490. doi: 10.1037/spq0000157

Gibbons, S., & Silva, O. (2011). School quality, child wellbeing and parents' satisfaction. *Economics of Education Review, 30*(2), 312–331. doi: 10.1016/j.econedurev.2010.11.001

Good, M. E., Masewicz, S., & Vogel, L. (2010). Latino English language learners: Bridging achievement and cultural gaps between schools and families. *Journal of Latinos and Education, 9*(4), 321-339. doi:0.1080/15348431.2010.491048

Grolnick, W. S., & Slowiaczek, M. L. (1994). Parents' involvement in children's schooling: A multidimensional conceptualization and motivational model. *Child Development, 65*, 237–252. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.1994.tb00747.x

Hampden-Thompson, G., & Galindo, C. (2016). School–family relationships, school satisfaction and the academic achievement of young people. *Educational Review, 69*(2), 248–265. doi: 10.1080/00131911.2016.1207613

Hill, N. E., & Taylor, L. C. (2004). Parental school involvement and children's academic achievement. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 13*(4), 161–164. doi: 10.1111/j.0963-7214.2004.00298.x

Hill, N.E., & Tyson, D.F. (2009). Parental involvement in middle school: a meta-analytic assessment of the strategies that promote achievement. *Developmental Psychology, 45*, 740-763. doi: 10.1037/a0015362

Hill, N. E., & Torres, K. (2010). Negotiating the American dream: The paradox of aspirations and achievement among Latino students and engagement between their families and schools. *Journal of Social Issues, 66*(1), 95-112. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4560.2009.01635.x

Hurley, K. D., Lambert, M. C., January, S. A., & D'Angelo, J.H. (2017). Confirmatory factor analyses comparing parental involvement frameworks with secondary student. *Psychology of Schools, 54*(9), 947-964. doi: 10.1002/pits.22039

Jensen, E. (2009). *Teaching with poverty in mind: What being poor does to kids' brains and what schools can do about it.* Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Jeynes, W .H. (2007). The relationship between parental involvement and urban secondary school student academic achievement. *Urban Education, 42*(1), 82-110. doi:0.1177/0042085906293818

Jimerson, S. R., Patterson, M. S., Stein, R., & Babcock, S. K. (2016). Understanding educational success among Latino/a English language learners: Factors associated with high school completion and postsecondary school attendance. *Contemporary School Psychology, 20*(4), 402-416. doi:10.1007/s40688-016-0100-3

Johnson, S.B., Arevalo, J., Cates, C.B., Weisleder, A., Dreyer, B.P., & Mendelsohn, A. L. (2016). Perceptions about parental engagement among Hispanic immigrant mothers of first graders from low-income backgrounds. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 44* (5): 445–452. doi: 10.1007/s10643-015-0728-z

Jónsdóttir, K., Björnsdóttir, A., & Bæck, U.-D. K. (2017). Influential factors behind parents' general satisfaction with compulsory schools in Iceland. *Nordic Journal of Studies in Educational Policy, 3*(2), 155–164. doi: 10.1080/20020317.2017.1347012

Jung, E., & Zhang, Y. (2016). Parental involvement, children' aspirations, and achievement in new immigrant families. *The Journal of Educational Research, 109*(4), 333-350. doi:10.1080/00220671.2014.959112

Kaczan, R., Rycielski, P., & Wasilewska, O. (2014). Parental satisfaction with school – determining factors. *Edukacja*, *6*(131), 39–52. Retrieved from http://www.edukacja.ibe.edu.pl/images/numery/2014/6-3-kaczan-et-al-parental-satisfaction-with-school.pdf

Kohl, G.O., Lengua, L.J., & McMahon, R.J. (2000). Parent involvement in school: Conceptualizing multiple dimensions and their relations with family and demographic risk factors. *Journal of School Psychology, 38*(6), 501–523. doi: 10.1016/S0022-4405(00)00050-9

Kosaretskii, S. G., & Chernyshova, D. V. (2013). Electronic communication between the school and the home. *Russian Education & Society*, *55*(10), 81–89. doi: 10.2753/res1060-9393551006

Leenders, H., Jong, J. D., Monfrance, M., & Haelermans, C. (2019). Building strong parent–teacher relationships in primary education: The challenge of two-way communication. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *49*(4), 519–533. doi: 10.1080/0305764x.2019.1566442

Lefevre, A. L., & Shaw, T. V. (2011). Latino parent involvement and school success. *Education and Urban Society*, *44*(6), 707–723. doi: 10.1177/0013124511406719

Li, G., Lin, M., Liu, C., Johnson, A., Li, Y., & Loyalka, P. (2019). The prevalence of parent-teacher interaction in developing countries and its effect on student outcomes. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 86*, 102878. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2019.102878

Liberty University. (n.d.). IRB applications and templates. Retrieved June 30, 2019, from https://www.liberty.edu/academics/graduate/irb/index.cfm?PID=20088

Liu, Z., & White, M. J. (2017). Education outcomes of immigrant youth: The role of parental engagement. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 674*(1), 27-58. doi:10.1177/0002716217730009

Livingston, G. (2014, April 24). Among Hispanics, immigrants more likely to be stay-at-home moms and to believe that's best for kids. Retrieved March 23, 2020, from https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2014/04/24/among-hispanics-immigrants-more-likely-to-be-stay-at-home-moms-and-to-believe-thats-best-for-kids/

Moon, S. S., Kang, S.-Y., & An, S. (2009). Predictors of immigrant children's school achievement: A comparative study. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, *23*(3), 278–289. doi: 10.1080/02568540909594661

Mautone, J. A., Marcelle, E., Tresco, K. E., & Power, T. J. (2015). Assessing the quality of parent-teacher relationships for students with ADHD. *Psychology in the Schools*, *52*(2), 196–207. doi:10.1002/pits.21817

Meier, C., & Lemmer, E. (2018). Parents as consumers: a case study of parent satisfaction with the quality of schooling. *Educational Review*, *71*(5), 617–630. doi: 10.1080/00131911.2018.1465395

Miller-Johnson, S. & Maumary-Gremaud, A. (1995). Parent-teacher Involvement: Parent version (Fast Track Project Technical Report). Durham, NC: Duke University. Retrieved from https://fasttrackproject.org/techrept/p/ptp/ptp2tech.pdf

Miller, H., Valentine, J. L., Fish, R., & Robinson, M. (2016). Is the feeling mutual? Examining parent-teacher relationships in low-income, predominantly Latino schools. *American Journal of Education*, *123*(1), 37–67. doi: 10.1086/688167

Milovanska-Farrington, S. (2021). Do parents expect too much or is it all about grades? The discrepancy between parents' aspirations and child's academic performance, and parental satisfaction with the school. *IZA Discussion Papers* 14275, Institute of Labor Economics (IZA). Retrieved from http://ftp.iza.org/dp14275.pdf

Musu-Gillette, L., de Brey, C., McFarland, J., Hussar, W., Sonnenberg, W., & Wilkinson-Flicker, S. (2017). Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups 2017 (NCES 2017-051). *U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.* Washington, DC. Retrieved March 17, 2020 from https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2017/2017051.pdf

Natale, K. (2018). Use of communication and technology among educational professionals and families. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *10*(3), 377–384. doi: 10.26822/iejee.2018336196

Nitza, D., & Roman, Y. (2017). Who needs parent-teacher meetings in the technological era? International Journal of Higher Education, 6(1). doi:10.5430/ijhe.v6n1p153

Olivos, E. M., & Mendoza, M. (2010). Immigration and educational inequality: Examining Latino immigrant parents' engagement in U.S. public schools. *Journal of Immigrant & Refugee Studies*, *8*(3), 339–357. doi: 10.1080/15562948.2010.501301

Panferov, S. (2010) Increasing ELL parental involvement in our schools: Learning from the parents. *Theory Into Practice, 49*(2). 106-112, doi: 10.1080/00405841003626551

Park, S., & Holloway, S. D. (2016). The effects of school-based parental involvement on academic achievement at the child and elementary school level: A longitudinal study. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *110*(1), 1–16. doi: 10.1080/00220671.2015.1016600

Park, S., Stone, S. I., & Holloway, S. D. (2017). School-based parental involvement as a predictor of achievement and school learning environment: An elementary school-level analysis. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *82*, 195–206. doi: 10.1016/j.childyouth.2017.09.012

Pemberton, K. D., & Miller, S. (2015). Building home–school relationships to enhance reading achievement for students from families with limited financial resources. *Education and Urban Society*, *47*(7) 743–765**.** doi: 10.1177/0013124513508979

Plunkett, S.W., & Bamaca-Gomez, M.Y. (2003). The relationship between parenting, acculturation, and adolescent academics in Mexican-origin immigrant families in Los Angeles. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 25*(2), 222-239. doi:10.1177/0739986303025002005

Ratcliff, N., & Hunt, G. (2009). Building teacher-family partnerships: The role of teacher preparation. *Education, 129*(3), 495-505. Retrieved from https://link-gale-com.ezproxy.liberty.edu/apps/doc/A196151544/OVIC?u=vic_liberty&sid=OVIC&xid=60fc68cd

Reese, L., Balzano, S., Gallimore, R., & Goldenberg, C. (1995). The concept of educación: Latino family values and American schooling. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *23*(1), 57–81. doi: 10.1016/0883-0355(95)93535-4

Reschly, A. L., & Christenson, S. L. (2012). Moving from "context matters" to engaged partnerships with families. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, *22*(1-2), 62–78. doi: 10.1080/10474412.2011.649650

Riggs, N. R., & Greenberg, M. T. (2004). Moderators in the academic development of migrant Latino children attending after-school programs. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, *25*(3), 349–367. doi: 10.1016/j.appdev.2004.04.005

Ross, T. R. (2016). The differential effects of parental involvement on high school completion and postsecondary attendance. *Educational Policy Analysis Archives, 24*(30), 1-36. doi: 10.14507/epaa.24.2030

Rovai, A. P., Baker, J. D., & Ponton, M. K. (2014). *Social science research design and statistics: A practitioner's guide to research methods and IBM SPSS analysis*. Chesapeake, VA: Watertree Press.

Ryan, C. L., & Bauman, K. (2016, March). Educational attainment in the United States: 2015. Retrieved March 20, 2020, from https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2016/demo/p20-578.pdf

Santiago, R. T., Garbacz, S. A., Beattie, T., & Moore, C. L. (2016). Parent-teacher relationships in elementary school: An examination of parent-teacher trust. *Psychology in the Schools*, *53*(10), 1003–1017. doi: 10.1002/pits.21971

Serpell, Z. N., & Mashburn, A. J. (2011). Family-school connectedness and children's early social development. *Social Development*, *21*(1), 21–46. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9507.2011.00623.x

Shim, J. M. (2018). Involving the parents of English language learners in a rural area: Focus on the dynamics of teacher-parent interactions. *The Rural Educator, 34*(3). doi: 10.35608/ruraled.v34i3.396

Sibley, E., & Brabeck, K. (2017). Latino immigrant students' school experiences in the United States: The importance of family– school–community collaborations. School *Community Journal, 27*(1), 137-157. Retrieved from http://www.schoolcommunitynetwork.org/SCJ.aspx

Tarasawa, B., & Waggoner, J. (2015). Increasing parental involvement of English Language Learner families: What the research says. *Journal of Children and Poverty, 21(*2), 129-134. doi: 10.1080/10796126.2015.1058243

Thayamathy, P., Elango, P., & Karunarathna, K. (2018). Factors affecting academic performances of undergraduates: A case study with third year science undergraduate of Eastern University, Sri Lanka. *Journal of Education, Society and Behavioural Science, 25*(3), 1–10. doi: 10.9734/jesbs/2018/41697

Thompson, B. C., Mazer, J. P., & Grady, E. F. (2015). The changing nature of parent-teacher communication: Mode selection in the smartphone era. *Communication Education, 64*(2), 187–207. doi: 10.1080/03634523.2015.1014382

Turney, K., & Kao, G. (2009). Barriers to school involvement: Are immigrant parents disadvantaged? *The Journal of Educational Research, 102*(4), 257-271. doi:10.3200/joer.102.4.257-271

Vera, E., Heineke, A., Carr, A., Camacho, D., Israel, M. S., Goldberger, N., Clawson, A., & Hill, M. (2017). Latino parents of English learners in Catholic schools: Home vs. school based educational involvement. *Journal of Catholic Education, 20*(2), 1–29.

doi: 10.15365/joce.2002012017

Vera, E. M., Israel, M. S., Cross, J., Knight-Lynn, L., Moallem, I., Bartucci, G., & Goldberger, N. (2012). Exploring the educational involvement of parents of English learners. *School Community Journal*, *22*(2), 183–202. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1001618.pdf

Wang, L., & Fahey, D. (2010). Parental volunteering. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 40*(6), 1113–1131. doi: 10.1177/0899764010386237

Wang, M., & Sheikh-Khalil, S. (2014). Does parental involvement matter for student achievement and mental health in high school? *Child Development, 85*(2), 610-625. doi: 10.1111/cdev.12153

Warner, R. M. (2013). *Applied statistics: From bivariate through multivariate techniques* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Yong Tan,C., Lyu,M. & Peng, B. (2020) Academic benefits from parental involvement are stratified by parental socioeconomic status: A Meta-analysis, *Parenting, 20*(4), 241-287, doi:10.1080/15295192.2019.1694836

Young, N.A. (2020). Getting the teacher's attention: Parent-teacher contact and teachers' behavior in the classroom. *Social Forces 99*(2), 560-589. Retrieved from https://www.muse.jhu.edu/article/774258.

Zarate, M. E. (2007). *Understanding Latino parental involvement in education perceptions, expectations, and recommendations*. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED502065.pdf

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: IRB PERMISSIONS

[Date]

[School District Name]
Office of the Superintendent
[School District Address]

Dear [Name],

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The title of my research project is "The Relationship between Parental Involvement of Hispanic English Language Learners and High School Grade Point Average" and the purpose of my research is to examine the relationship between parental involvement of English language learners (ELL) and grade point average (GPA).

I am writing to request your permission to conduct my research in [Name] High School. I would also like permission to access student records.

The data will be used to determine if there is a predictive relationship between parental involvement of Hispanic ELLs and GPA. Participants will be presented with informed consent information prior to participating. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary, and participants are welcome to discontinue participation at any time.

Thank you for considering my request. If you choose to grant permission, please provide a signed statement on official letterhead indicating your approval. A permission letter document is attached for your convenience.

Sincerely,

Jameka Floyd
Doctoral Candidate
Liberty University

[Date]

Dear Parent:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The title of my research project is "The Relationship between Parental Involvement of Hispanic English Language Learners and High School Grade Point Average" and the purpose of my research is to examine the relationship between parental involvement of Hispanic English language learners (ELL) and grade point average (GPA).

You have a child that is an English language learner, and I need your help. I am hoping that you will be able to complete a brief survey, so that I can collect and evaluate the results efficiently. To participate in this study just click on the link below or copy and paste the website below into your internet browser. When you click the survey link, a consent document is the first thing document that will be provided. The informed consent document contains information about my research. You will need to read, acknowledge, and consent in order to take part in the survey. You will also need to provide your digital signature and date. After you complete the informed consent form, you will be provided a PDF copy of the signed informed consent form for your records. You will then be directed to the 26-item parent involvement questionnaire. Please know that you will need to provide your child's name, so that I will be able to request your child's grade point average from district office. This information will remain confidential. It should take approximately 10 minutes for you to complete the survey.

If you have any questions, please contact me at [redacted]

Sincerely,

Jameka Floyd
Doctoral Candidate
Liberty University

[Fecha]

Estimado padre:

Como estudiante de posgrado en la Escuela de Educación de la Universidad Liberty, estoy llevando a cabo investigaciones como parte de los requisitos para un doctorado. El título de mi proyecto de investigación es "La relación entre la participación de los padres de los estudiantes hispanos de inglés y el promedio de punto de grado de la escuela secundaria" y el propósito de mi investigación es examinar la relación entre la participación de los padres de los estudiantes de inglés hispano (ELL) y el promedio de punto de grado (GPA).

Tienes un hijo que es un aprendiz de inglés, y necesito tu ayuda. Espero que pueda completar una breve encuesta, para que pueda recopilar y evaluar los resultados de manera eficiente. Para participar en este estudio simplemente haga clic en el siguiente enlace o copie y pegue el sitio web a continuación en su navegador de Internet. Al hacer clic en el vínculo de la encuesta, un documento de consentimiento es el primer documento que se proporcionará. El documento de consentimiento informado contiene información sobre mi investigación. Deberá leer, reconocer y dar su consentimiento para participar en la encuesta. También tendrá que proporcionar su firma digital y fecha. Después de completar el formulario de consentimiento informado, se le proporcionará una copia en PDF del formulario de consentimiento informado firmado para sus registros. A continuación, se le dirigirá al cuestionario de participación de los padres de 26 elementos. Por favor, sepa que tendrá que proporcionar el nombre de su hijo, para que pueda solicitar el promedio de punto de calificación de su hijo de la oficina del distrito. Esta información seguirá siendo confidencial. Debe tomar aproximadamente 10 minutos para completar la encuesta.

Si tiene alguna pregunta, póngase en contacto conmigo en [redacted]

Sinceramente,

Jameka Floyd
Candidato a doctorado
Universidad liberty

[Date]

Dear Parent:

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The title of my research project is The Relationship between Parental Involvement of Hispanic English Language Learners and High School Grade Point Average, and the purpose of my research is to examine the relationship between parental involvement of Hispanic English language learners (ELL) and grade point average (GPA).

You have a child who is an English language learner, and I need your help. I am hoping that you will be able to complete a brief survey, so that I can collect and evaluate the results efficiently. To participate in this study just click on the link below or copy and paste the website below into your internet browser. When you click the survey link, a consent document is the first document that will be provided. The informed consent document contains information about my research. You will need to read, acknowledge, and consent in order to take part in the survey. You will also need to provide your digital signature and date. After you complete the informed consent form, you will be provided a PDF copy of the signed informed consent form for your records. You will then be directed to the 26-item parent involvement questionnaire. Please know that you will need to provide your child's name so that I will be able to request your child's grade point average from district office. This information will remain confidential. It should take approximately 10 minutes for you to complete the survey.

If you have any questions, please contact me at [redacted]

Sincerely,

Jameka Floyd
Doctoral Candidate
Liberty University

[Fecha]

Estimado padre:

Como estudiante de posgrado en la Escuela de Educación de la Universidad Liberty, estoy llevando a cabo investigaciones como parte de los requisitos para un doctorado. El título de mi proyecto de investigación es "La relación entre la participación de los padres de los estudiantes hispanos de inglés y el promedio de punto de grado de la escuela secundaria" y el propósito de mi investigación es examinar la relación entre la participación de los padres de los estudiantes de inglés hispano (ELL) y el promedio de punto de grado (GPA).

Tienes un hijo que es un aprendiz de inglés, y necesito tu ayuda. Espero que pueda completar una breve encuesta, para que pueda recopilar y evaluar los resultados de manera eficiente. Para participar en este estudio simplemente haga clic en el siguiente enlace o copie y pegue el sitio web a continuación en su navegador de Internet. Al hacer clic en el vínculo de la encuesta, un documento de consentimiento es el primer documento que se proporcionará. El documento de consentimiento informado contiene información sobre mi investigación. Deberá leer, reconocer y dar su consentimiento para participar en la encuesta. También tendrá que proporcionar su firma digital y fecha. Después de completar el formulario de consentimiento informado, se le proporcionará una copia en PDF del formulario de consentimiento informado firmado para sus registros. A continuación, se le dirigirá al cuestionario de participación de los padres de 26 elementos. Por favor, sepa que tendrá que proporcionar el nombre de su hijo, para que pueda solicitar el promedio de punto de calificación de su hijo de la oficina del distrito. Esta información seguirá siendo confidencial. Debe tomar aproximadamente 10 minutos para completar la encuesta.

Si tiene alguna pregunta, póngase en contacto conmigo en [redacted]

Sinceramente,
Jameka Floyd
Candidato a doctorado
Universidad liberty

Letter of Consent

1. **Study Title:** The Relationship between Parental Involvement of Hispanic English Language Learners and High School Grade Point Average
2. **Name of Researcher:** Jameka Floyd
3. **Study Sponsor:** Liberty University
4. **Purpose/Description of Study:** To examine the relationship between parental involvement of Hispanic English language learners (ELL) and grade point average (GPA).
5. **Study Timeframe:** March 2021-June 2021
6. **Your Childs Involvement:** Will only need access to your child's grade point average.
7. **Sharing Information:** The researcher will share information with Durham Public Schools.
8. **Risks and Discomforts:** Loss of time is a discomfort for many individuals and embarrassment and feelings of distress related to the invasion of privacy are also a risk.
9. **Benefits to You and Others:** This study will help educators and schools understand how to create stronger parent-teacher partnerships and cultivate more positive parent-teacher relationships.
10. **Payment for Participation:** None
11. **Confidentiality:** The researcher will need you to disclose your child's name. The research data and responses to the questionnaire will not be disclosed to the public or unauthorized individuals with identifiable information.
12. **Voluntary Participation and Withdrawal:** Your participation in a study is voluntary, and you may withdraw at any time
13. **Researcher/Principal Investigator Contact Information:** Jameka_floyd@dpsnc.net

Consent Permission:
I have been given the chance to read this consent form. I understand the information about this study. Questions that I wanted to ask about the study have been answered. My signature says that I am willing to participate in this study. I will receive a copy of the consent form once I have agreed to participate.

_____

Name of Child Childs School

_____

Name of Parent/Legal Guardian (Printed) Date

_____

Name of Parent/Legal Guardian (Signed) Date

_____

Name of Person Conducting Informed Consent (Printed) Date

_____

Name of Person Conducting Informed Consent (Signed) Date

_____

Researcher/Investigator Signature Date

Carta de Consentimiento

1. **Título del estudio**: La relación entre la participación de los padres de los estudiantes hispanos de inglés y el promedio de punto de grado de la escuela secundaria
2. **Nombre del investigador:** Jameka Floyd
3. **Patrocinador del estudio:** Liberty University
4. **Propósito/Descripción del estudio:** Examinar la relación entre los padres participación de los estudiantes hispanos de inglés (ELL) y el promedio de punto de calificación (GPA).
5. **Plazo de estudio**: marzo de 2021-junio de 2021
6. **Participación de sus hijos**: Solo necesitará acceso al promedio de calificaciones de su hijo.
7. **Compartir información:** El investigador compartirá información con las Escuelas Públicas de Durham.
8. **Riesgos y molestias:** La pérdida de tiempo es una incomodidad para muchas personas y la vergüenza y los sentimientos de angustia relacionados con la invasión de la privacidad también son un riesgo.
9. **Beneficios para usted y otros:** Este estudio ayudará a los educadores y las escuelas a entender cómo crear asociaciones más fuertes entre padres y maestros y cultivar relaciones más positivas entre padres y maestros.
10. **Pago por participación:** Ninguno
11. **Confidencialidad:** El investigador tendrá que revelar el nombre de su hijo. Los datos de investigación y las respuestas al cuestionario no serán revelados al público ni a personas no autorizadas con información identificable.
12. **Participación voluntaria y retiro:** Su participación en un estudio es voluntaria, y puede retirarse en cualquier momento
13. **Información de contacto del investigador/investigador principal**: jfloyd24@liberty.edu

Permiso de consentimiento:
Se me ha dado la oportunidad de leer este formulario de consentimiento. Entiendo la información sobre este estudio. Las preguntas que quería hacer sobre el estudio han sido respondidas. Mi firma dice que estoy dispuesto a participar en este estudio. Recibiré una copia del formulario de consentimiento una vez que haya aceptado participar.

_____

Nombre de niño La escuela del niño

_____

Nombre del padre/tutor legal (impreso) Fecha

_____

Nombre del padre/tutor legal (firmado) Fecha

_____

Nombre de la persona que realiza el consentimiento informado (impreso) Fecha

_____

Nombre de la persona que realiza el consentimiento informado (firmado) Fecha

_____

Firma del investigador/investigador Fech

Consent

Title of the Project: The Relationship between Parental Involvement of Hispanic English Language Learners and High School Grade Point Average
Principal Investigator: Jameka Floyd, Doctoral Candidate, Liberty University

Invitation to be Part of a Research Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. In order to participate, you must be a parent of a high school Hispanic English language learner. Participating in this research project is voluntary.

Please take time to read this entire form and ask questions before deciding whether to take part in this research project.

What is the study about and why is it being done?

The purpose of the study is to investigate how accurately high school grade point average predicts parental involvement for Hispanic English language learners. The data will help one to understand the linking dimensions of parental involvement among high school Hispanic ELLs that will truly have an impact on a student's grade point average. It would also help educators understand how they can do a better job in asking parents to participate through their outreach efforts.

What will happen if you take part in this study?

If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to set aside 10 minutes to complete a 26-item questionnaire. Your child's grade point average will also be requested from the district office.

How could you or others benefit from this study?

Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Benefits to society include helping educators and schools to better understand how to create stronger parent-teacher partnerships and cultivate more positive parent-teacher relationships.

What risks might you experience from being in this study?

The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

How will personal information be protected?

The records of this study will be kept private. Published reports will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records. Participant responses will be kept confidential through the use of participant codes. Data will be stored on a password-locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted. Participants' names could possibly be concluded as parents must provide their child's name. To prevent this from happening, the researcher will use participant codes to label data instead of using names, and keeping a separate list of code-to-name match-ups.

Is study participation voluntary?

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University or Durham Public Schools. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

What should you do if you decide to withdraw from the study?

If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Whom do you contact if you have questions or concerns about the study?

The researcher conducting this study is Jameka Floyd. If you have questions, **you are encouraged** to contact her at [redacted] You may also contact the researcher's faculty sponsor, Dr. Jeffery Savage, at [redacted]

Whom do you contact if you have questions about your rights as a research participant?

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

Your Consent

By signing this document, you are agreeing to be in this study, including the collection of your child's grade point average. Make sure you understand what the study is about before you sign. You will be given a copy of this document for your records. The researcher will keep a copy with the study records. If you have any questions about the study after you sign this document, you can contact the study team using the information provided above.

I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

_____

Printed Subject Name

_____

Signature & Date

Consentimiento

Título del Proyecto: La relación entre la participación de los padres de los estudiantes hispanos de inglés y el promedio de punto de grado de la escuela secundaria
Investigador principal: Jameka Floyd, Candidato a Doctorado de la Universidad Liberty

Invitación para formar parte de un estudio de investigación

Se le invita a participar en un estudio de investigación. Para participar, usted debe ser un padre de estudiantes hispanos que andan aprendiendo inglés. Participando en este proyecto de investigación es voluntario.

Por favor, tómese el tiempo para leer todo este formulario y hacer preguntas antes de decidir participar en este proyecto de investigación.

¿De qué se trata el estudio y por qué se está haciendo?

El propósito del estudio es investigar con qué precisión el promedio de calificaciones de la escuela secundaria predice la participación de los padres de estudiantes hispanos que andan aprendiendo el inglés. Los datos ayudarán a uno a entender las dimensiones de vinculación de la participación de los padres entre los ELL hispanos de la escuela secundaria que realmente tendrán un impacto en el promedio de calificaciones de un estudiante. También ayudaría a los educadores a entender cómo pueden hacer un mejor trabajo al pedir a los padres que participen a través de sus esfuerzos de divulgación.

¿Qué pasará si participas en este estudio?

Si acepta estar en este estudio, le pediría que reserva 10 minutos para completar un cuestionario de 26 puntos. El promedio de calificaciones de su hijo también será solicitado a la oficina del distrito.

¿Cómo podrían usted u otros beneficiarse de este estudio?

Los participantes no deben esperar recibir un beneficio directo de participar en este estudio.
Los beneficios para la sociedad incluyen ayudar a los educadores y escuelas a entender mejor cómo crear asociaciones más fuertes entre padres y maestros y cultivar relaciones más positivas entre padres y maestros.

¿Qué riesgos podría experimentar al estar en este estudio?

Los riesgos involucrados en este estudio son mínimos, lo que significa que son iguales a los riesgos que se encontrarían en la vida cotidiana.

¿Cómo se protegerá la información personal?

Los registros de este estudio se mantendrán privados. Los informes publicados no incluirán ninguna información que permita identificar a un sujeto. Los registros de investigación se almacenarán de forma segura, y sólo el investigador tendrá acceso a los registros. Las respuestas de los participantes se mantendrán confidenciales mediante el uso de códigos de participante. Los datos se almacenarán en un ordenador con contraseña bloqueada y pueden utilizarse en presentaciones futuras. Después de tres años, todos los registros electrónicos serán eliminados. Los nombres de los participantes posiblemente podrían concluirse, ya que los padres deben proporcionar el nombre de su hijo. Para evitar que esto suceda, el investigador utilizará códigos de participante para etiquetar datos en lugar de usar nombres y mantener una lista separada de coincidencias de código a nombre.

¿Es voluntaria la participación en el estudio?

La participación en este estudio es voluntaria. Su decisión de participar no afectará sus relaciones actuales o futuras con Liberty University o Durham Public Schools. Si decide participar, es libre de no responder a ninguna pregunta o retirarse en cualquier momento sin afectar esas relaciones.

¿Qué debe hacer si decide retirarse del estudio?

Si decide retirarse del estudio, salga de la encuesta y cierre su navegador de Internet. Sus respuestas no serán registradas ni incluidas en el estudio.

¿Con quién se contacta si tiene preguntas o inquietudes sobre el estudio?

La investigadora que lleva a cabo este estudio es Jameka Floyd. Si tiene preguntas, **se le anima** a ponerse en contacto con ella en [redacted]. También puede ponerse en contacto con el patrocinador de la facultad del investigador, el Dr. Jeffery Savage, en [redacted]

¿Con quién se contacta si tiene preguntas sobre sus derechos como participante en la investigación?

Si tiene alguna pregunta o inquietud con respecto a este estudio y desea hablar con alguien que no sea el investigador, **se le anima** a ponerse en contacto con la Junta de Revisión Institucional, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA 24515 o correo electrónico a [redacted]

Su consentimiento

Al firmar este documento, usted acepta estar en este estudio, incluyendo la recolección del promedio de puntos de calificación de su hijo. Asegúrese de entender de qué se trata el estudio antes de firmar. Se le entregará una copia de este documento para sus registros. El investigador conservará una copia con los registros del estudio. Si tiene alguna pregunta sobre el estudio después de firmar este documento, puede ponerse en contacto con el equipo del estudio utilizando la información proporcionada anteriormente.

He leído y entendido la información anterior. He hecho preguntas y he recibido respuestas. Consiente participar en el estudio.

_____

Nombre del sujeto impreso Firma y fecha

APPENDIX B: *PTIQ*

Your Child's Name:_____

You are your child's first and most important teacher. When your child goes to school, teachers become important to him/her. You and the teachers can work together to help your child do well in school. So, we would like some important information about your relationship with your child's school teacher and your involvement in your child's school life.

Please indicate the number that best completes each statement.

		Not Applicable	Never	Once or Twice a Year	Almost Every Month	Almost Every Week	More Than Once Per Week
1	In the past year, you have called your child's teacher.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
2	In the past year, your child's teacher has called you.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
3	In the past year, you have written your child's teacher.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
4	In the past year, your child's teacher has written you.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
5	In the past year, you stopped by to talk to your child's teacher.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
6	In the past year, you have been invited to your child's school for a special event.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
7	In the past year, you have visited your child's school for a special event	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
8	In the past year, you have been invited to attend a parent-teacher conference.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
9	In the past year, you have attended a parent-teacher conference.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
10	In the past year, you have attended PTA meetings.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④

		Not Applicable	Not At All	A Little	Some	A Lot	A Great Deal
11	You feel welcome to visit your child's school.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
12	You enjoy talking with your child's teacher.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
13	You feel your child's teacher cares about your child.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
14	You think your child's teacher is interested in getting to know you.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④

		Not Applicable	Not At All	A Little	Some	A Lot	A Great Deal
15	You feel comfortable talking with your child's teacher about your child.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
16	You feel your child's teacher pays attention to your suggestions.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
17	You ask your child's teacher questions or make suggestions about your child.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
18	You send things to class like story books and other things.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
19	You help your child at home with subjects that she/he is having difficulty with.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
20	You take your child to the library.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
21	You make sure your child gets his/her homework done.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
22	You volunteer at your child's school.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④

		Not Applicable	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	Your child's school is a good place for your child to be.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
24	The staff at your child's school is doing good things for your child.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
25	You have confidence in the people at your child's school.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④

26	Your child's school is doing a good job of preparing children for their futures.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④

Nombre de su hijo: _____

Usted es el primer y más importante maestro de su hijo. Cuando su hijo va a la escuela, los maestros se vuelven importantes para él / ella. Usted y los maestros pueden trabajar juntos para ayudar a su hijo a que le vaya bien en la escuela. Por lo tanto, nos gustaría recibir información importante sobre su relación con el maestro de escuela de su hijo y su participación en la vida escolar de su hijo.

Indique la numero que mejor complete cada declaración.

		No aplica	Nunca	Una o dos veces al año	Casi todos los meses	Casi todas las semanas	Más de una vez por semana
1	El año pasado, llamó al maestro de su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
2	El año pasado, el maestro de su hijo lo llamó.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
3	En el último año, le escribió al maestro de su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
4	El año pasado, el maestro de su hijo le escribió.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
5	El año pasado, pasó a hablar con el maestro de su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
6	El año pasado, le invitaron a la escuela de su hijo para un evento especial.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
7	El año pasado, visitó la escuela de su hijo para un evento especial	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
8	El año pasado, se le invitó a asistir a una conferencia de padres y maestros.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
9	El año pasado, asistió a una conferencia de padres y maestros.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
10	El año pasado, asistió a las reuniones de la PTA.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④

		No aplica	Para nada	Un poco	Algunos	Un monton	Mucho
11	Se siente bienvenido a visitar la escuela de su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
12	Disfruta hablar con el maestro de su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
13	Siente que el maestro de su hijo se preocupa por él.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
14	Cree que el maestro de su hijo está interesado en conocerlo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④

		No aplica	Para nada	Un poco	Algunos	Un monton	Mucho
15	Se siente cómodo hablando con el maestro de su hijo sobre su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
16	Siente que el maestro de su hijo presta atención a sus sugerencias.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
17	Le hace preguntas al maestro de su hijo o hace sugerencias sobre su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
18	Envías cosas a la clase como libros de cuentos y otras cosas.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
19	Usted ayuda a su hijo en casa con los temas con los que tiene dificultades.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
20	Lleva a su hijo a la biblioteca.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
21	Usted se asegura de que su hijo haga su tarea.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
22	Trabaja como voluntario en la escuela de su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④

		No aplica	Muy en desacuerdo	Discrepar	No estoy seguro	Estar de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo
23	La escuela de su hijo es un buen lugar para su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
24	El personal de la escuela de su hijo está haciendo cosas buenas por su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
25	Tiene confianza en las personas de la escuela de su hijo.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④
26	La escuela de su hijo está haciendo un buen trabajo preparando a los niños para su futuro.	⊗	⓪	①	②	③	④

APPENDIX C: SPSS DATA

Table C1

Correlations

		GPA	PTC	PTR	SIV	PE
Pearson Correlation	GPA	1.000	-.281	.731	.815	.658
	PTC	-.281	1.000	-.036	-.071	-.140
	PTR	.731	-.036	1.000	.825	.697
	SIV	.815	-.071	.825	1.000	.627
	PE	.658	-.140	.697	.627	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	GPA	.	.002	<.001	<.001	<.001
	PTC	.002	.	.356	.233	.074
	PTR	.000	.356	.	.000	.000
	SIV	.000	.233	.000	.	.000
	PE	.000	.074	.000	.000	.
N	GPA	108	108	108	108	108
	PTC	108	108	108	108	108
	PTR	108	108	108	108	108
	SIV	108	108	108	108	108
	PE	108	108	108	108	108

Table C2

Frequencies by GPA Categories for Parent-Teacher Contact

GPA		**Questions**											
		1		2		3		4		8		9	
		N	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%
>2.5	0	**19**	17.59%	**3**	2.78%	**21**	19.44%	**9**	8.33%	**2**	1.85%	**4**	
	1	**15**	13.88%	**29**	26.85%	**13**	12.04%	**25**	23.15%	**32**	29.63%	**30**	
	2	**0**	0%	**2**	1.85%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
	3	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
	4	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
<2.5	0	**65**	60.19%	**65**	60.19%	**1**	0.93%	**66**	61.11%	**2**	1.85%	**21**	
	1	**8**	7.41%	**8**	7.41%	**36**	33.33%	**8**	7.41%	**43**	39.81%	**53**	
	2	**1**	.93%	**1**	.93%	**37**	34.26%	**0**	0%	**29**	26.85%	**0**	0%
	3	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
	4	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%

Total		**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%

Table C3

Frequencies by GPA Categories for Quality of Parent-Teacher Relationship

GPA		**Questions**											
		11		12		13		14		15		16	17	
		N	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N** %	**N**	%
>2.5	0	**4**	3.70%	**8**	7.41%	**4**	3.70	**1**	.93%	**4**	3.70%		**23**	21.29%
	1	**9**	8.33%	**7**	6.45%	**13**	12.04%	**3**	2.78%	**10**	9.26%		**6**	5.55%
	2	**14**	12.96%	**13**	12.04%	**16**	14.81%	**12**	11.11%	**13**	12.04%		**3**	2.78%
	3	**7**	6.48%	**6**	5.55%	**1**	.93%	**15**	13.89%	**7**	6.45%		**1**	.93%
	4	**0**	0%	**33**	30.55%	**0**	0%	**3**	2.78%	**0**	0%		**1**	.93%
<2.5	0	**11**	10.19%	**17**	15.74%	**6**	5.55%	**5**	4.63%	**13**	12.03%		**71**	65.74%
	1	**36**	33.33%	**47**	43.52%	**31**	28.70%	**50**	46.29%	**45**	41.67%		**2**	1.85%
	2	**26**	24.07%	**10**	9.26%	**29**	26.85%	**18**	16.67%	**16**	14.81%		**1**	.93%
	3	**1**	.93%	**0**	0%	**8**	7.41%	**1**	.93%	**0**	0%		**0**	0%
	4	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%		**0**	0%
Total		**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%		**108**	100%

Table C4

Frequencies by GPA Categories for School Involvement (Volunteering)

GPA		**Questions**																	
		5		**6**		**7**		**10**		**18**		**19**		**20**		**21**		**22**	
		N	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%
>2.5	0	**33**	30.55%	**1**	.93%	**7**	6.48%	**34**	31.48%	**33**	30.55%	**1**	.93%	**6**	5.55%	**12**	11.11%	**34**	31.48%
	1	**1**	.93%	**33**	30.55%	**27**	25%	**0**	0%	**1**	.93%	**15**	13.89%	**15**	13.89%	**6**	5.55%	**0**	0%
	2	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**10**	9.26%	**11**	10.19%	**7**	6.48%	**0**	0%
	3	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**8**	7.41%	**1**	.93%	**9**	8.33%	**0**	0%
	4	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**1**	.93%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
<2.5	0	**68**	62.96%	**1**	.93%	**61**	56.48%	**74**	68.52%	**74**	68.52%	**69**	63.89%	**65**	60.19%	**61**	56.48%	**74**	68.52%
	1	**6**	5.55%	**73**	67.59%	**13**	12.04%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**3**	2.78%	**9**	8.33%	**12**	11.11%	**0**	0%
	2	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**2**	1.85%	**0**	0%	**1**	.93%	**0**	0%
	3	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
	4	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
Total		**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%

Table C5

Frequencies by GPA Categories for Parent Endorsement

GPA		**Questions**							
		1		**2**		**3**		**4**	
		N	%	**N**	%	**N**	%	**N**	%
>2.5	0	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
	1	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
	2	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
	3	**9**	8.33%	**12**	11.11%	**11**	10.19%	**11**	10.19%
	4	**25**	23.15%	**22**	20.37%	**23**	21.29%	**23**	21.29%
<2.5	0	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%	**0**	0%
	1	**0**	0%	**2**	1.85%	**2**	1.85%	**2**	1.85%
	2	**1**	.93%	**17**	15.74%	**7**	6.48%	**17**	15.74%
	3	**37**	34.26%	**52**	48.15%	**53**	49.07%	**48**	44.44%
	4	**36**	33.33%	**3**	2.78%	**12**	11.11%	**7**	6.48%
Total		**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%	**108**	100%