THE EFFECT OF PARENT INVOLVEMENT TRAINING ON THE ACHIEVEMENT OF HISPANIC STUDENTS

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the University of North Texas in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

By

Lori Anne Jancuska Davis, B.S., M.Ed., L.P.C.
Denton, Texas
December, 1993
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The purpose of this study was to ascertain the effect of a parent involvement education program on the academic achievement, school behavior, and educational motivation of Hispanic students enrolled in a bilingual education program. Fifty bilingual fourth-grade students and their parents were compared to 50 bilingual fourth-grade students and their parents who were subjected to a parent education program. The groups were randomly assigned from a stratified random sample.

Students in each group were given the Student Attitude Measure prior to treatment and immediately following the parent involvement training. Parents in each group were given the Parent Opinion Inventory prior to and immediately following the parent involvement training. Students were also compared utilizing a norm-referenced achievement test. Discipline referrals were compared between the experimental group and the control group.
involvement education scored significantly higher on the language section of a norm-referenced achievement test than did fourth-grade students whose parents did not participate in the parent involvement training. No difference was evident in the areas of reading and mathematics. Parents’ opinions of the school did not change because of the parent involvement training. Students’ motivation for school improved when their parents participated in the parent involvement training. There was no change, however, in the responses of children whose parents did not participate in the parenting program. No difference was found in the children’s behavior, based on the number of disciplinary referrals, between the experimental and control groups after the parent involvement training.

Positive effects cited from this study were in the areas of academic language and student motivation. No significant difference was found in the areas of parent opinion, discipline, reading, or mathematics scores.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The impact of parents on the educational achievement of their children is well-documented and evident. When parents choose to become actively involved in their children’s education their children achieve more academically (Ochoa & Mardirosion, 1990). Children’s education is not limited to what occurs in the classroom, but is interrelated with every facet of their lives (Wagner, 1982). The most influential persons are their parents. Olson (1990b), who asked educators about the concept of influence in determining a child’s success, found that teachers’ response almost exclusively was "parents." She added, "School personnel understand parents are their children’s first and primary teachers and are the only ones who can chart a child’s progress from year to year and after school hours" (Olson, 1990a, p. 23).

According to Olson (1990b), "Society, parents, and teachers should be natural allies in their quest of educating and socializing children" (p. 41). Often they find themselves in conflict with each other. During the initial waves of school reform (1988-1989), parents were
described as important, but their roles within the school system were not clearly defined (National Commission of Excellence in Education, 1988). Henderson (1986) pointed out the importance of parent involvement but noted that the most significant criteria in developing effective partnerships is how parents are treated by school personnel.

Williams (1984) found agreement among parents and educators that parent involvement is critical to a child's academic success, but noted that they could not agree on what form of parent involvement yielded the highest gains. Williams elaborated, however, that specific roles in the educating process were often unclear to both educators and parents. Schools are often at a loss about the specific direction they should take in involving parents. Educators often blame parents for their children's distress in lieu of building on parents' strengths to alleviate the problem.

Models for parents' involvement in their children's education, however, are still in their infancy (Epstein, 1986). Most of these models focus on school-based activities which consist of training parents to assist their children with school work and providing parents with appropriate educational materials. Additional parenting programs, based upon human development, emphasize skills for correcting or improving children's behaviors. The effect of each model has not been clearly researched.
In our changing society, the roles of parents have become more complex and challenging. Family roles are changing. Comer (cited in Olson, 1990b) conceptualized the changes in this way:

Given increasing divorce rates, the growing number of single-parent families and families in which both parents work, and general complexity of modern life, even children of well-educated, middle class parents can come to school unprepared due to the stress the families are undergoing. . . . Traditionally the school has needed the support and sustenance provided by the family in its task of educating and raising children. (p. 42)

Families from minority groups are in need of parent involvement training. According to the American Council on Education and the Education Commission of the States (1988), "the prosperity of the nation will be jeopardized if the United States does not review its commitment to the advancement, of minority groups" (pp. 7). Chavkin (1989) suggested that the successful education of minorities is the prerequisite to their social advancement and that parent involvement is the key to this successful education.

According to Heleen (1988),

Even after many school districts "open their doors" to parents through a variety of outreach programs, many parents remain uninvolved. These parents do not often participate with the school in efforts to strengthen their contribution to their children's education, and communication tends to be one way--from the school to the home--and largely negative. These parents are often poor and minority groups and may have experienced school failure themselves. . . . School people often term this problem as one of hard-to-reach parents. (pp. 60-61)
Additional studies offer evidence that minority parents are extremely supportive of the educational system, but lack the ability to know what to do or say to help their children (Sarkees, 1989). When this factor is compounded by the home and school using two different languages, the picture becomes even more complex.

According to the Texas Education Agency (1990), the Hispanic population of Texas school systems has increased significantly since 1989. In several suburban areas surrounding major cities, the number of minorities has risen to 40% of the population. Hispanics represent the largest non- and limited-English-speaking group to affect schools throughout the country.

Hispanic students, more so than Blacks or Native Americans, are likely to dropout of school before completing high school (Kozol, 1985). The group most at-risk of school failure is Hispanic males in the seventh-grade (Texas Education Agency, 1990). At-risk students, specifically, can benefit from the results of active parent education. Parent education training has had a large impact on all children and can be very proactive in developing minority students’ success.

For this study, information has been gathered concerning the effects of parent involvement training on academic achievement, behavior at school, parent opinions,
and students' attitudes toward education. Results of this research are explained in totality in the hope that this information about parenting will prove valuable to educators in the future and, if utilized appropriately, will result in higher-achieving children.

Need for the Study

According to the Texas Education Agency (1990), the group most at-risk of school failure is the male Hispanic population. More than 60% of Hispanic adults have completed less than 12 years of education, and more than 43% have completed less than 9 years of school. In the 1988-1989 school year, more than one quarter of a million limited English proficient children were enrolled in bilingual education or English-as-a-second-language programs in Texas public schools. There is a critical need for successful intervention techniques to prevent educators from repeating previous performances. It is reasonable to presume that the parents of bilingual students have low literacy levels. Parent training programs for limited-English-proficient parents, then, can provide important parental involvement opportunities for a population of parents who may not possess the requisite literacy skills to take advantage of traditional parent training programs or assist their children with school work. This process could set off a
chain reaction where children understand that their parents view education as important, the parents give the children individual attention and teach skills, and parents perceive their own competence.

Parental behaviors influence every area of children's lives. This study helps determine how parent involvement programs effect Hispanic children's school achievement. Parental opinion often has an effect on student behavior. The correlation between parents' opinions and students' behaviors is analyzed in this study. One of the facets of student behavior examined is achievement, specifically in the areas of reading, mathematics, and language. Another distinct area of student behavior analyzed is school discipline and the correlation between school behavior and parent involvement training. The effects of parent training involvement on student discipline are also examined.

Also analyzed in this study is the correlation between parent involvement training and the opinions parents have about school in general. A goal of parent involvement training is to create in parents a more positive attitude toward school and school systems. The correlation between parent involvement training and students' attitudes toward school is also examined. The more parents get involved in their children's lives through school, the more positively children behave and perform. Children usually want the
praise and attention of the ones they love most, their parents. School sets the stage for this type of interaction.

The theoretical framework used as a basis for this research began with the work of Albert Bandura (1973). His concept of social learning theory is directly applicable to parent training. According to the social learning theory, individuals move toward others in times of indecision and model the behaviors presented to them.

The work of Porter and Lawler (1968) concerning organizational management, also presents a theoretical framework for parent involvement training. This theory presents the effects of positive, intrinsic rewards on performance. The improved positive responses and interactions of children can easily be correlated to the rewards of a parent involvement training program. This theory is explained in further detail in Chapter 4.

The results of this study indicate how parent involvement programs effect student achievement, school discipline, parent opinions, students' attitudes toward school, and the degree of impact Hispanic parent involvement training has on each topic.
Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to ascertain the effect of a parent involvement education program on the academic achievement, school behavior, and educational motivation of Hispanic students enrolled in a bilingual education program.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were postulated:

1. Hispanic students enrolled in bilingual education classes, whose parents receive parent involvement education training, will score significantly higher on all sections of the National Test of Basic Skills (NTBS) in grade four than will Hispanic students enrolled in bilingual education programs whose parents do not participate in a parent involvement training program.

2. Hispanic students enrolled in bilingual education programs, whose parents participated in a parent involvement training program, will be referred significantly less often to the principal for disciplinary concerns than will Hispanic students enrolled in a bilingual education program whose parents do not participate in a parent involvement program.

3. Hispanic students enrolled in a bilingual education program, whose parents participate in a parent involvement training program, will exhibit significantly greater
positive motivation as measured by the School Attitude Measure, sections A and B, than will Hispanic, bilingual students whose parents do not participate in the parent involvement training program.

4. Parents who participate in a parent involvement training program will exhibit significantly greater positive attitudes toward the educational system as measured by Parent Opinion Inventory (sections A and B) than will parents who do not participate in a parent involvement training program.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined for this study:

**Hispanic students** are students who self-disclose their national origin as Spain, Portugal, Mexico, South America, or Central America.

**Bilingual students** are Hispanic students who meet specific Texas state criteria that classifies them as Limited English Performers (LEP) with Spanish as their predominate language (and is enrolled in a bilingual education program).

**Parent involvement training programs** are four, 2-hour training sessions (8 hours total) that follow the Padres Eficaces Con Entrenamiento Sistema (PECES) program developed by Don Dinkmeyer and Stephen McKay (1979). PECES
is the bilingual interpretation of the Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) program.

**Attitude** is defined as measured by the Parent Opinion Inventory. Parents' perceptions toward school are reflected in two separate inventories. The first measure is an objective Likert-type scale. The second scale is an open ended questionnaire with four essay questions. Attitude is also defined by the students' responses to the School Attitude Measure, which is a 60-item objective Likert-type scale that reflect students' attitudes toward school.

**Achievement** is defined as measured by the National Test of Basic Skills in the areas of vocabulary, reading comprehension, spelling, language mechanics, language expression, references, mathematical computation, mathematical concepts, and mathematics application. These subtests are broken down into three broad skill areas: total reading, total mathematics, and total language.

**Basic Assumptions**

The following assumptions were made in this study:

1. Hispanic parents' feelings and beliefs regarding their children and the education process can be assessed with reliable and valid measures.
2. Students' feelings and beliefs regarding school and their parents can be assessed with reliable and valid measures.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

During the 1980s, a great deal of attention was given to the topic of parent involvement in the education process. Several government reports (National Commission of Excellence in Education, 1983) and state and federal statute (Education for All Handicapped Children Act, 1975; Senate Bill 1, 1990) that appeared in the 1980s included segments regarding the role of parents in education. The topic of parenting and community involvement is the sixth effective-schools correlate in the effective schools movement in the United States. Parental involvement is a key factor in children's learning. Parenting continues to be an active ingredient in the education of today's youth.

Several related areas of the professional literature pertaining to parenting practices and student success are examined in this chapter. Areas reviewed include parent involvement, established and newly developed parenting programs, student achievement, the changing American family, minority parenting practices, and Hispanic parent involvement.
Parenting, as addressed by government officials and legislatures, appears somewhat broad and nebulous. Its interpretation is often left to the reader. A clear definition of parenting has not reached consensus within a myriad of legal and educational forums. Individual educators involved in the topic of parenting often approach the concept with a single focus. This can only be approached with a single analysis because the topic is vast and can take many forms.

To better delineate this information on parenting, Joyce Epstein (1986) dissected the topic into five specific areas of parent involvement. Each type of parenting program was examined extensively at the Johns Hopkins Educational Research Center and the Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students. Each type of parent involvement program utilizes different methodology and yields different outcomes for parents, teachers, and students.

Before one methodology can be reviewed extensively, it is necessary to briefly examine the others so that a wholistic picture can be presented. The first form of parent involvement is parenting. With this type of involvement, the school provides suggestions for home conditions that support learning at each grade level. This type of communication is presented through workshops,
videotapes, and computerized phone messages on child-rearing issues at each grade level. The outcomes of this type of parenting produce a variety of results. These are presented later in this study.

The second type of parent involvement is communication. An example of this type is teachers who conduct conferences with every parent at least once a year, with follow-ups as needed. When needed, translators are available for parents of language minorities. Weekly or monthly folders of student work are sent home and reviewed. Parents are encouraged to write comments and return the folders to school. With this parenting strategy, parents gain a better understanding of school programs. There is an increase in interaction between teacher and parent. The monitoring process also allows parents to be informed of their children's progress. Students often participate in parent-teacher conferences and are actively involved in decisions about their education. Teachers who are involved in this process know that it provides families with a common base of information to discuss students' problems and progress.

The third type of parent involvement is volunteering, which usually takes the form of recruiting and organizing parents for help and support. Parent/Teacher Organizations (PTO) and school volunteer programs are the medium for
redress. Through this process, parents come to understand teachers' jobs and the nature of school business. Parents often feel comfortable at school when they are familiar with the teachers and school personnel. Student outcomes for this form of parenting include increased learning skills due to the individual attention provided by the volunteers, and ease of communication with adults who are involved in the school system. Teacher outcomes include an increased awareness of parents' interests in school and a willingness to help and an increased readiness to try programs that involve parents in a variety of ways.

The fourth type of parent involvement involves learning at home. This style provides suggestions to parents on how to help their children at home. Information is given to parents about skills in each particular subject, at each specific grade level. Homework schedules are sent home (daily, once a week, or once a month). This methodology is used to engage parents in students' school work. The parent outcomes include increased interaction with children as students at home, greater support and encouragement in their school work, and improved participation in children's education. Student outcomes include completion of homework, higher achievement in the skills practiced, and an increased self-concept of the students' abilities as learners. Teacher outcomes include respect and appreciation of
parents’ time, ability, and reinforcement of learning. Teachers also develop better designs of homework assignments if they are aware of parents’ observation in the process.

The last type of parent involvement program is the representation of other parents in the involvement practices. This type often takes the form of participation or leadership in the Parent Teacher Association (PTA), PTO, or other parent organizations, including advisory councils and committees. These organizations often address topics such as curriculum, safety, and personnel, and their programs often lead to the formation of advocacy groups. A notable outcome of this form of parent involvement is parents’ feelings of control over their environment. This often leads to input on the policies that effect their children’s education. As a result, students feel that their rights are being protected. Other positive student outcomes have been linked to the creation of policy. Through this methodology, teachers become aware of parents’ perspectives in policy development and an equal status between teachers’ and parents’ desire to improve school programs is fostered.

The parenting programs used in this research deal specifically with the first type of parent involvement training. This medium involves effective parenting training sessions that occur outside of the home in small groups with
an instructor or expert who shares concepts and information with parents.

Established Parenting Programs

Many preplanned, preorganized parenting programs are currently available and can be purchased and presented in totality. Getz and Gunn (1988) identified parent education as a complex field, full of books, movies, and prepackaged programs used by instructors to teach parent groups. Parents usually respond to parent education and training with great interest as they become aware of new knowledge and want to apply it to a positive upbringing for their children. Some of the more popular programs in the United States are Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP), Parent Effectiveness Training (PET), Assertive Discipline, and Affective Parenting.

Friedrich (1988) studied two of these programs (STEP and PET) to determine if they correlated positively with predetermined cognitive effective and moral development facts concerning children. Friedrich found that the theory and methodology that the programs are based upon correlated positively with several major facts concerning thoughts and moral development made by children.

Reinhart-Rahn (1989) investigated the difference between parenting programs based on developmental
information and those based on specific skills. Parents who studied child development enjoyed the class and topics more than did parents who studied specific skills, but parents who studied specific skills were more inclined to implement the skills quicker and, thus, had more positive results.

Lowrance and Maslin (1988) studied the effects of active parenting on 42 parents of school-age children. This group participated in a 6-week after-school group learning process. Lowrance and Maslin discovered that the attitudes of parents improved significantly in the areas of confidence, mutual trust, and understanding. They retested several times after the initial conclusions were drawn and found that the initial conclusions were maintained. Jackson (1988) reviewed the effects of active parenting. After teaching 45 parents and assessing them over a 2-year period of time, he attributed the majority of changes to demographic data.

The effects of parenting programs on step-families have also been investigated. Step-parents' participation in four, 6-hour training sessions were researched by Wendy Nelson in 1989. The subjects completed questionnaires after each session. Their children also were surveyed but were not present during the training. Nelson recorded an increase in desirable responses to the children and increased positive verbal interaction between the parents
and children. Also, an interesting component was the fact that the children noted a significant, positive change in their parents.

Steinburg and Elmer (1989) supported Nelson's findings in a study of adolescents. They found that early teens who described themselves as being treated warmly, democratically, and firmly were more likely than their peers to develop positive attitudes toward achievement and doing well in school.

Newly Developed Parenting Programs

In addition to predeveloped parenting programs (STEP, PET, Practical Parenting, etc.), a myriad of self-created programs have been, and continue to be, created. These programs are often developed in response to need and available financial remuneration. Financial assistance is often supplied by the federal or state governments or by private industry and foundations. Sandoval, Davis, Garcia, and Betses (1986) utilized the benefits of Title VII money to research the Academic Excellence Projects. The projects occurred in four states: Texas, California, Florida, and Massachusetts. The projects, which dealt only with Hispanic parents, focused on parenting issues such as health, self-esteem, school institutions, and immigration. The results of the research were positive. Parents involved in
the study reported positive growth and improvement in their relationships with their children. The programs, which were quite comprehensive, were tailored to meet the specific needs of each community.

Janet Blumenthal (1985) also utilized federally assisted programs in researching the effects of parenting programs on low-income black mothers of young children ranging from 2 to 36 months of age. The results of her longitudinal study revealed wide variance within the programs. Relationships between parents and children were robust during the training process but appeared very susceptible to change if the parents did not continue the program. Several other factors, noted by Blumenthal, that overrode the continuum of change have been supported by the findings of other research scientists who have investigated the topic of parenting.

Among the researchers whose works have supported Blumenthal's (1985) study are Beekman (1989), DeKanter (1986), Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, and Fraleigh (1987), and McBride (1988). Blumenthal noted that the most weighed factor was the self-esteem of the mother or parents. The second most critical factor effecting the retention of parenting information was time. The more rigorous the time schedule, the less inclined parents were to administer the skills taught in the parenting training sessions. In
conjunction with the second factor, Berlin and Sum (1988) noted the negative effects of economic concerns on parents as they attempt to adapt new parenting skills. Berlin and Sum found that lack of money was the biggest deterrent to positive parenting.

Cohen (1990) pointed out the long-range effects of studies involving low-income minority students who participated in preschool programs that were implemented with a high level of parental involvement:

Former preschool program participants continue to outperform their peers even in their high school years. . . . More recent studies, however have highlighted a "more lasting impact" reflected in reduced drop out rate, grade reduction and special ed. placement; greater social adjustment and reduced delinquency and welfare dependency. (p. 8)

In a study of the parents of 700 sixth graders conducted in Oakland, California, Benson (cited in Jennings, 1990) concluded that parental participation helped students achieve more in school, but that did not reduce the gap between rich and poor children. Jennings added,

Despite such positive findings across a wide array of studies, however, research on parent involvement remains problematical and sketchy. Although the correlation between parent involvement in education and achievement is well documented, there is little evidence of any direct, casual link. (pp. 20-21)

A review of the literature reveals common principles underlying successful parent education approaches. The
review also indicates that no one parent education approach is clearly superior to others (Henry, 1981).

The Council of Chief School Officers (cited in Olson, 1990a) further stated, "If our nation is to progress toward a goal of 100 per cent graduation rate by the year 2000, we must take every possible step to strengthen the resources of the family and connect them to the schools" (pp. 17-18).

Student Achievement

A great deal of discussion has been generated concerning the parenting factors that cause an increase in children's performance at school. This portion of the literature merits its own analysis. According to Benjamin Bloom (1986), in his book The Home Environment and School Learning, "socio-economic status is not one of the most influential factors concerning students' achievement" (p. 27). According to Bloom, "socio-economic factors do not change drastically over time but people change according to the stimulus in their environments and their level of readiness" (pp. 32-33). Bloom was more concerned with what people did rather than who they are. Environmental processes were considered more important by Bloom. Among the process variables correlated to students' success in school were (a) family work habits, (b) academic guidance and support, (c) stimulation, (d) language development,
(e) academic aspiration, and (f) positive high expectation. All of these characteristics are either nurtured or destroyed by the structure of the family, and can change.

Other research in parental involvement has shown that parenting style (i.e., the interaction patterns between parent and child) is highly predict of children’s academic performance (McConnell, 1990). Most of the families in McConnell’s interview sample had clear rules for their children, consistently applied the rules, gave children much encouragement, provided children with opportunities for interaction with adults, and reported lots of communication between the parents and children. Laissez-faire style parents in the study were most likely to be rated as below average in parental involvement, authoritarian style parents were most likely to be rated as average, and structured style parents were most likely to be rated as high in parental involvement.

Craig Olson’s work in 1984 corresponds with Bloom’s (1986) process variables. Olson (1984) also added the fact that families that emphasized conformity did not produce high-achieving students. John Charles Lundt (1988) studied the relationships of self-concept, parenting characteristics, and school environment to academic achievement. Parenting styles and school environment were judged as equally important, at 55%. Other indirect
influences that were correlated to heightened student achievement were (a) family structure, (b) parental education level, and (c) parents' expectations. Lundt also found a direct correlation between students' educational expectations and their self-esteem.

In research concerning the roles of administrators and teachers in the parenting education process, Lundstrom (1988) found that the attitudes of the teachers and principals were directly correlational to the amount of success found in parenting programs. If the school did not believe a program was necessary or was nonsupportive of the program, the results of the parenting program showed this.

Duffield (1988) listed the following four factors, or prevariables, that determine student achievement prior to parenting training, in chronological order from most important to least important: (a) mothers' efficacy and expectations, (b) family expectations, (c) mothers' experience with children, and (d) the education level of the mother. Duffield pointed out that these factors are more important than external programmed learning.

The preliminary findings of a national study which indicate that upper-income, well-educated parents devote more attention to their children than do poorer parents with less schooling partially confirms the frequently expressed belief of educators (Rotham, 1990). It is the perception of
many educators that parents who are culturally diverse, speak other languages, or are from low socioeconomic conditions lack the money, education, and sophistication displayed by middle or upper-class parents.

Walberg (1984) noted that

A significant relationship has been identified in social science research between family background variables, the educational levels obtained by parents, ethnicity, employment status of parents, family size and family intactness and student school achievement. (p. 398)

Clark (1983) believed that the dominate ideology among educators has been that a student’s socioeconomic status, race, family structure, and the education of his or her parents are predictors of the academic level a student will achieve. He stated:

Over the last decade a shift in our understanding has started to develop. Recent studies have identified behavioral factors (parent-child interactions, family process, and schooling processes) and family personality factors (family attitudes and perceptions) as the dominant predictors of a student’s academic achievement, given a certain minimum level of social opportunity. (pp. 17)

In his study, Family Life and School Achievement: Why Poor Black Children Succeed or Fail, Clark (1983) restated the impact of parental values and behavior on student learning. His final analysis concluded that it is the child rearing of parents--rather than their marital status or income--that determines a youngster’s success in school.
In Clark's (1983) review of the literature, he found that Chandler (1985), Cooper (1989), and Walberg (1984) were among the few researchers who have identified parenting behaviors related to homework that appear to have a positive impact on children's achievement and standardized test scores.

Olson (1990a) recognized that:

Schools can reward, demand and cajole children to learn, [but,] experts argue, parents provide the building blocks that make such learning possible. But what it amounts to are the home and community resources available to help children gain the self-esteem motivation and discipline needed for education. (p. 21)

White (1988) identified several related behavioral patterns that are productive to parent involvement. The behaviors delineated by White, which focus on the involvement of parents with children from birth to 3 years of age, are high nurturing behaviors, supportive language activities, clear and consistent discipline, supportive parental attitudes, skill in designing home learning, and resourcefulness in using community supports.

Swick (1988) reported that parents who lack self-confidence often lack confidence as educators of their children. Swick found that, in the homes of high achievers, parents communicated with their offsprings, set clear and consistent limits, provided strong encouragement of academic
pursuits, monitored how children spent their time, and offered a warm nurturing environment.

Jennings (1990) relayed Dornbusch et al. (1987) similar view of research when he documented a consistent relationship between how parents interact with and respond to their children and positive student performance. Dornbusch et al. (1985) and Dornbusch (1987), leading experts in the parenting field, found that leading factors that predicted students' performance in school were directly related to the amount of high school activities the students had participated in and their relationships with their parents. Dornbush et al. (1987), in a survey of 8,000 San Frisco Bay area high school students, found that active parenting classes insighted parents to improve relationships with their children. Relationships with parents were cited as the third most influential factor determining children's success in school. The last four factors, listed in hierarchial order, were (a) income, (b) ethnicity, (c) sex, and (d) family structure.

Dornbush et al. (1987) used a component of active parenting and sampled parents to determine parenting style. After comparing styles to students' success in school, they reached the following conclusions: Permissive parents did not have success-orientated children. Extremely authoritarian parents did not have success-oriented
children. Inconsistent parents did even worse than permissive parents and authoritarian parents. Balanced authoritarian/democratic parents had success-oriented children. Youngsters with authoritative parents tended to have better grades. Such parents set clear rules and standards for teenagers, encouraged a give-and-take atmosphere, and recognized the rights of both adults and children. Children of authoritative parents were deemed to be more socially responsible and more independent, and exhibited more highly developed social and cognitive skills.

Jennings (1990) added that, "if schools could somehow influence or build on the relationship between parents and youngsters in their home, such as research suggests, they could provide a powerful spur for academic learning" (p. 20). Grolick and Ryan (1989) agreed with the permissive and authoritarian perspectives described by Dornbush et al. (1987).

John Dixon (1986) found that student achievement was positively enhanced when parents perceived the school as a place where they could air their problems and affect action on their own or on their children's behalf. Dixon suggested that this could be attained by creating a climate in the school that invited parents to participate in their children's education. One suggested method for creating
this environment was through parenting classes for the parents of students at the school.

In *The Evidence Continues to Grow: Parent Involvement Improves Student Achievement*, Henderson (1988b) cited 18 additional studies that support the initial findings reported by Henderson (1987) in "The Effects of Planned Parental Involvement in Affective Education." Conclusions of the studies are as follows: Programs developed with strong parent involvement perform better than do programs which occur with less parent involvement. Students in schools that maintain frequent contact with the communities outperform those in schools with infrequent community contact. Children whose parents are in touch with the school score higher than children of similar aptitude and family background whose parents are not involved. Parents who help their children learn at home possess attitudes that are crucial to achievement. Children who are failing in school improve dramatically when parents are called in to help.

**The Changing American Family**

The 1990s have created a great deal of pressure for change in American culture. Olson (1990b) noted that, the rapidly changing dynamics of American families are having reverberation throughout society; but no where has the change hit harder than in the public school system, which
in-itself is undergoing major upheaval. The challenges of educating and raising children are compounded significantly by factors such as race and nationality. Minorities present an array of factors that also present themselves as barriers in the education of children.

The school system, as an institution, has developed many contradictory perceptions for parents in the United States. Cruichshank (1990) conveyed this idea when he said, "School as we conceive of it implies family as we conceive of it. Yet, family as we conceive of it no longer corresponds to family as it now exists" (p. 37). To further explain these changes, Olson (1990a) wrote, "As long as educators cling to the ideal of middle class image of the family, they will not be able to search for constructive alliances with the majority of families who do not match that stereotype" (p. 17).

The changes that have occurred in the family system across all racial, ethical, and socioeconomic groups are attributed to the proliferation of parenting materials (Getz & Gunn, 1988). These family changes include the following: Changes in sex roles due to the increased working status of women. Traditional authority patterns have been forced to change also. Divorce and remarriage have created many single-parent families and step-families that require different and unique services. Drugs, alcohol, substance
abuse, premarital sex, and pregnancy have all had significant effects on the family. Changes in the family have caused the end of the extended family, which has created voids in intergenerational guidelines and support. All of these factors have a significant influence on the role of the family in education today, and each exemplifies why parenting training is needed as we move into the future.

Minority Parenting Practices

The American Council of Education and the Education Commission of the States (1988) have reported that the gap between minority and majority groups is widening and that a compromised quality of life in America will be the result. Chavkin (1989) suggested that the successful education of minorities is the prerequisite to their social advancement, and that parent involvement is the key to this successful education.

Collier (1980) explained:

Language-minority parents are a diverse group with diverse needs. Large numbers of language minority parents come from working-class backgrounds, yet most have aspirations to middle-class status. There are language-minority parents of every conceivable language and cultural background, including a great variety in educational background, social class and experience. They come from rural and urban settings, as well as technological, industrial and preindustrial society. (p. 10)

Olson (1989) added:

All immigrant children face a transition to a new culture, a new language and a new way of life . . . . the transition is often difficult. Some negotiate that
transition successfully, can participate effectively in their schools and can find a place for themselves in our society. Others find the transition much more difficult. The more traumatic the immigration experience, the more intense and disorienting the culture shock and adjustment will be. For many, the adjustment to a large urban, industrial area is a major obstacle to overcome. Most immigrant children come from homogeneous nations and communities and must step directly into a multiethnic, multicultural, multiracial society. (p. 4)

Minority parents take on very different roles in the education process than do majority parents. As Olson (1984) stated,

Majority parents have greater access to the possibility of participating in the decision-making process. Majority parents are largely from middle class backgrounds and have more political control than minority parents. They also have more economic control and speak English primarily. All of these cultural factors are developed and maintained at the school. (p. 58)

Stockwell (1991) found that the need for minority parent involvement has been identified in several reviews of research (Chavkin, 1989; Clark, 1983; Comer, 1988; Henderson, 1987; Kagan, 1984; Walberg, 1984). She reported that

Reviews of research clearly indicate a strong positive relationship between parent involvement and student achievement. . . . The results clearly demonstrated that parents, regardless of ethnicity or minority status, were concerned about their children’s education. (Stockwell, 1991, p. 42)

Chavkin (1989) added: "There are additional benefits that accompany parent involvement such as student attendance,
positive parent child communication, improved student attitude and behavior and more community support" (p. 119).

Tran, Redding, Collier, and Oliva (1986) identified cross-cultural reasons for the lack of involvement of Indochinese parents. A review of the research supports similar findings across other ethnic minority groups (Comer, 1988; Heleen, 1988). Tran et al. attributed the lack of parent involvement to language barriers, lack of transportation, economic reasons, and alienation to the American education system.

Chavkin (1989) reinforced these ideas with his survey of 1,000 teachers and 2,000 parents to determine their educational desires for their children or students. He determined that parents in inner city schools were less satisfied than were suburban parents with the amount of teacher contact they received. Minority parents reported being intimidated by the staff and institutional structure of the school. They also reported feeling awkward about approaching school personnel, especially after a previous negative contact with the school. All parents, regardless of ethnicity or minority status, were concerned about their children’s education. The presumption by educators that minority parents do not care about their education is inaccurate. There is a difference, however, between caring and participating in their children’s education. The
research completed by Sarkees (1989) indicated that the rational for lack of parent involvement in minority homes is possibly due to feelings of insecurity in dealing with administrators, teachers, and support personnel; economic or time constraints that make it difficult for some parents to attend parent education activities; feelings of isolation due to a lack of English skills; a lack of confidence; a lack of knowledge about parenting and schooling; and a lack of teacher preparation in dealing with parents.

The attitudes, behaviors, and values of the family strongly affect the social, emotional, and cognitive development of children. Comer (1988) reported that a major barrier in the success of parent involvement is the mixed expectations both educators and parents have concerning parent involvement. Comer noted that parents often have basic desires that are not correlational to the wishes of educators.

Clark (1983) reported two basic reasons why parents from a low socioeconomic status do not become involved in parent education: (a) a lack of a basic understanding about how to receive help or who to talk to to get help, and (b) the fact that parents do not feel they have the right to ask for any special assistance for their children.

Lindle (1989) identified the following causes for the lack of parent involvement: professionalism, school people
who are business like, patronizing, and people who talk down to parents. His findings also revealed that teacher-parent disagreement increased as the seniority, training, and formality of the teacher increased. Parents who reported disliking formality, agreed that the most inviting factor was a personal touch. Lindle discovered that another enhancing factor was the flexibility of teachers in scheduling conferences around parents' work hours.

Hispanics

The influx of many Spanish-speaking people to the United States has strongly impacted the education system. Nationwide, 56% of Hispanic adults are functional or marginal illiterates in English (Pailthorp, 1987). Hispanics, compared to other minorities, are more likely to dropout of high school than are black or Asian students (Kozol, 1985). Minority children are expected to represent 57% of the school age population by the year 2000 (Pailthorp, 1987).

Educators are learning to deal with lingual, cultural, and ethnic diversities. Many linguistic minority students are identified as being at-risk of school failure. One out of 5 Hispanic families are at the poverty level, compared to 1 in 15 Anglo families. Eighty-six percent of the Hispanic labor force are minimum wage earners and 9.4% are managers
or professionals. The American Council of Education and the Education Commission of the States (1988) reported a decrease (from 35% to 26%) in the number of Hispanic high school graduates entering college. The number decreased steadily from 1976 to 1985. Due to these critical statistics, responsible educational intervention is needed to assist Hispanic students.

According to Gordon (1975), applications of parenting skills are heavily influenced by cultural setting. Gordon emphasized that "parents and professionals need to work in concert to create home environments that strengthen parents to support their children" (p. 3).

Differences as rudimentary as the philosophical premises of school, the roles each person plays in the system, and expected behaviors are in direct conflict with the Hispanic culture. Unfamiliarity with school structure and fear of the unknown have resulted in a lack of participation by minority parents. When the language factor is added, the picture becomes even more complex. Miscommunication between home and school and no communication at all are often a by-product of language differences.

Education in Mexico and other Latin American countries is very different from education in the United States. There the systems are centralized and controlled by a
Minister of Education (Garcia, 1990). Schools are funded through indirect taxation rather than through property taxes. The result is total control from the ministry with little or no input from parents, communities, or other factors. Educators in Mexico and other Latin American countries are perceived as authorities and parents do not interfere out of respect for the teachers' positions (Bermudez & Padron, 1987). Hispanic parents often feel inadequate about their ability to contribute to the functioning of the school (Blanco, 1978). Other factors, cited by Blanco, are school scheduling, work interference due to work hours, and a lack of understanding of the need for partnership between home and school.

Minority parents' own educational experiences are often limited and many were never taught the things their children are studying (Pailthorp, 1987). Hispanic parents often believe that if they stay out of the way of education, due to respect and personal inadequacy, the system will function better (Rodriquez, 1985).

The roles of parents and school officials in American school systems are evolving. With the onset of site-based management, parents' participation in the development of school policies and procedures is increasing daily. American schools promote, and even require, a close home-school partnership. Hispanic parents, however, do not
feel it is necessary to build this type of relationship (Rodriquez, 1985).

Hispanic parents are also reluctant to participate in their children's school experiences because of fear (Lindle, 1989). School is often perceived as a cold, impersonal institution that is run by Anglos who are insensitive to their cultural differences (Spicer & Sanchez, 1992). These parents often feel uncomfortable even entering a school (Drum & Navarette, 1990). They often feel pushed to disregard the culture they brought with them from their native country and to assimilate American ways. This factor is compounded when they do not speak English.

Hispanics are also unfamiliar with school organizations because they were not available in their native land. PTA is a classic example of this unfamiliarity. It is critical that educators be sensitive to the cultural differences in the parents of their students.

Several significant psychological factors play an important part in the cultural perspective of any minority culture. All people, especially minorities, have a fear of being put down, either overtly or covertly (Lindle, 1989). Parents' failure to succeed at school when they were younger often causes additional stress when they are asked to participate as adults (Dymac, 1988). Minority parents who were educated in the United States may have had negative
experiences due to racial discrimination or problems related to language. When school connotes negative experiences from their early involvement, parents are less inclined to participate.

As reported by Franklin (1988), challenging the school's authority requires a great deal of self-confidence and experience. The more educated the parent, the greater the likelihood of a minority questioning a school's position.

Drum and Navarette (1990) recommended that school administrators make an active commitment to parenting programs and do everything possible to encourage their growth. Administrative action should also include Hispanic participation on site-based-decision-making committees, involvement in all extracurricular functions, and the availability of appropriate translators. If Hispanic parents overcome these cultural and psychological barriers and experience schools as open and friendly places, they are more likely to participate in their children's education.

Because of the continual diversification of roles in American society, Hispanic families have been faced with some significant challenges. Women, who are working more outside of the home, sometimes make more money than their husbands. Because this causes women to feel more independent and to expect more equality in household
responsibilities, it has contributed additional conflict to the changing roles of parents in Hispanic families (Drum & Navarette, 1990).

An area of great conflict in American society is the attention given to youth. The power created by this attention has undermined the role of Hispanic authoritarian fathers and childrearing mothers and is reflective of the clash in values Hispanic parents are encountering in the 1990s. Such changes cause role diversification and changes in family orientation (Sandoval et al., 1986).

Sensitization to the characteristics of Hispanic homes enables educators to understand the challenging transition that Hispanic parents experience in the development of effective American parenting skills. Good parenting skills are not innate qualities or spontaneous reactions to children's behavior. Due to changing social values, the traditional task of raising children now requires that parents learn techniques which are helpful in effective parenting (Katz et al., 1989).

The responsibilities of childrearing and parenting are not solely in the hands of parents, but are borne by the entire society. The ramifications of parenting cross many domains: economic, psychological, legal, educational, and geographic. It is the responsibility of every American
citizen to promote human potential through effective parenting.

Review of the literature supports the fact that, regardless of minority status or ethnicity, parents are concerned about their children's education. Educators are incorrect to assume that minority parents do not care. Cultural differences are identified as the major cause for lack of participation in the American education process. The literature also supports the fact that parents' involvement improves children's academic performance. There appears to be no one specific parent involvement approach that is more beneficial to encouraging academic improvement than all others. Previous research supports the notion that there is still much to learn about the various types of parent involvement and their effects upon the education of children.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In order to obtain the information needed for testing the hypotheses stated in this research, it was necessary to use a procedure that would provide comparative data on students' academic achievement in the areas of reading, language, and mathematics; students' attitude; students' discipline; and parents' opinions about education. In this chapter, the methods, techniques, and instruments used in collecting the data for the study and in the selection of the population for the research are discussed.

Selection of the Population

Stratified random samples were drawn from all fourth-grade bilingual students from two large (800-900) student elementary schools in a mid-size (12,632) suburban school district outside of the Dallas metroplex. Students from both bilingual campuses shared similar academic, intellectual, emotional, and socioeconomic histories. Their time in the United States and duration of time in American schools varied from new arrivals from other countries to those born in the United States. This information was
documented through a demographic and personal questionnaire completed by all parents in the study prior to the beginning of the research.

The control group was composed of 51 parents and their fourth-grade children who had been diagnosed as limited English proficient and were currently placed in a bilingual education setting where instruction was presented in Spanish in all academic areas. The experimental group was composed of 53 parents and their fourth-grade students who had been diagnosed as limited English proficient and were placed in a bilingual educational setting where instruction was presented in Spanish in all academic areas. They were selected through a stratified random sample.

Sampling

Samples were drawn from stratified groups from both schools' populations. The population contained all fourth-grade students enrolled in bilingual education programs at John Haley Elementary, L. B. Barton Elementary, and J. O. Schulze Elementary Schools in the Irving Independent School District. Permission from each building principal was obtained by personal contact and letter.

Random selection and placement in both the control group and the experimental group occurred prior to the onset
of the intervention. The smallest acceptable sample size per group was 50 students.

At the time of the study, John Haley Elementary had a student population of 867 students; 327, or approximately 37%, were bilingual. L. B. Barton Elementary had a student population of 818 students; 299, or approximately 36%, were bilingual. J. O. Schulze Elementary had a student population of 755 students; 248, or 32%, were bilingual.

Selection was made by first placing the name and demographic information of all fourth-grade bilingual children from all schools on index cards. The cards were then mixed, and cards were drawn randomly until positions in each group were filled. Fifty children were chosen for the experimental group and 50 children were chosen for the control group.

Instrumentation

The National test of Basic Skills (NTBS) was used to determine the academic standing of all students in the study. The NTBS is an achievement series that produces three broad areas of results: total reading, total mathematics, and total language arts.

A demographic questionnaire was completed by all parents involved in the study (in both the control and experimental groups) to detect any trends or correlations
from the demographic information gathered and the current hypotheses. The questions were provided in both Spanish and English (see Appendices A and B). Individuals from the Hispanic forum assisted parents in completing the questionnaires.

The **Parent Opinion Inventory**, a two-part test, was used to develop a baseline assessment of parents' perceptions of school and their children's education. This measure was administered to all parents, both control and experimental, prior to the intervention. At the completion of the intervention, the same instrument was again administered to both groups in order to detect any changes in parents' perceptions after the intervention. Form A of the inventory consists of a Likert-type scale for evaluating 51 objective items covering a broad spectrum of school operations and was designed to gain a considerable amount of information about a school as economically as possible. The intent is to provide school personnel and administrators with parents' opinions of how they believe a school is meeting the needs of their children. The intent of the inventory is not to compare one school with another, but to point out strengths and limitations with a view toward improvement.

Form B of the inventory consists of four open-ended questions on which parents' subjective opinions are requested in essay form, allowing a wide latitude for
response. Responses to these questions are informative in their own right, but are especially useful in conjunction with the data from Part A. Assistants were provided to assist parents with the documentation and writing of Form B of the Parent Opinion Inventory (see Appendices C and D).

The initial field test data from Part A produced an alpha reliability of .94 for the full scale. The median reliability for subscales was .74. These figures were satisfactory. The inventory is valid to the extent that it represents the opinions and beliefs of parents concerning their schools. This domain varies from school to school, but generally is focused on selected conditions and operations within the schools. The focal points presented in the inventory have been identified by a group of school administrators, parents, and university faculty members. The items in the inventory have been devised to reflect parental responses to these focal points, and are valid to the extent that they, indeed, assess parents' opinions and beliefs about the principal conditions and operations of their schools. According to the National Study of School Evaluation, which developed the measure, the Parent Opinion Inventory does this well.

The School Attitude Measure was designed to survey and evaluate several dimensions of students' attitudes. The survey examines students' views of their academic

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environment and of themselves as students. Information is provided on five attitude scales: (a) motivation for schooling, (b) academic self-concept-performance based, (c) academic self-concept-reference based, (d) students' sense of control over performance, and (e) students' instructional mastery. Each scale consists of a set of statements to which students respond based on their feelings about the statement (see Appendices E and F).

The validity of the School Attitude Measure is .90. The reliability of the School Attitude Measure is .91. These data were re-normed at American Testronics during the fall of 1989. The instrument is presumed to measure children's attitudes toward school in a fairly reliable fashion.

Project Limitations

The following limitations are applicable to this study:

1. This study focuses on bilingual fourth graders who attended a suburban school district. The results should not be compared to other bilingual schools that do not share the same demographic characteristics.

2. Culturally, the Hispanic population has respect and fear for educators within the school setting. This fear may have caused parents to bias their answers on the Parent Opinion Inventory. They may have been inclined to write the
answers that they believed the school would want in lieu of their true feelings.

3. There may have been translator bias on the Parent Opinion Inventory. Parents' lack of literary skills required the assistance of a translator to write their perceptions on each inventory. This could have occurred on Section B of the Parent Opinion Inventory, where parents are asked to write their feelings on several topics.

4. This study was not conducted over a prolonged period of time. The parent involvement training sessions could have lasted longer, possibly 2 to 6 months, and the effects of the program could have been tested at the end of that period of time. The time used for the sessions may not have been adequate to provide significant growth in parents' achievement, opinions, or attitudes.

Procedures for Collecting Data

Prior to the intervention, the following procedures were completed:

1. All schedules for parenting sessions and instructors were confirmed.

2. Subjects were selected using a stratified random sampling method. The description of the sampling procedure is described earlier in this study.
3. Names and addresses of parents were obtained. A cover letter and a consent form were distributed to parents to introduce the project, explain their involvement, inform them of schedules for parenting classes, and administration of the Parent Opinion Inventory and obtain their permission.

4. An assessment of all students' academic achievement was made prior to the parent training and academic scores were measured using the National Test of Basic Skills. Academic levels were recorded in national and local percentiles for vocabulary, reading comprehension, spelling, language mechanics, language expression, references, mathematical computation, mathematical concepts, and mathematical application. The percentiles were established for all students involved in the study. The achievement series was administered again at the completion of the intervention in order to detect any significant changes in the children's achievement.

5. The parents of children in both the experimental and the control groups completed the Parent Opinion Inventory prior to intervention. This was used to monitor and establish current parental attitudes toward their children and the school environment. At the completion of the intervention, the Parent Opinion Inventory was given to detect any significant changes in the parents' opinion toward school.
6. Prior to the intervention, all students involved in the study were given the School Attitude Measure to establish their attitudes toward school, their parents, and their teachers. At the completion of the intervention, the School Attitude Measure was again administered to both groups to detect any significant changes in the students' attitudes toward school, their parents, and their teachers.

7. Prior to the intervention, disciplinary referrals for students in the control group and the experimental group were counted and a monthly average was determined. This average was calculated by summing the number of past disciplinary referrals that had occurred over a 3-month period of time and dividing the total by three.

8. Upon initial collection of all achievement scores, parent inventories, student inventories, demographic surveys, and disciplinary referrals, the parent training sessions began.

The Treatment

Four, 2-hour parent training sessions (8 hours total) were provided for all parents in the experimental group. The parenting sessions followed the Padres Eficaces Con Entrenamiento Sistematico format. This program is the Spanish version of the Systematic Training for Effective Parenting Program by Don Dinkmeyer and Steven McKay (1979).
The theoretical basis of the program evolves around the concept of democracy and responsibility. Children are treated fairly and receive logical consequences for their behavior. This parenting program encourages communication between parents and children. Parents set parameters for children's behaviors and children are allowed to make decisions within those limitations.

The program was adapted to meet the special needs of the Hispanic culture by the American Guidance Association. A team led by Jesse Chapman field tested the program in Florida, Texas, and California in 1977 (American Guidance Service, personal communication, Thursday, October 15, 1992). A combined curriculum was developed and adaptations were made to better fit the cultural needs of the communities that were to receive the information. Two topics were introduced at each parenting meeting. The topics are presented in the following outline:

Session 1

1. Understanding children's behavior--Defined the four motives for behavior and how to detect them and respond to each

2. The good parent versus the responsible parent--Established the difference between parents who do everything for their children and parents who allow some autonomy and do not prevent logical consequences
Session 2

1. **Encouragement versus praise**—Defined the difference between praising accomplishment and praising effort

2. **Communication**—Stressed open communication and closed communication and their effects

Session 3

1. **Expressing ideas and feelings**—Introduced effective ways to encourage children to express their feelings and ideas

2. **Natural and logical consequences**—Established guidelines for parents to set consequences with logical order and removed emotional interference with discipline issues

Session 4

1. **Decision making for parents**—Instructed parents on how to define limits and parameters for their children

2. **The family meeting**—Defined the purpose of family meetings and established methods and guidelines for holding family meetings

The program contents were presented in Spanish with the use of audio and visual aides. The curriculum followed the following format:

1. **Introduction and information**—The introduction involved parents’ participation in informal open discussion. The topic was presented and information was discussed.
2. Application—Examples of concept application were offered in class, parents offered possible methods of implementation at home.

3. Questions and answers—Open forum to ask and answer questions about the topic first, and any area of concern after.

4. Homework—Each parent was given a homework assignment dealing with the concept covered in class. It was discussed prior to the onset of the next class.

The parent training sessions were held on the four Mondays in February, 1992. These dates were February 4th, 11th, 18th, and 25th. The training sessions were held at John Haley Elementary, in cafeteria A, from 7:00 p.m. to 9:00 p.m. Parents who could not attend the regular sessions were given a make-up session during the week at John Haley Elementary. The make-up sessions were presented by the counselor, using a bilingual aide for translation purposes. Babysitting was provided free of charge for all children who accompanied their parents to the training sessions. Refreshments were provided for all parents involved in the parent program, and door prizes were given to those in attendance.

The final data collection occurred after the fourth parenting session. At that time, parents completed the Parent Opinion Inventory. The Student Attitude Measure and
the National Test of Basic Skills were given at school. Students' disciplinary referrals were counted 2 months after the training was completed.

Data Tabulation

The following procedures were followed for tabulating data:

1. The Parent Opinion Inventories were hand-scored according to instructions in the manual. Each parent's score was recorded on a mastery summary data form (Appendices F and G) by mean.

2. Students' scores on the Student Attitude Measure were hand-scored to instrumentations in the manual. Each child's score was recorded on a master summary data form (Appendices F and G) by mean.

3. All pre- and post-National Test of Basic Skills scores were established and recorded for total reading, total mathematics, and total language. These scores are provided in Appendices F and G.

4. All disciplinary referrals were counted for 3 months prior to the treatment and again after the treatment. Both numbers are provided in Appendices F and G.

5. The demographic surveys were hand-scored. The mean, median, and mode were recorded for both groups. These criteria were broken down into four areas: (a) number of
children, (b) years in the United States, (c) years in
school, and (d) total family income.

The methods employed to complete the research required
minimal adaptations. Several make-up parenting sessions
were given three times for parents who could not attend the
initial sessions. The most difficult issue in completing
the methodology for this research was the constant need for
a translator and frustration caused by the inability to
communicate thoughts and feelings to the parents and
students. The experience provided an example of how it
feels to be a minority.
The purpose of this chapter is to present an analysis of the data obtained from the responses to the instruments described in Chapter 3 and tests of the hypotheses stated in Chapter 1. The increasing emphasis on parent involvement in children's education makes it important to know the results of parents' participation in school. Therefore, the following analyses were made:

1. Analysis was made to discover if there was any difference in achievement, specifically reading, mathematics, and language (Hypothesis 1) between the two student groups after the treatment period.

2. Analysis was made to determine any difference in disciplinary actions between the two student groups after the treatment period (Hypothesis 2).

3. Analysis was made to determine any difference in attitudes between the two student groups after the treatment period (Hypothesis 3).

4. Analysis was made to determine any difference in parents' attitudes toward the educational system between the two parent groups after the treatment period (Hypothesis 4).
It was beneficial to gather data and investigate the basic demographic characteristics of both students and parents involved in the study prior to the intervention. To better understand the composition of both the experimental and the contrast groups, gender identification was determined and is provided in Table 1. The gender analysis revealed that both groups were fairly well-represented by male and female students.

Table 1
Comparison of Gender of Two Student Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The demographic survey (Appendices A and B) was administered to all parents in the study. A brief overview of these results is provided in Table 2.

From the data in Table 2, the following observations are made:

1. The experimental and contrast groups matched exactly when comparing the number of children in each
Table 2

Demographic Profile of the Two Parent Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Contrast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average number of children in the family</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of children receiving free or reduced lunch</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of years in the United States</td>
<td>9.52 yrs.</td>
<td>8.23 yrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest level of parents’ education</td>
<td>7th grade</td>
<td>6.5th grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average family income</td>
<td>$12,000.00</td>
<td>$11,000.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

family. The mean for both groups was 3.6. The modes for the groups were also identical, at 2 and 5, respectively.

2. The percentage of children receiving either free or reduced lunches through the school was very similar—97% and 100%. This percentage is very high and is one of the significant criteria that help define both groups. The implications of poverty have a severe effect on students’ ability to succeed in the educational arena as well as in life in general (Kinney, 1988; Schiamberg & Chin, 1987).

3. Students in the experimental group had lived in the United States slightly longer than had students in the contrast group. The contrast group averaged 8.23 years in
the United States and the experimental group averaged 9.52 years.

4. Another difference noted was the highest level of education achieved by the parents. The experimental group's parent average was 7th grade, whereas the contrast group's level of education averaged 6.5th grade—a difference of 7 months. The range for the experimental group was from no formal education to post-graduate studies. The range for the contrast group was from first-grade to a 4-year college degree. The mode for both groups was 6th grade.

5. A small difference also emerged when the average family income for the two groups was compared. Parents in the experimental group earned an average of $1,000.00 more than did parents in the control group.

Overall, the experimental group scored higher in the areas of parents' educational level, family income, and years in the United States. The experimental group scored lower on the number of children participating in the free and reduced lunch plan. These factors may be related but a relationship cannot be determined from this research. The differences were slight, never exceeding 1 year, 1 grade level, or $1,000.00. Because the differences are very small, it is assumed that they had a limited effect on the study.
Students in both groups were given the National Test of Basic Skills. The national percentiles are provided for all students in the areas of total reading, total language, and total mathematics (see Appendices F and G). Assessments were completed in reading, mathematics, and language prior to the intervention and a mean was established for each group. The means are shown in Table 3 for mathematics, in Table 4 for reading, and in Table 5 for language.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>41.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>34.975</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results for both groups after the treatment were very similar in the areas of reading and mathematics. However, the experimental group scored significantly higher than the control group in the area of language after the treatment.
Table 4

Comparison of Students’ Scores in the Area of Reading Prior to Treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>17.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>25.100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5

Comparison of Students’ Scores in the Area of Language Prior to Treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>33.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>19.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A multivariate test of significance (MANOVA) was used to compare the pretest and posttest measures of the two student groups. A statistical analysis of the results, as shown in Table 6, revealed that a significant difference between the two groups at the 0.003 level in the area of total language after the treatment. No significant difference was found in the areas of reading or mathematics. This difference indicates that Hispanic students’ language
Table 6

Comparison of All Academic Achievement Variables After Treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Adjusted Mean</th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Contrast</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>17.05</td>
<td>25.10</td>
<td>0.22053</td>
<td>0.640 NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>32.24</td>
<td>20.26</td>
<td>45.91770</td>
<td>0.003 *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>38.15</td>
<td>37.85</td>
<td>0.12144</td>
<td>0.728 NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level of confidence. NS = nonsignificant.

Scores were directly improved by their parents’ participation in the education system.

Analysis of Disciplinary Actions

The numbers of students referred to the administrative offices of the schools were documented and tallied. Students were referred to the principal for a variety of reasons, including fighting with peers, inappropriate language, continuously not following rules, and excessive classroom disruptions.

The number of disciplinary actions taken for students in the control group and the experimental group, prior to treatment and after treatment, are provided in Appendices F.
and G. Comparisons of the number of disciplinary actions that occurred before and after the intervention for both the experimental group and the control group are provided in Tables 7 and 8. The N in Table 7 represents the number of students who were referred for disciplinary action. Several students in both the control and experimental groups were referred more than one time.

Table 7

Disciplinary Actions for Both Groups Prior to the Intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Prior Disciplinary Actions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One student in the experimental group was referred to the office 11 times and was later suspended to an alternative campus. The control group also included one incident on a school bus, off school grounds, that resulted in four referrals to the principal. These referrals were counted in the study. The removal of these four referrals may have had a different effect on the results of the disciplinary investigation.
Table 8

**Disciplinary Actions for Both Groups After Treatment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Actions After Treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third hypothesis predicted that there would be no difference between the disciplinary action for the control group and the experimental group after the experimental group was subjected to parent involvement training. A statistical analysis of variance, as presented in Table 9,

Table 9

**Comparative Analysis of All Disciplinary Actions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>Significance of $F$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disciplinary action</td>
<td>0.381</td>
<td>0.539 NS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. NS = nonsignificant.

yielded no significant difference in the number of disciplinary actions that occurred with either group of students. The results show a significance of $F$ of .0539,
which exceeds the .05 level of difference. Therefore, it is inferred that parent involvement with the education system has little or no effect on children's daily behavior in school. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Analysis of Students' Attitudes

Prior to treatment, students in the experimental and control groups took the Student Interest Inventory. The mean scores from both groups are shown in Table 10.

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Student Attitude Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>184.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>157.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This measure was also completed after the treatment. Results of the data analysis from the posttreatment assessment are shown in Table 11. Even though the experimental group started at a much lower mean than did the control group, the experimental group still demonstrated the highest gains after the treatment.
Table 11

Comparison of Students' Attitudes After Treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Adjusted Mean</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>178.92</td>
<td>56.399</td>
<td>0.003 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>163.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

A statistical analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) yielded a sizable difference between the two groups at the .05 level, with an F score of .003. This difference indicates that the students' attitudes toward school were directly impacted by their parents' involvement in the school system.

Analysis of Parents' Opinions

Parents of all students involved in the study completed the Parent Opinion Inventory prior to the treatment, and immediately after the treatment. Scores prior to the treatment were averaged for both groups and are shown in Table 12.

The parent opinion measure was administered immediately after the last parenting class. Scores for both groups were analyzed. An interpretation is provided in Table 13. A statistical analysis of variance (ANOVA) yielded no
Table 12

Parent Opinion Scores Prior to Treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Adjusted Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>191.55</td>
<td>194.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>196.22</td>
<td>193.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13

Comparison Analysis of Parent Opinion After the Treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Significance of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent Opinion</td>
<td>0.601</td>
<td>0.441 NS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significance is at the .05 level of confidence. NS = nonsignificant.

There was no significant difference in opinions for either group of parents.

The results show a significance of F of .441, which exceeds the .05 level of significance. Therefore, it can be deduced that there was no difference in parents' opinions between the control group and the experimental group. Parents' involvement did not change their perceptions. Therefore, the null hypothesis was supported.
Several theoretical premises were used as a foundation to test the previously stated hypothesis. These were briefly mentioned in Chapter 1. Stanley Schachter's work in 1959 set the premise for the theory of social comparison. This theory states that in an ambiguous situation (such as parenting), a situation in which we are not certain as to what we should do or how we should feel, we will affiliate with people with whom we can compare feelings and behaviors. If the situation is parenting sessions and parents are given the arena to discuss their feelings about raising children, they will be more inclined to turn to that group for support due to the ambiguity of the task, parenting. Later, Albert Bandura (1969), building on Schachter's belief, theorized the beginning of social learning theory. This theory also has correlational effects on parent training. The social learning theory suggests that operants are acquired through the observation of others. Practice is often necessary to refine these skills but the basic know-how is acquired through observation. Skills sometimes are latent until they are truly needed. Parent education training benefits from the premises of both social comparison and social learning theory.

Another theory that offers strong support to the hypotheses tested in this research is the Lawler-Porter Model of Expectancy Theory of Motivation (Porter & Lawler,
1968). This theory is designed specifically for organizational management, but the factors involved are directly correlational to a parent education program.

The first concept of this theory is the idea of rewards, values, and rewards probability. This idea indicates that if an individual perceives a possible reward, and the probability of that reward is known, the person will work harder to attain it.

The second concept of this theory is effort to performance. According to Porter and Lawler (1968), if an individual feels there is a direct relationship between the amount of effort used and the degree of task accomplishment, the individual will be more motivated to complete the task. They also addressed the effect of the ability and traits an individual has, and its correlation to the task. Role perception, the third concept in their theory, defines a person's role compared to the task that must be accomplished. An individual's role must fit the attributes needed to successfully complete the job. The fourth idea is that of rewards. Both intrinsic and extrinsic are examined as a necessary part of task completion. Because this is a process theory rather than a product theory, the rewards are perceived differently. They include the personal payoff an employee receives when the job is well done. The rewards are current and ongoing. The last idea in their theory is
the concept of satisfaction. This is the actual extent to which the rewards received meet or exceed the perceived equitable level of rewards.

Each concept has applications to parent training. If the skills presented in the program have a theoretically researched premise, parents will be informed of the benefits of using such skills and the probable rewards. Almost all parents are concerned about the welfare of their children. This concern can easily be attached to the idea of reward value.

The perception of thinking of one's children and dedicating time to improve their well-being can be correlated to effort. In several cases, the concern is not correlated to specific skills to improve the individuals' parenting efforts. Parent training teaches these skills. Performance will improve in the parenting domain if an effort is extended and the appropriate skills are applied.

Individuals' traits and abilities vary, but the majority of parents bring the concept of care and concern to the parenting session. This is a strong motivator.

Typically, when children are born their parents take on the role of teacher, role model, and leader. The role is defined with the birth of a child. Parent training sessions often help parents understand the power of this role.
Rewards of parenting are often intrinsic and are given through children's behavior. The more positive the children's behavior the greater the likelihood of more positive responses from other people. This factor is often a source of great satisfaction.

The Lawler-Porter model and social learning theory hold much merit when correlated to parent training. The positive reinforcement received from the appropriate behavior of children in society is great, as are the ramifications of children's misbehavior. As a society, we expect more socialized behavior from children at an early age. In turn, the punishment for misbehavior in children has increased. Thus, the value of parenting programs and effective parenting skills have increased. Appropriate social modeling is no longer considered a novelty, but has become a societal necessity. The two theories previously mentioned provide the basic premise for the hypotheses posed in this research.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the efforts of parenting education on student achievement, student discipline, and students’ and parents’ attitudes toward school.

A total of 104 students participated in the study. The trained (experimental) group, whose parents participated in the study, had a total of 53 students. The nontrained (control) group, whose parents participated in the study, had 51 students. During the month of March, 1992, on concurrent Tuesdays (10th, 17th, 24th, and 31st), the parents in the experimental group received training in Padres Efficaces Con Entrenaminto Sistematizado format. This is the Spanish version of the Systematic Training for Effective Parenting program which has been translated and culturally adapted to meet Hispanic parents’ needs (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1979). A group of parents selected from a stratified random sample agreed to participate as the control group without the benefit of the training. All parents completed the Parent Opinion Inventory prior to the treatment. The students of both the experimental and
control groups completed the School Attitude Measure prior to the treatment. All students also completed the National Test of Basic Skills before the parenting sessions were given.

After finishing the parenting sessions, all parents again completed the Parent Opinion Inventory, and students completed the Student Attitude Measure and the National Test of Basic Skills. The students' discipline referrals were documented for the experimental and control groups prior to and after the training. Data collected after the parenting sessions were used to analyze the hypotheses.

Summary of the Findings

Student Achievement in Reading, Mathematics, and Language

The pre- and posttreatment scores on the National Test of Basic Skills of the students whose parents participated in the parenting sessions (experimental group) were compared with the scores of students whose parents were in the nontrained (control) group. Academic achievement was measured in the areas of reading, mathematics, and language. The results are as follows:

1. There was no significant difference at the .05 level of confidence in the area of reading.

2. There was no significant difference at the .05 level of confidence in the area of mathematics.
3. There was a significant difference at the .001 level of confidence in the area of language.

The Multiple-Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) Test produced confidence levels of .640 in reading and .728 in the area of mathematics. The language level on the MANOVA was .001 between the experimental group and the control group. There is cause for optimism that the training and subsequent involvement in parenting sessions did improve the experimental group students' academic performance in the area of language. The improvement in the area of language may be due to the occurrence of more English conversation in the home, possibly between parents and children. The improvement may also be attributable to a correlational positive increase in students' attitudes toward school due to parent participation.

Student Discipline

No difference was found in the number of disciplinary referrals sent to the office between the control group and the experimental group.

This level was ascertained through the Analysis of Covariance Test ($f = .539$). From this information, it can be inferred that the parent training classes had little or no effect on the children's behavior at school. This may be attributed to the parents' absence from school throughout
the normal day. If the students did not feel that their behavior would be immediately reinforced by their parents, either negatively or positively, there would be no reason for change. Also, the perceptions of teachers toward students in either the control group or the experimental group remained unaffected by parent involvement training. The peer group remained intact for both the control group and the experimental group; it is very difficult to change a pattern of behavior if it is observed by a wide variety of people.

Students’ Attitudes Toward School

A significant difference was found in the experimental group and control group’s attitudes after parent involvement training.

The results of the Analysis of Covariance Test (see Table 1) show that statistical difference was found at the .003 level. Students for the experimental group showed more positive attitudes toward school at the end of the treatment period than did students in the control group. The noted increase can be attributed to the response from their parents attending school and participating in their children’s academic experience. The emphasis on keeping Hispanic students interested in school and the importance of students having positive attitudes toward school makes it
imperative to look for ways to make school more appealing to students.

Parents' Opinion of Attitude Toward School

The posttreatment scores on the Parent Opinion Inventory of parents in the experimental group were compared to the scores of parents in the control group. The parents' opinions about school remained relatively unchanged throughout the study. This may be attributable to established perceptions that parents acquired throughout their lives. These patterns developed for a minimum of 20 years and are not likely to change quickly due to school intervention.

Conclusions

To summarize the conclusions, parents' training and involvement in their children's school experiences resulted in an increase in their academic achievement, specifically in the area of language arts. Parents' involvement also increased their children's positive attitudes toward school and the education process. This could be attributable to the extra attention the children received, or to the fact that someone was taking the time to think about them and do something specifically for them at school, in their arena. The works of Jennings (1990) and Kinney (1988) support the idea that parent involvement improves students' academic
performance. Caution should be taken in generalizing these findings to other academic areas; however, the data analysis indicates that students' achievement improves with an increase in parent involvement. It appears that a key to the desired end result of improved student achievement is parent involvement of any kind.

Encouragement of positive parent interaction with the school system appeared very beneficial to the Hispanic parents. At the end of each parenting session, there was a notable increase in conversation and participation with representatives of the school system by the parents involved in the training. The parents felt more at ease coming to school and interacting because it was a nonthreatening environment and they actually felt welcome and appreciated. Lindle (1989) shared some of the same perceptions. A portion of his findings deal with the way minority parents are treated at school. He confirmed the idea that a soft touch helps parents build bridges. Greeting and talking with others in their own language was a critical component to the parents' interaction. The Hispanic family, specifically, must be examined when evaluating cultural implications. The parents involved in the study wanted the best for their children (Heleen, 1988). They were not aware of cultural changes necessary to success in an American educational system. The parents were not aware of the
behaviors needed to help improve their children’s achievement. After the treatment, the experimental group had a repertoire of skills that could be implemented as needed to help increase their participation at school.

At the onset of each training session, the parents discussed their successes and failures. More successes were noted as the sessions proceeded. Some of these characteristics may be attributed to the Hawthorne Effect.

The normal attrition rate correlated to parent education programs (20 to 45%) was not reflected in the experimental group. No attribution rate was noted at all. On several occasions, no differences in the number of participants were seen.

Factors that guarantee a successful parent training should be examined. They are, in some sense, more important and powerful than the curriculum. More attention should be focused on the process of parenting. The process should make certain environmental conditions positive. Factors to be considered should include seating, refreshment, babysitting, and material that is available at each parent’s educational level. Open communication in the parents’ native language is mandatory. Time for individuals to interact and invitations to share information also contribute to the success of a parent training program.
These factors have a greater impact on the success of the program than does the content.

Suggestions for Further Research

Several areas of study merit future research. This study focused on students' academic achievement in reading, mathematics, and language; students' discipline; parents' opinions; and students' attitude. The following recommendations are made for future research:

1. The amount of time allocated for parent sessions should be extended to a year to give the parents time to become more involved in their children's education.

2. Future study should be focused on parental influences to language acquisition. When language was examined throughout this study, it was specifically academic language growth. An interesting difference might be the increase of English language application. This might also be investigated through parental English classes.

3. Because Hispanic students' attitudes toward school improved through parental involvement, other involvement methods should be researched (i.e., site-based management involvement, home learning programs, volunteer involvement, communication models, and human development classes) (Epstein, 1986).
4. The long-term effects of parent involvement on the dropout rate should be investigated. The majority of Hispanic dropout students voluntarily remove themselves from school during the seventh grade for males and the ninth grade for females (Texas Education Agency, 1989).

5. Other parenting programs should be tested and the results compared and contrasted.
APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY--ENGLISH
Demographic Survey

Please be honest and answer all of the questions listed below.

1. NAME:__________________________________________________________

2. SPOUSE'S NAME:________________________________________________

3. How many children do you have?___________________________________
   Please list your children's names and ages.

   1. ___________________________  ____  5. ___________________________
   2. ___________________________  ____  6. ___________________________
   3. ___________________________  ____  7. ___________________________
   4. ___________________________  ____  8. ___________________________

4. Are your children in school on free or reduced lunch?_______________

5. What year did you come to the United States?__________

6. Please check your last year in school.

   ____ 3rd to 5th grade  ____  high school graduate
   ____ 6th to 7th grade  ____  G.E.D.
   ____ 8th to 9th grade  ____  some college
   ____ 10th to 11th grade  ____  1 to 2 years college
   ____ 12th grade  ____  3 to 4 years college
   ____ college graduate

7. Are you or your spouse employed outside of the home?_______________

8. Please check your annual total family income.

   ____ $2,000.00 or less  ____ $16,000.00 to $19,000.00
   ____ $3,000.00 to $5,000.00  ____ $20,000.00 to $25,000.00
   ____ $6,000.00 to $9,000.00  ____ $26,000.00 to $30,000.00
   ____ $10,000.00 to $15,000.00  ____ $31,000.00 or more
APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY--SPANISH
Censo Demográfico

Esta información es confidencial y no será revelada a otras personas. Es necesitada solamente para un censo. Favor de honesto y contestar todas de las siguientes preguntas.

1. Nombre: ________________________________________________

2. Nombre de esposo (a) _______________________________________

3. ¿Cuántos niños tiene usted? _____________________________

   Favor de listar los nombres y edades de sus niños.

   1. ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________
   2. ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________
   3. ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________
   4. ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________
   5. ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________
   6. ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________
   7. ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________
   8. ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________ ___________

4. Los niños que asisten a la escuela, reciben el lonche gratis o reducido? ___________

5. ¿En qué año se mudo para los Estados Unidos? __________

6. Favor de marcar el último año que fue a la escuela.

   _____3 a 5 grado _____Graduo de la Escuela Secundaria
   _____6 a 7 grado _____G.E.D.
   _____8 a 9 grado _____Fue algún colegio
   _____10 a 11 grado _____1 o 2 años de colegio
   _____12 grado _____3 o 4 años de colegio
   _____Graduo de colegio

7. ¿Usted o su esposo (a) trabajan fuera del hogar? ____________

8. Favor de marcar el ingreso total anual de la familia.

   _____$2,000.00 o menos _____$16,000.00 - $19,000.00
   _____$3,000.00 - $5,000.00 _____$20,000.00 - $25,000.00
   _____$6,000.00 - $9,000.00 _____$26,000.00 - $30,000.00
   _____$10,000.00 - $15,000.00 _____$31,000.00 - más
APPENDIX C

PARENT OPINION INVENTORY—ENGLISH
## PARENT OPINION INVENTORY
### PART A

Circle the **SA** if you STRONGLY AGREE with the statement.
Circle the **A** if you AGREE but not strongly.
Circle the **U** if you are UNDECIDED.
Circle the **D** if you DISAGREE.
Circle the **SD** if you STRONGLY DISAGREE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Students show respect for each other.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The students and teachers have a good working relationship with each other.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Reports concerning our students' progress are adequate.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Parents are informed of educational policies.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The concerns of parents are reflected in decisions affecting our school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Our community is actively involved in all aspects of school operations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Our school is helping students to cope with a rapidly changing society.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Our school is not helping students to understand world problems.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Our school is doing a good job in teaching students the language arts (reading, writing, grammar, etc.).</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Our school is doing a good job in teaching students mathematics.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Our school is doing a good job in teaching students the sciences.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Our school is doing a good job of helping students understand their moral and ethical responsibilities.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Our school’s program helps students to understand and get along with other people.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Health classes include adequate attention to both mental health and physical health.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Our school is doing a good job in teaching social studies (history, geography, government, etc.).</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The curriculum adequately prepares students planning to continue their education to more advanced levels.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Students have sufficient amounts of homework to promote achievement in their courses.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Discipline is not a serious problem in our school.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Students' use of alcohol and/or drugs in our school is not a serious problem.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Vandalism is a serious problem at our school.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Outsiders (e.g., unenrolled teens, peddlers, etc.) do not pose a threat to students in our school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Student absenteeism is not a problem at our school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. In virtually all of their coursework students see a relationship between what they are studying and their everyday lives.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. The total educational program offered to students is of high quality.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Our students are seldom motivated to do their best work.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. In general, our teachers are competent.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. For the most part, I am satisfied with our school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Marks on assignments and course grades receive the right amount of emphasis.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Circle the SA if you STRONGLY AGREE with the statement.
A if you AGREE but not strongly
U if you are UNDECIDED
D if you DISAGREE
SD if you STRONGLY DISAGREE

29. The total variety of instructional topics is adequate. SA A U D SD
30. The amount of educational change (introduction of new materials and methods of teaching) is about right. SA A U D SD
31. Appropriate emphasis is placed on the social development of students. SA A U D SD
32. The activities program (chapel, drama, etc.) is sufficient to meet the needs of students. SA A U D SD
33. Students' participation in school activities is an important aspect of their education at our school. SA A U D SD
34. The role of and emphasis on, the athletics program is about right. SA A U D SD
35. The expenses involved in school activities (e.g., costumes, instruments, insurance, etc.) are adequate to support the instructional program. SA A U D SD
36. Services provided by our counseling and guidance program are adequate for my son/daughter's needs. SA A U D SD
37. Health services at school are adequate. SA A U D SD
38. The media center (library of books, audiovisual tapes, etc.) plays a central role in learning. SA A U D SD
39. The basic to-end from school transportation services meet the needs of students. SA A U D SD
40. The lunch program is appropriate for our students' needs. SA A U D SD
41. Our school is well maintained (clean, repaired, supplied, etc.). SA A U D SD
42. The morale of students is good. SA A U D SD
43. It is easy to get an appointment to see a teacher. SA A U D SD
44. It is easy to get an appointment with the administrators. SA A U D SD
45. Teachers are concerned about my son/daughter as an individual. SA A U D SD
46. School rules and regulations affecting students are reasonable. SA A U D SD
47. Building facilities (work space, furnishings, etc.) are adequate to support the instructional program. SA A U D SD
48. School personnel involve community services (e.g., welfare, mental health, law enforcement) to help meet students' needs. SA A U D SD
49. The school's programs adequately meet the needs of special students (learning disabled, gifted, etc.). SA A U D SD
50. The school's priorities for expenditures of funds are appropriate. SA A U D SD
51. All things considered, students are learning about all they can from their school experiences. SA A U D SD
PARENT OPINION INVENTORY
PART B

The purpose of this survey is to assist in learning more about our school's instructional program. Your opinions and attitudes are of vital importance in this assessment.

This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. The answers you give will be completely confidential. Do not sign your name or identify yourself in any way.

Remember that your opinions and attitudes will assist school personnel in making better decisions regarding improvement in the school.

Directions

These questions provide you with an opportunity to respond in your own words. Use the lined space provided in writing your answer to each question.

1. To what extent do you feel our teachers and administrators are interested in parent opinions about our school?

2. What is your opinion about the quality of instruction students receive?

3. How well do you think the curriculum covers the skills students need to acquire?

4. To what extent do you think our school atmosphere promotes learning?
APPENDIX D

PARENT OPINION INVENTORY--SPANISH
### PROGRAMA COMPRENSIVO DE EVALUACIÓN

**Evaluación de Actitud Escolar**

**Nivel H/Y - Forma 3**

¿Cómo se siente en relación a las siguientes aseveraciones?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Número</th>
<th>Aseveración</th>
<th>Nunca de acuerdo</th>
<th>A veces de acuerdo</th>
<th>Usualmente de acuerdo</th>
<th>Siempre de acuerdo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Yo hago mi trabajo escolar por mí mismo</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>En la escuela, Yo hago lo que mis amigos quieren hacer</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>A todos en la escuela les gustan mis ideas</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Puedo aprender la mayoría de las cosas en la escuela</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Tengo suficiente tiempo para terminar mi trabajo escolar</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>La escuela me ayudará a tener una mejor vida</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Tengo mejores ideas en la escuela que en cualquier otra parte</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Me siento orgulloso de platicar a mis padres del trabajo que realízo en la escuela</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Los maestros hacen el trabajo escolar interesante</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Me siento emocionado de ir a la escuela</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Me siento orgulloso del trabajo que hago en la escuela</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Mis padres piensan que podré hacerla bien cuando llegue a secundaria</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Muchas cosas que trato de hacer en la escuela salen mal</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Puedo decir cuando estoy haciendo un buen trabajo en la escuela</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>La escuela es para mí el mejor lugar de aprendizaje</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Mi maestra piensa que soy un buen estudiante</td>
<td>N A U S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
17. Mis padres tienen que ayudarme para que yo pueda terminar mi trabajo escolar

18. Soy bueno entendiendo lo que mi maestra quiere que yo haga

19. Espero ya al nuevo año escolar

20. Me gusta cuando tengo que contestar preguntas en clase

21. Mi maestra piensa que soy uno de los mejores en clase

22. Me gusta tomar pruebas para saber lo que tengo que aprender

23. La escuela no es aburrida para mí

24. Los estudiantes de mayor edad piensan que tengo buenas ideas

25. Un estudiante como yo no tendrá buenas calificaciones

26. Soy un éxito en la escuela

27. Mis amigos piensan que mis ideas acerca del trabajo escolar son las mejores

28. No se como hacerla mejor en la escuela

29. Es divertido venir a la escuela

30. No estoy seguro de como complacer a mi maestra

31. Reviso mi trabajo hasta que este hecho correctamente

32. Soy muy feliz cuando estoy en la escuela

33. Podría ser uno de los mejores en clase

34. Pruebas son unas de las cosas que no puedo hacer

35. La escuela es la mejor parte de mi día.

36. Estoy contento con las calificaciones que obtuve

37. No se como conseguir que mi maestra me otorgue buenas calificaciones

38. Me gusta cuando mi maestra me habla de mi trabajo

39. Aprendo rápido en la escuela
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Nunca de acuerdo</th>
<th>A veces de acuerdo</th>
<th>Uusualmente de acuerdo</th>
<th>Siempre de acuerdo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>Es fácil para mi hacer feliz a mis padres con mi trabajo escolar</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>Tomaré tiempo extra cuando tenga que aprender algo difícil</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>Me gusta más la escuela que cualquier otra cosa que yo hago</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>Si trato, yo seré el mejor de la escuela</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>Todos tienden a pensar que soy un buen estudiante</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>Si mi maestra no está, no hago nada</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>Para mi, el trabajo escolar más difícil es el mejor</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Me gustan los lunes porque regreso a la escuela</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>Me siento importante cuando estoy en la escuela</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>Mi maestra me llama para obtener la respuesta correcta</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>Cuando obtengo malas calificaciones es porque tengo mala suerte</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>Leer y escribir es divertido para mí</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.</td>
<td>Me agrada saber que tengo muchos años de escuela por delante</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.</td>
<td>Soy probablemente el más inteligente de la clase</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54.</td>
<td>La estoy haciendo tan bien en la escuela como cualquier otro estudiante</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>No me gusta venir a la escuela si mis amigos no vienen</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56.</td>
<td>Se como sacar buenas calificaciones en mis exámenes</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>En la escuela me siento como una persona muy inteligente</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58.</td>
<td>Lo que la maestra dice de mi trabajo escolar me hace sentir muy feliz</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59.</td>
<td>Me parece que todo va mal en la escuela</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.</td>
<td>Lo que aprendí el año pasado me ayuda este año</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Favor de contestar las siguientes preguntas.

1. ¿Hasta qué extensión siente usted que nuestras maestras y administradores están interesados en la opinión de los padres acerca de nuestra escuela? 

2. ¿Qué es su opinión acerca de calidad de instrucción que recibe el estudiante? 

3. ¿Cómo piensa usted que cubre el curso de estudios de habilidades que los estudiantes necesitan adquirir? 

4. ¿Hasta qué extensión piensa usted que nuestra escuela promove la atmósfera de aprender?
APPENDIX E

STUDENT ATTITUDE MEASURE
# School Attitude Measure - E/F

### How do you feel about the following statements?

Cómo se siente acerca de las siguientes declaraciones?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never Agree</th>
<th>Sometimes Agree</th>
<th>Usually Agree</th>
<th>Always Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Sample A

I am a good student.

Yo soy un buen estudiante.

### Sample B

It's not my fault if my grades are bad.

No es mi culpa si mis grados están mal.

1. I do my schoolwork on my own.
   
   Yo hago mi trabajo solo(a).

2. At school, I do what my friends want to do.
   
   En la escuela, yo hago lo que mis amigos me dicen que haga.

3. Everyone likes my ideas in school.
   
   A todos les gustan mis ideas en la escuela.

4. I can learn most things in school.
   
   Yo puedo aprender casi todas las cosas en la escuela.

5. I have enough time to finish all of my schoolwork.
   
   Yo tengo suficiente tiempo para terminar todo mi trabajo en la escuela.

6. School will help me have a better life.
   
   La escuela me ayudará tener una vida mejor.

7. I have better ideas at school than anywhere else.
   
   Yo tengo mejores ideas en la escuela que en cualquier otro lugar.

8. I'm proud to tell my parents about the work I do in school.
   
   Yo estoy orgulloso en decirles a mis padres acerca del trabajo que yo hago en la escuela.
### School Attitude Measure - E/F

**How do you feel about the following statements?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never Agree</th>
<th>Sometimes Agree</th>
<th>Usually Agree</th>
<th>Always Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers make schoolwork interesting.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get excited about going to school.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am proud of the work I do in school.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>My parents think I will do well when I get to junior high school.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many things I try to do at school turn out wrong.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can tell when I am doing good schoolwork.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School is the best place for me to learn.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teacher thinks I am a good student.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My parents have to help me get my homework done.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am good at understanding what the teacher wants me to do.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I look forward to each new school year.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like it when I have to answer in class.</td>
<td>N S U A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
School Attitude Measure - E/F

How do you feel about the following statements?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never Agree</th>
<th>Sometimes Agree</th>
<th>Usually Agree</th>
<th>Always Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21. My teacher thinks I am one of the very best in class.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. I like to take tests so I know what I have learned.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. School is not boring for me.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. The older students think I have good ideas.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. A student like me will not get good grades.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. I am a success in school.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. My friends think my ideas about schoolwork are the best.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I do not know how to do better in school.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. It is fun to come to school.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I am not sure how to please my teacher.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How do you feel about the following statements?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never Agree</th>
<th>Sometimes Agree</th>
<th>Usually Agree</th>
<th>Always Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>I go over my work until I get it done right.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yo repaso mi trabajo hasta que lo haga correctamente.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>I am very happy when I am in school.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yo estoy muy contento(a) cuando estoy en la escuela.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>I may be one of the best in class.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yo puedo ser uno de los mejores en la clase.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>Tests are something I just cannot do.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Los exámenes son algo que no puedo hacer.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>School is the best part of my day.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>La escuela es la mejor parte de mi día.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>I am happy with the grades I get.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yo estoy feliz con las calificaciones que recibo.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>I do not know how to get my teacher to give me good grades.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No se cómo puedo hacer para que mi maestra me de mejores calificaciones.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>I like it when the teacher talks to me about my work.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Me gusta cuando mi maestra habla conmigo sobre mi trabajo.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>I learn fast in school.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yo aprendo rápido en la escuela.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>It is easy for me to make my parents happy with my schoolwork.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Es fácil hacer que mis padres estén felices con mi trabajo de la escuela.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How do you feel about the following statements?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Never Agree</th>
<th>Sometimes Agree</th>
<th>Usually Agree</th>
<th>Always Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41. I will take extra time when I have to learn something hard.</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. I like school better than anything else I do.</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. If I try, I will be the very best in school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Everyone seems to think I am a good student.</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. If my teacher is not there, I do not do any schoolwork.</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. For me, the hardest schoolwork is the best.</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. I like Mondays because I come back to school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. I feel important when I am at school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. My teacher calls on me for the right answers.</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. When I get bad grades, it is because I had bad luck.</td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How do you feel about the following statements?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never Agree</th>
<th>Sometimes Agree</th>
<th>Usually Agree</th>
<th>Always Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>Reading and writing are fun for me.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.</td>
<td>I am glad that I have many more years of school.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.</td>
<td>I am probably the smartest one in the class.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54.</td>
<td>I'm doing as well as other students in school.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>I do not like to come to school if my friends are not at school.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56.</td>
<td>I know how to get good grades on my tests.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>In school I feel like a very smart person.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58.</td>
<td>What my teacher says about my work makes me feel happy.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59.</td>
<td>It just seems like everything is going wrong at school.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.</td>
<td>What I learned last year helps me this year.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX F

SUMMARY DATA FORM--

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
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<tr>
<th>Sub. No.</th>
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</tr>
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<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>52</td>
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<td>21</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX G

SUMMARY DATA FORM—CONTROL GROUP
| Sub. # | PR 1 | PR 2 | PR 3 | PR 4 | PR 5 | PR 6 | PR 7 | PR 8 | PR 9 | PR 10 | PR 11 | PR 12 | PR 13 | PR 14 | PR 15 | PR 16 | PR 17 | PR 18 | PR 19 | PR 20 | PR 21 | PR 22 | PR 23 | PR 24 | PR 25 | PR 26 | PR 27 | PR 28 | PR 29 | PR 30 | PR 31 | PR 32 | PR 33 | PR 34 | PR 35 | PR 36 | PR 37 | PR 38 | PR 39 | PR 40 | PR 41 | PR 42 | PR 43 | PR 44 |
|-------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 45 | 45 | 18 | 33 | 29 | 30 | 24 | 37 | 157 | 176 | 199 | 26 | 0  | 0  |
| 46 | 46 | 31 | 46 | 25 | 24 | 43 | 38 | 166 | 197 | 227 | 209 | 0  | 0  |
| 47 | 47 | 32 | 22 | 27 | 30 | 56 | 145 | 143 | 208 | 232 | 0  | 0  |
| 48 | 48 | 20 | 31 | 37 | 37 | 47 | 40 | 156 | 167 | 210 | 216 | 0  | 0  |
| 49 | 49 | 37 | 63 | 43 | 44 | 55 | 35 | 32 | 149 | 189 | 176 | 205 | 0  |
| 50 | 50 | 23 | 29 | 21 | 32 | 39 | 26 | 173 | 190 | 189 | 208 | 0  | 0  |
| 51 | 51 | 14 | 33 | 19 | 21 | 27 | 30 | 159 | 162 | 200 | 169 | 0  | 0  |
REFERENCES


Olson, L. (1990b, May). Misreading said to hamper Hispanics' roles in school. *Education Week, 9*(32), 41-47.


