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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

TEACHER RETENTION AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT:
ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS, SOCIAL CAPITAL AND INTERVENTIONS
IN URBAN, PRE-DOMINANTLY LATINO SCHOOLS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS

PROGRAM IN SOCIOLOGY

BY

LUIS XAVIER BENAVIDES

CHICAGO, IL

DECEMBER 2015

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I would also like to thank the Society of Jesus for providing the funds to achieve this degree. As a Society we are called to light the world on fire and through thoughtful investigation of populations who are disenfranchised hopefully, new approaches to improving education for all can be fashioned.

Almost all education has a political motive: it aims at strengthening some group, national or religious or even social, in the competition with other groups. It is this motive, in the main, which determines the subjects taught, the knowledge offered and the knowledge withheld, and also decides what mental habits the pupils are expected to acquire. Hardly anything is done to foster the inward growth of mind and spirit; in fact, those who have had the most education are very often atrophied in their mental and spiritual life.

— Bertrand Russell

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ABSTRACT

The quality of education in high poverty areas is often blamed on a number of factors - poor teaching, inadequate resources, an environment of hopelessness and mediocrity, lack of perseverance in the learner, lack of social programs and social capital. These factors are often compounded by effects of systemic racism in the student's surrounding environment and in education system. This study focuses on one aspect of investigation: the impact of increased social capital for teachers on students' school performance and interventions focused on building social capital between students, parents and teachers in urban, pre-dominantly Latino schools. Improving links between students, parents and teachers has been proven to improve reading and math test results for students, but how do these interventions impact teacher's expectations of students and their understanding of each student and their family's situation. Interventions like FAST (Families and Schools Together), provide social capital building activities. Most current research focuses on parents and students but do teachers' attitudes differ between schools that participate in these programs and those that do not. Data will be taken from a school-randomized trial in the cities of San Antonio, TX and Phoenix, AZ which included 52 primary schools being followed for 3 academic year from 2008-2013. A total of 26 comparable and eligible schools in each city were selected, half implemented the FAST interventions while the others acted as a control.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO HISPANICS AND EDUCATION

The growing population of Hispanics in the United States is changing the landscape of schools and the education system in the US. This change can be seen by the ever increasing number of Hispanic students in rural and urban communities as Hispanics expand to make up nearly 30% of total enrollments in public schools from pre-kindergarten through high school by 2023 (US Department of Education, 2013). Hispanics are the fastest-growing segment of the United States population. According to the U.S. Census Bureau data (Guzman, 2001), the Hispanic population increased by about 58%, from 22 million in 1990 to 35 million in 2000, and then increased to about 50.5 million in 2010, a 43% increase from 2000 to 2010. This increase of over 15 million Hispanics accounted for more than half of the total population increase of the U.S. in that time (Humes, Jones, and Ramirez, 2011; Passel, Cohn, and Lopez, 2011).

Hispanic youth are making significant gains in education in recent years. Educational outcomes for Hispanics have increased in several critical areas, most telling is that Hispanic students are graduating from secondary education institutions at higher rates than ever, but despite these strides, achievement gaps are still a major concern for educators, researchers, and policy makers in the United States (Burchinal et al., 2011). According to the National Center for Education Statistics, achievement gaps appear when there is a difference between the average score between two sets of students with

different ethnicities, genders, or socioeconomic statuses (NCES, 2011). Despite improvements, disparities in performance between Hispanics and other students persist. Data indicates that educational outcomes for Hispanics trail those of other students in several areas: though there are recent increases Hispanics consistently have lower math and reading scores on national assessments than White and Asian counterparts, they have higher dropout rates, and the lowest postsecondary degree attainment compared to any other racial/ethnic groups (Calderon, 2015).

The U.S. Hispanic student population is a diverse and growing group, and there are some key trends emerging within this population. In general, a significant portion of the Latino student population is under 17 and the majority is U.S. born. Hispanics compose the second biggest group of students in schools after Whites. (US Census Bureau, 2013). In 2013, 33.2% of the Hispanic population was 17 years of age or younger and over 17.2 million Hispanics were active in education: 13.6 million students were enrolled in prekindergarten through 12th grade at public schools and over 3.5 million Hispanic students were enrolled in postsecondary education. (US Census Bureau, 2013). The majority of Hispanic youth are U.S.-born. Over 90% of Hispanic children in the U.S. were born in this country and are citizens. About 8.3% of Hispanic children under 18 are noncitizens (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). The states with the largest reported number of immigrant children and youth were California (217,005), Texas (169,287), and Florida (81,995) (U. S. Department of Education, 2012). The Hispanic student population is increasing while other student groups are shrinking. Between 2001 and 2013, the propor-

tion of Hispanic students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools increased from 15.6% of all students to 24.3%. Comparatively, the proportion of White students decreased over this period from 60% to 51% and the proportion of Black students fell slightly from 17% to 16% (Kena et al., 2015). A significant share of Hispanic children live in poverty. In 2012, about third of all Hispanic children under 18 were living in poverty (U.S. Department of Education, 2013). This is troubling as past studies have shown a link between poverty and low educational outcomes (Southern Education Foundation, 2013; Gándara and Contreras, 2009).

Critical Areas for Improvement in Hispanic Educational Achievement

Hispanic students face multiple obstacles to improving educational achievement, graduating from high school and then postsecondary schooling attainment. Research by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), the Pew Center on Hispanics, and others identify these key challenges as holding Latino students back from excelling academically and later in life:

- Lack of access to highly effective teachers (CTFL, 2003);
- Lack of participation in college-preparatory coursework while in school (Tomas Rivera Policy Institute et al., 2003);
- Higher likelihood to come from a low-income household and have parents with lower levels of education (Santiago, 2011);

- Higher likelihood to be non-native English speakers unsupported by local educational structures (Gándara and Contreras, 2009) and (Pew Hispanic Center, 2009);
- Higher likelihood to attend multiple schools as part of mobile migrant families following work (Pascal and Cohn, 2010); and
- Lack of attachment to school communities and awareness of school policy and structures (Suarez-Orosco, Suarez-Orosco and Doucet, 2003; Flores-Gonzales, 2002).

Hispanic families have strong social ties among familial groups but rarely does this network include school communities or professionals. Hispanic students are many more times as likely as students from other ethnic groups to come from homes where parental education is low. More than 40% of Hispanic mothers have not attained a high school diploma, compared with only 6% of white mothers; and only about 10% of Hispanic mothers have received a college degree or higher, compared with almost one-third of white mothers (US Census Bureau, 2013). Research demonstrates that the parents' education achievement has a direct impact on the educational outcomes of their children (Murnane, Maynard, & Ohls, 1981). This lack of experience limits the support parents can offer to children struggling with school. Hispanic families often feel a sense of isolation when dealing with schools and research has shown that isolation or lack of attachment by the parent and child also correlates to the educational outcomes of a child (Stan-ton-Salazar, 2001; Valenzuela, 1999).

CHAPTER TWO

SOCIAL CAPITAL, EDUCATION AND HISPANICS

Many studies have noted the impact of social capital on mitigating these challenges (Fiel, Haskins, and Turley, 2013; Gamoran et al., 2012). Research often assesses interventions that build social capital between students, parents, teachers and administrators. Very few projects though look at the impact of social capital building interventions on the perceptions of teachers. Social capital is often seen as something that is held by the privileged few and then possibly shared with those with less options, knowledge or relationships but when one sees social capital as a resource held in common by a group of people, it highlights the idea of social capital as not only affecting those in need but also affecting those with more capital. Expanding social networks should see reciprocal social capital being built between teachers and families. Increased interactions could help teachers become better educators by dissuading negative, individually-held beliefs about students, their parents or their situation. As Larson and Rumberger (1995, p. 166) demonstrated in their study

There was deep chasms in the relationship and communication between school and home. School personnel had many negative misconceptions about the motivations and values of parents. There was widespread belief that parents did not sufficiently value education and that they were unwilling to give sufficient time to rearing their children and participating in school activities. On the other hand, we found most parents to be fearful and alienated from school authorities while at the same time assigning expertise and responsibility to school personnel for educating their children.

Opportunities for growth arise both among parents, children and, in important for this study, teachers.

Literature Review of Social Capital

The term “social capital” first appears in the writings of economists when talking about capital held in common rather than the capital held by the individual. The phrase can be traced to thinkers like Karl Marx, Henry Sidgwick, John Bates Clark, Edward Bellamy, and Alfred Marshall (Farr, 2004). The American philosopher and educational reformer John Dewey used the term to describe the benefits of social interactions in traditional schooling which allows the student see beyond their limited individual experience (Dewey, 1900). Lydia Judson Hanifan, a contemporary of Dewey’s and a school superintendent in rural West Virginia was one of the first people to write a detailed explanation for social capital (1916). He used the term to describe “those tangible substances [that] count for most in the daily lives of people” (1916: 130). He claimed that the entire community benefited from its application and that social capital consisted of garnering goodwill, encouraging camaraderie and sympathy, and developing social interactions. It took more than half decade for the term to be used again in scholarly pursuits. Bourdieu in 1980 and Coleman in 1987, helped create the concept of social capital that is in use today. Bourdieu defined social capital in initial European works in 1980 and 1983. He states that social capital is “the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of

mutual acquaintance and recognition – or in other words, to membership in a group” (Bourdieu, 1986:248). The amount of social capital present according to Bourdieu depends on the size of the group and the capital available to individual members of the group (Bourdieu, 1986). Networks originate through continuing material or symbolic exchanges and/or are socially initiated through a common group identity like a family, a school, an organization or a community (Bourdieu, 1986). These relationships are a product of invested time and effort by members in the group and accessing the capital of the group happens once the group has formed and cohesed. For Bourdieu while social capital is based on the collective, it is seen as a tool to advance an individual actor’s interest. Coleman contrarily emphasized the importance of social capital in the context of learning. Like Dewey, he considers interpersonal relationships developed through shared effort as a benefit of learning, but he also believes these relationships enhance learning as well. The strong community and collaborative energy that mark high social capital allow schools to transform their efforts into high education outcomes. While high levels of social capital make spontaneous initiatives more likely, it does not necessarily mean that capital is transformed into action (Coleman, 1987). Coleman also highlights social capitals use in the classroom as it creates a more profound connection between teacher and student one based on respect and understanding which expedites learning. Robert Putnam, another prominent advocate of social capital, believes that social capital is second only to poverty in influencing a child’s welfare. He states that “social capital keeps bad things from happening to good kids” (2000; p. 296).

Understanding Social Capital and Education

Social capital and education has since become a major topic of study for sociologists, though as some thinkers observe there is no one comprehensive definition for the term social capital (Fukiyama, 2002). In a review of literature of 35 articles between 1992 and 2001 researching linkages between social capital and education, Sandra Dika and Kusum Singh note profound differences in the notion of actors, dimensions, and outcomes for social capital. Actors included parents, teachers, students, school administrators, non-profits and community organizations. Social capital was defined as networks, group resources, trust, avenues of information, norms and sanctions. Social capital was quantified through a wide array of means including family structure and size, number of extra-curricular activities, expectations and experiences of family, friends, and mentors, geographic mobility, parental involvement, identity and social economic status, educational abilities, family cohesion, intergenerational ties, neighborhood characteristics, language use, and whether adults had a voice in school policy. Outcomes realized were educational achievement, social mobility, post-secondary school enrollment, positive student behavior, dropout prevention, curriculum change, and accessibility of outside resources (Dika and Singh, 2002).

Understanding Social Capital, Hispanics and Education

Focusing on social capital, Hispanics and education, there have been a few seminal works looking at these issues. The first is a study by Ricardo Stanton-Salazar which investigated Hispanic youth from impoverished backgrounds that succeed academically

and graduated from college despite their challenges. He found that the common trait among these students is a mentor or individual that took interest in the student and helped stop the cycle of social reproduction which their backgrounds promoted. In his work, Stanton contended that those students who seek out those relationships are the students who will achieve academic success (2001). This research continued the work Stanton-Salazar began with Dornbusch which looked at Hispanic student initiative and language patterns impact on connections with school personnel and the success of students (1995). On the other hand, another important work by on Hispanics, education and social capital, demonstrated that school structure and expectations play an important role in a student's success and can limit the impact of student initiative. Gilberto Q. Conchas found that school structure determines what information/resources are given to what students despite the students' own initiative. Also, Conchas found that students placed in different tracks had different expectations set for them and the students either rose or fell due in large part to those expectations. Other mitigating factors for the success of students included the peer network of students in those classes who share or did not share expectations of going to college. The support and access given to students in college preparatory tracks or general tracks played a role in the success or failure of those students (2006). Other studies also demonstrate the strong linkages between social capital in the form of mentors and college preparation and Hispanic student post-secondary education attainment (Sánchez, Reyes and Singh, 2005; González, Stoner and Jovel, 2003; Talbot and Kuehn, 2002). An additional important researcher in the area of social capital, Hispanics and education is

Robert Ream. He looks at these issues from a deficit framework of school failure or dropout rates versus success (2003; Ream and Rumberger, 2008). Ream also looked at the relation between education, Mexican-American youth and social capital in his book *Uprooting Children: Mobility, Social Capital, and Mexican American Underachievement* (2005). An additional aspect that Ream discussed in the book was the mobility of Mexican-American families as a detriment to creating close ties with people outside of the family. Strayhorn is a succeeding author focusing on social capital attainment for Hispanic students but through the path of extra-curricular activities (2010). Lastly, Gándara and Contreras' book *The Latino Education Crisis* outlines many different aspects of social capital and indicators of educational success in their book including teacher effectiveness, college preparation, extra-curriculars, language barriers and school desegregation (2009).

Other studies that utilize the same shared data as this research thesis include a study on differences between Hispanic and non-Hispanic families in social capital and child development (Gamoran et al., 2012). The study looks at the same 52 schools in Phoenix and San Antonio which were evaluated through student test scores and surveys connections and perceptions between parents, teachers, students, and school administration. Half of the schools participated in social capital building activities while the rest acted as controls. One of the big disappointments of the study was that the FAST support schools in San Antonio showed no marked improvement in student scores while Phoenix FAST supported schools did show gains. The authors believed the differences between sites had to do with the immigration history of the Hispanic families participating in the

projects. Phoenix's Hispanic population is composed of more newly immigrated families while San Antonio's Hispanic population has mostly been in Texas for multiple generations. The authors contest that newly immigrated families are more willing to create connections outside of close knit family networks because they are still establishing networks, while families who have been in the US longer seem to be satisfied with their networks and are not looking to augment them with new relationships. The study demonstrated that students who were part of FAST supported schools in Phoenix saw a decrease in negative behavior as well as an improvement in test scores. Another study utilizing the same data looked at school mobility between FAST and non-Fast schools. The author saw no marked difference in student mobility between the FAST schools and non-FAST schools, but did see a decrease in school mobility in the Black student population between FAST and non-FAST schools. Black students made up about 10% of the total population surveyed (Fiel, Haskins and Lopez Turley, 2013). Lastly, a 2014 journal article looked at low-income Latino FAST Schools with demonstrated social capital outcome gains and investigated which mechanisms for social capital creation they saw as effective through focus groups. The engagement activities and outcomes determined as effective included responsive communication which was attributed to creating a shared group identity, reciprocal communication which promoted encouraging social exchange, shared experiences which was enabled by strengthening solidarity among participants, and new connections to institutional agents which occurred through linking parents to schools in FAST activities (Shoji et al., 2014).

Understanding Teachers and Social Capital

Additionally, as noted before teacher effectiveness is a challenging factor that can impact a child's ability to learn (Aaronson, Barrow and Sander, 2007; Sass et al., 2012; Rice 2010; Boyd et al., 2007). This study will look at the perceptions of teachers about their school, their students, and their success and evaluate whether participating in social capital building programs influence teachers' social capital and ultimately student performance. A recent study by Carrie Leana demonstrates that social capital among teachers has been highly undervalued as a predictor for educational attainment for schools yet it is a better predictor than teacher experience or ability in the classroom (2011). The Urban Education Institute at the University of Chicago released a report analyzing 15 years of data and determined 5 essential elements for school success. Schools which showed strong marks in at least 3 of these elements were 10 times as likely to improve test scores than other schools. Three of these elements are directly linked to what one could call school social capital – instructional leadership where school leadership works to implement a shared vision, professional capacity where teachers collaborate to promote professional growth and family/community ties where school staff creates strong external relationships with student families and community resources (Bryk et al., 2009).

Prior studies in social capital draw mainly on observational data but there are few newer studies which look at implementing social capital building activities and assessing impact (Dika and Singh, 2002; Larson and Rumberger, 1995; McDonald et al., 2006). There are two advantages to conducting research like this. First, if social capital is created

one can look at what mechanism were most effective and how these activities affected different populations (race, ethnicity, gender, etc.). Second, this is an unbiased evaluation of whether the activities actually influenced educational outcomes, changed perceptions and created social capital. This paper will first look at the self-assessed perceptions of teachers on their networks, shared vision, and perceptions of students at schools with social capital interventions and compare them with control schools. Then it will look for links between those teachers with high social capital scores and student performance. The hope is highlight whether these interventions show any statistical difference between teachers' social capital and the students' from schools who participated in these programs and a control group.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

This study demonstrates the impact of social capital intervention activities on students, parents, and school staff at 52 primarily Latino primary schools based in Phoenix and San Antonio. FAST (Families and Schools Together) is an intensive 8-week after-school program which engages students, parents, teachers and school officials in activities focused on increasing communication, creating shared experiences and empathy, and forming bonds between family members and school employees. In the two years after the initial training, the parents lead monthly FAST meetings which continue the work of social capital building. Each FAST coordinating team includes at least one member of the school staff usually a teacher. Also, many other school officials participated in FAST activities like graduation and FAST Sessions or offered their expertise at the following parental meetings. FAST increases the opportunities for parents to get to know a staff person directly and empowers them to approach school officials and teachers about their child or school policies.

San Antonio and Phoenix were selected as study sites because both have non-profit organizations that have lead FAST programs in the past and because they have high proportion of Hispanics in their cities. Both cities have a population above a million and are considered fast growing municipalities. One significant difference is that Phoenix's Hispanic population includes a quickly rising immigrant population while San Antonio's

Hispanic population has fewer immigrant families. In both cities the primary ethnicity of the Hispanic population is Mexican-American (Gamoran et al. 2012).

Overview of the Collected Data

The number of schools participating is 52 and each school has about 3 to 6 teachers employed at each grade level. 26 of those schools were in San Antonio and 26 in Phoenix. Also, control schools made up half the total number of schools while the remaining half participated in FAST programs. Teachers were offered a \$100 gift certificate for participating in data collection. Each school had at least 1 teacher fill out the survey with a 161 teachers responding in total. 81.4% of the teachers responded that they were White while about a third of those responding considered themselves of Hispanic origin (32.9%). Nearly 23.0% of those responding are fluent in Spanish as well as English. For this study, Z-scores of the math and reading tests included are state tests which meet AYP standards. Adequate yearly progress (AYP) is the measure by which schools, districts and states are held accountable under Title I of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB). Tests were averaged by class to show final outputs for each teacher. Approximately, 3,084 individuals were evaluated in total over a 3 year period from 2008-2012. Surveys were conducted every year as part of three year longitudinal study. This paper will be focusing on the third year responses. In control schools for the third year, the percentage of Whites was 13%, Blacks 10% and Hispanics 75% and 79% indicated they were participating in the free-reduced lunch program for school populations. In FAST participating schools, the percentage of Whites was 15%, Blacks 10% and Hispan-

ics 72% and 79% indicated they were participating in the free-reduced lunch program for school populations. The survey given to teachers is attached as Appendix A.

Identifying the Best Process for Investigation

There are many reasons for using quantitative analysis to investigate the creation of social capital and its links to the educational success of low-income students. The question posed in this thesis explores the potential impact of social capital development on teachers and its eventual effect on student learning. To achieve that, this study hopes to understand teachers' perception of social connections and networks that exist in their school and whether higher social capital in teachers translate into better test scores. Given the recent availability of enormous public datasets that are accessible in the field of educational sociology, there is a great usefulness to using these resources to investigate teachers, urban schools and social capital. Quantitative data analysis of public survey results overcomes the barriers and cost and the difficulty of original data collection. The large amount of data allows multiple analytic techniques and ability to cross-reference findings and results with other researchers. Often these datasets are often under used (Gayle, Playford and Lambert, 2008).

The quantitative methods used in this these include factor analysis and OLS regression. Factor analysis was chosen because of the breadth of questions being asked which all seem to correlate or link to the perception of social capital. Factor analysis helps a research evaluate rating scale questions and identify those which have strong correlations to each other (Bartholomew et al, 2008). Correlated variables can highlight un-

observed variables called factors. This is an ideal method to ascertain if there are connections between perceived indicators of social capital or not and to discover if these factors predict educational success. A Varimax rotational was been chosen because it yields results which easily identify each variable with a single factor and is one of the most used of the factor rotation options (Russell, 2002).

Linear regression models were chosen for the second part of the evaluation because of their ability for multivariate analysis of datasets such as the Social Capital and Children's Development Study. Statistical models permit investigation into the ability of the selected variables to predict reading and math test results. Since this is a comparison of control group to another group with an intervention technique, there are two sets of regressions – one is a side by side regression of groups with intervention and those without and the second is a regression with interaction variables with a dummy variable demonstrating participation in FAST activities or not. Lastly there is a tiered two stage regression with control variables to show the impact of the selected variables when controlling for other predictors.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

In chapter three, I reviewed the methodology for my study which would include linear regression, factor analysis and path analysis linking teacher tenure to indicators relieving the respondent's perception of the importance of social capital relationships between teachers, students and parents, school environmental factors, and elements of their direct connection to the school and then finally to the impact on student reading and math skills. The experimental design of this study allocated for testing of the role of social capital. Social capital here refers to trust, links between respondents and shared expectations entrenched in social institutions. The study was not geared to evaluate the social capital of teachers but looking at the questions asked, there are hopefully links that will reveal themselves as statistically significant through the evaluation of the variables in a path analysis and linear regression. Likewise, Rice in her evaluation of the impact of teacher experience states that teacher tenure explains the largest gain in math and reading achievement is when looking at teachers with less than five years of experience but that the rest of the relationship is influenced by unobserved variables (Rice, 2010).

Hopefully, by investigated the perceptions of teachers themselves and their evaluation of their relational affiliations with students and parents, this model can be improved. The study's design was comparative: social capital was manipulated through a well-tested randomized intervention, Families and Schools Together

(FAST), which enhanced social capital among parents, teachers, and children through an intensive after-school program called FAST at a select group of schools while a control group also participated in the same study analysis. FAST programs are intended to reduce parental isolation, improve family engagement with schools, and enrich family behavior by increasing social capital between families and schools, among peer networks, and within schools to improve children's education. These activities while geared to the fundamental aspects of child development also evaluated the perception of teachers on the capabilities of their students, their commitment to parental involvement and the their perception of support by schools and families. Social capital was measured with intensive surveys of teachers and parents that address the extent of social networks, parent involvement, trust, and shared expectations between parents and teachers.

Reviewing Variables

Variables included in this investigation include teacher tenure, responses to the teacher's opinion of the school environment, feedback on a teacher's experience at school and key questions which look at perceptions of parental relationships. These variables are considered independent variables influencing the dependent variable outcome of student reading and math scores.

Reviewing the survey questions on environment and experience, there is potential overlap of the questions and the culling or combining these responses would make sense in creating a more robust model. To do this, I performed a factor analysis review of the questions asked about the teacher's environment and their experience of the school.

Table 1. Table of Variables Exploring Teacher Perception of School Environment

Variable Name	Description (All questions rated on a 4 point Likert Scale)
C3SCEN1	Agreement about SCH mission among faculty
C3SCEN2	SCH ADM deals with pressure from outside the sch
C3SCEN3	SCH administrator's behavior is supportive
C3SCEN4	PRIN lets staff know what is expected of them
C3SCEN5	Academic standards are too low
C3SCEN6	Necessary materials available as needed by staff
C3SCEN7	TCHS are learning & seeking new ideas
C3SCEN8	ST misbehavior interferes with my teaching
C3SCEN9	Parent involvement is high
C3SCEN10	SCH has well-defined learning exp for all sts

Table 2. Table of Variables Exploring Teacher's Experience at Current School

Variable Name	Description (All questions rated on a 4 point Likert Scale)
C3TEXP1	Satisfied with being a teacher at this school
C3TEXP2	Making a difference in children's lives
C3TEXP3	Satisfied with my class size
C3TEXP4	I have control in selecting inst materials & methods
C3TEXP5	I have control in selecting class management strategy
C3TEXP6	Many children are not capable of learning material
C3TEXP7	Satisfied with my teaching salary

Table 3. Rotated Factor Matrix of Teacher Environment^a

Environmental Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2
SCH ENV: SCH has well-defined learning exp for all sts	.778	.414
SCH ENV: Academic standards are too low	-.670	
SCH ENV: TCHS are learning & seeking new ideas	.580	
SCH ENV: ST misbehavior interferes with my teaching	-.432	
SCH ENV: Parent involvement is high		
SCH ENV: Necessary materials available as needed by staff		
SCH ENV: SCH administrator's behavior is supportive		.837
SCH ENV: SCH ADM deals with pressure from outside the sch	.430	.670
SCH ENV: PRIN lets staffs know what is expected of them		.669
SCH ENV: Agreement about SCH mission among faculties		.474

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a – Only Factor Loading Scores above .400 were retained.

Table 4. Rotated Factor Matrix of Teacher Experience^a

Teacher Experience Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2
TCH EXPR: Satisfied with being a teacher at this school	.727	
TCH EXPR: Making a difference in children's lives	.726	
TCH EXPR: I control in selecting class management strateg	.696	
TCH EXPR: I control in selecting inst materials & methods	.500	
TCH EXPR: Many CHLD are not capable of learning material		
TCH EXPR: Satisfied with my class size		.631
TCH EXPR: Satisfied with my teaching salary		.447

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a – Only Factor Loading Scores above .400 were retained

Finding and Defining Factors

The variables for the teacher's experience and their environment demonstrate that there is a natural cohesion of the variables into four factors. The first factor is designated as Positive View of School which allows us to understand more about the way a teacher utilizes the social capital to understand academic guidelines. When a teacher knows their students failings and capabilities, the institution instruction and interactions begins to adapt to meet the needs of students and parents versus the students always having to conform to the guidelines broadcasted. The second factor defined as School Identity conforms to the idea of social capital. The questions which make up this composite variable include agreement on mission, finding support from administration, understanding what is expected for their role.

The experience questions loaded onto two factors as well. The first is also going to be continued to be utilized in modeling. Looking at the questions asked in the survey, the first variables aggregate into a factor that can be defined as Self-Actualization. The questions look at issues of autonomy and satisfaction which combines into a variable which would be useful in understanding teacher social capital. The second factor includes questions about class size and salary which are important factors for education attainment for students but do not add to the dialogue around social capital creation or maintenance. Thus these factors will be not included going forward.

The interesting dilemma is that two questions that seemed very pertinent to the exploration of social capital and perceptions of parents and students did not fold nicely into any of the factors. C3SCEN9 which looks at parental involvement at the school and

C3TEXP6 which asks if the teacher believes that students are capable of doing this work need to be included in this study as they could reveal attitudes which either show high social capital attainment or lack of relationships with students and parents. To flush out this avenue of inquiry, the variable C3FAMST7 will also be included in future analysis as this asks if the teacher finds parental engagement difficult. These particular questions help the researcher to understand the teacher's current standing with parents and students. The next aspect of inquiry after creating the aggregated variables representing these new three factors is conducting a general linear regression of these variables to identify if any of them demonstrate a strong relationship that influences test scores for math or reading.

Doing a regression for both reading and math z-scores for the schools who participated in the FAST programs and those that did not, will also highlight whether these schools demonstrate differences in the factors that influence student achievement. A separate regression will use FAST participation as a dummy variable which will then be added to the chosen variables as an interaction variable to see the connection between FAST participation and social capital development.

Table 5. Variables to be Tested as Predictors for Reading and Math Z-Scores

Variable Name	Description
FASTPART	Dummy Variable which shows whether a school participated in FAST or not, also used as a control
C3TEXP3	Satisfaction with class size, used as a control variable
C3TEXP7	Satisfaction with salary used as a control variable
YRSDummy	Dummy Variable which shows “0” for teachers with experience less than 5 years of experience and “1” for teachers with 5 or more years of experience teaching.
C3YRSTC	Years of experience teaching as full-time teacher
ENVFACT1	Aggregated Variable renamed Positive View of School which incorporates perceptions on academic standards and teacher expectation student behavior
ENVFACT2	Aggregated Variable renamed School Identity which incorporates perceptions on support from administrators, agreement with mission, and clear parameters for job
EXPFACT1	Aggregated Variable renamed Self-Actualization which looks at the teacher’s ability to make decision which influence their classroom and satisfaction with being a teacher
C3SCEN9	Parent involvement is high
C3TEXP6	Many children are not capable of learning material
C3FAMST7	Working with parents to be very difficult

Table 6. Regression of Dummy Variable FAST Participant for Math Z-Scores

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	.068	.045	.127
FASTPART	-.045	.063	.473

R^2 value for this model is .017

Table 7. Regression of Dummy Variable FAST Participant for Reading Z-Scores

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	-.085	.044	.057
FASTPART	.073	.063	.246

R^2 value for this model is .027

Table 8. Bivariate Correlation of Predictor Variables and Dependent Variables

	C3YRSTC	ENVFACT1	ENVFACT2	EXPFACT1	Read Z-Scores	Math Z-Scores
ENVFACT1	.190 .000***	1	.622 .000***	.520 .000***	.097 .000***	.122 .000***
ENVFACT2	.184 .000***	.622 .000***	1	.431 .000***	.014 .573	.050 .044*
EXPFACT1	.026 .245	.520 .000***	.431 .000***	1	.046 .069	.056 .026*
SCH ENV: Parent Involvement is high	.111 .000***	.395 .000***	.324 .000***	.324 .000***	.075 .003**	.031 .209
TCH EXP: Many CHLD are not capable of learning	.002 .920	-.322 .000***	-.114 .000***	-.389 .000***	-.030 .228	-.022 .372
FAM of ST in CL: Working with parents to be very difficult	.039 .121	-.401 .000***	-.217 .000***	-.446 .000***	-.096 .000***	-.112 .000***

*** - Correlation is significant at the .001 level

** - Correlation is significant at the .01 level

* - Correlation is significant at the .05 level

Table 9. Regression of Selected Predictor Variables for Math Z-Scores for FAST Supported Schools

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	-.715	.538	.184
C3YRSTC	.003	.014	.854
ENVFACT1	.149	.036	.000***
ENVFACT2	-.075	.038	.050*
EXPFACT1	-.019	.041	.646
SCH ENV: Parent involvement is high	-.205	.072	.004**
TCH EXPR: Many CHLD are not capable of learning material	.088	.084	.297
FAM of ST in CL: Working with parents to be very difficult	.013	.090	.885

R^2 value for this model is .034

*** - Significant at the $p < .001$ level

** - Significant at the $p < .01$ level

* - Significant at the $p < .05$ level

Table 10. Regression of Selected Predictor Variables for Reading Z-Scores for FAST Supported Schools

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	-.749	.547	.171
C3YRSTC	.018	.014	.207
ENVFACT1	.148	.036	.000***
ENVFACT2	-.117	.039	.003**
EXPFACT1	-.004	.042	.933
SCH ENV: Parent involvement is high	-.144	.073	.048*
TCH EXPR: Many CHLD are not capable of learning material	.119	.085	.164
FAM of ST in CL: Working with parents to be very difficult	-.004	.092	.965

R² value for this model is .035

*** - Significant at the p<.001 level

** - Significant at the p<.01 level

* - Significant at the p<.05 level

Table 11. Regression of Selected Predictor Variables for Math Z-Scores for non-FAST Schools

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	.209	.535	.696
C3YRSTC	.001	.012	.914
ENVFACT1	.039	.034	.245
ENVFACT2	-.033	.043	.445
EXPFACT1	-.004	.036	.911
SCH ENV: Parent involvement is high	.027	.068	.690
TCH EXPR: Many CHLD are not capable of learning material	.101	.074	.169
FAM of ST in CL: Working with parents to be very difficult	-.268	.083	.001***

R^2 value for this model is .023

*** - Significant at the $p < .001$ level

Table 12. Regression of Selected Predictor Variables for Reading Z-Scores for non-FAST Schools

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	.359	.524	.494
C3YRSTC	-.002	.012	.851
ENVFACT1	.010	.033	.755
ENVFACT2	-.053	.042	.201
EXPFACT1	-.010	.036	.771
SCH ENV: Parent involvement is high	.166	.067	.013*
TCH EXPR: Many CHLD are not capable of learning material	.031	.072	.667
FAM of ST in CL: Working with parents to be very difficult	-.179	.081	.027*

R² value for this model is .022

*- Significant at the $p < .05$ level

Table 13. Additional Interaction Variables to be Tested as Predictors for Reading and Math Z-Scores

Variable Name	Description
ENV1FAST	Interaction Variable of Dummy Variable FASTPART and ENVFACT1
ENV2FAST	Interaction Variable of Dummy Variable FASTPART and ENVFACT2
EXP1FAST	Interaction Variable of Dummy Variable FASTPART and EXPFACT1
PARINVFAST	Interaction Variable of Dummy Variable FASTPART and C3SCEN9 (Parent involvement is high)
CHLDINCFast	Interaction Variable of Dummy Variable FASTPART and C3TEXP6 (Many children are not capable of learning material)
WORPARFAST	Interaction Variable of Dummy Variable FASTPART and C3FAMST7 (Working with parents to be very difficult)

Table 14. Regression of Selected Predictor Variables for Math Z-Scores for All Schools

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coef- ficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	-.242	.379	.523
C3YRSTC	.003	.009	.769
ENVFACT1	.047	.033	.155
ENVFACT2	-.024	.042	.569
EXPFACT1	.012	.034	.731
SCH ENV: Parent involvement is high	.031	.068	.650
TCH EXPR: Many CHLD are not ca- pable of learning material	.120	.071	.093
FAM of ST in CL: Working with par- ents to be very difficult	-.236	.078	.002**
ENV1FAST	.094	.098	.010**
ENV2FAST	-.051	.103	.518
EXP1FAST	-.048	.104	.053
PARTINVFAST	-.252	.047	.046*
CHLDINCFast	-.067	.057	.363
WORPARFAST	.202	.048	.320

R² value for this model is .022

*** - Significant at the p<.001 level

** - Significant at the p<.01 level

* - Significant at the p<.05 level

Table 15. Regression of Selected Predictor Variables for Reading Z-Scores for All Schools

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	-.206	.378	.585
C3YRSTC	.007	.009	.421
ENVFACT1	.019	.033	.568
ENVFACT2	-.045	.042	.279
EXPFACT1	.009	.034	.796
SCH ENV: Parent involvement is high	.168	.067	.013*
TCH EXPR: Many CHLD are not capable of learning material	.044	.071	.530
FAM of ST in CL: Working with parents to be very difficult	-.134	.077	.082
ENV1FAST	.126	.047	.007**
ENV2FAST	-.070	.056	.213.
EXP1FAST	-.035	.048	.462
PARTINVFAST	-.328	.097	.001**
CHLDINCFast	.028	.102	.786
WORPARFAST	.085	.104	.414

R² value for this model is .026

*** - Significant at the p<.001 level

** - Significant at the p<.01 level

* - Significant at the p<.05 level

Table 16. Regression of Control Variables for Factor ENVFACT1

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	10.150	.194	.000***
YRSDummy	.688	.111	.000***
C3TEXP3	.529	.053	.000***
C3TEXP7	.245	.056	.000***
FASTPART	-.256	.094	.006**

R² value for this model is .090

*** - Significant at the p<.001 level

** - Significant at the p<.01 level

* - Significant at the p<.05 level

Table 17. Regression of Control Variables for Factor ENVFACT2

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	8.236	.155	.000***
YRSDummy	.311	.088	.000***
C3TEXP3	.100	.042	.019*
C3TEXP7	.418	.045	.000***
FASTPART	-.166	.075	.026*

R² value for this model is .059

*** - Significant at the p<.001 level

** - Significant at the p<.01 level

* - Significant at the p<.05 level

Table 18. Regression of Control Variables for Factor EXPFACT1

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	7.056	.140	.000***
YRSDummy	.124	.079	.120
C3TEXP3	.742	.038	.000***
C3TEXP7	.058	.040	.147
FASTPART	-.100	.067	.136

R² value for this model is .178

*** - Significant at the p<.001 level

** - Significant at the p<.01 level

* - Significant at the p<.05 level

Table 19. Regression of Selected Predictor Variables for Reading Z-Scores for All Schools

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	-.582	.262	.026*
YRSDummy	.142	.082	.084
TCH EXPR: Satisfied with my class size	.031	.042	.461
TCH EXPR: Satisfied with my teaching salary	-.056	.042	.189
FASTPART	.031	.069	.655
ENVFACT1	.079	.022	.000***
ENVFACT2	-.053	.027	.050*
EXPFACT1	-.002	.027	.944

R² value for this model is .015

*** - Significant at the $p < .001$ level

** - Significant at the $p < .01$ level

* - Significant at the $p < .05$ level

Table 20. Regression of Selected Predictor Variables for Math Z-Scores for All Schools

Model Variables	β Unstandardized Coefficient	Standard Error	Significance
(Constant)	-.767	.263	.004***
YRSDummy	.123	.082	.133
TCH EXPR: Satisfied with my class size	.129	.042	.002**
TCH EXPR: Satisfied with my teaching salary	-.024	.042	.570
FASTPART	-.112	.069	.104
ENVFACT1	.077	.022	.001***
ENVFACT2	-.027	.027	.316
EXPFACT1	-.026	.027	.345

R² value for this model is .015

*** - Significant at the p<.001 level

** - Significant at the p<.01 level

* - Significant at the p<.05 level

Evaluating Relationships through Linear Regression

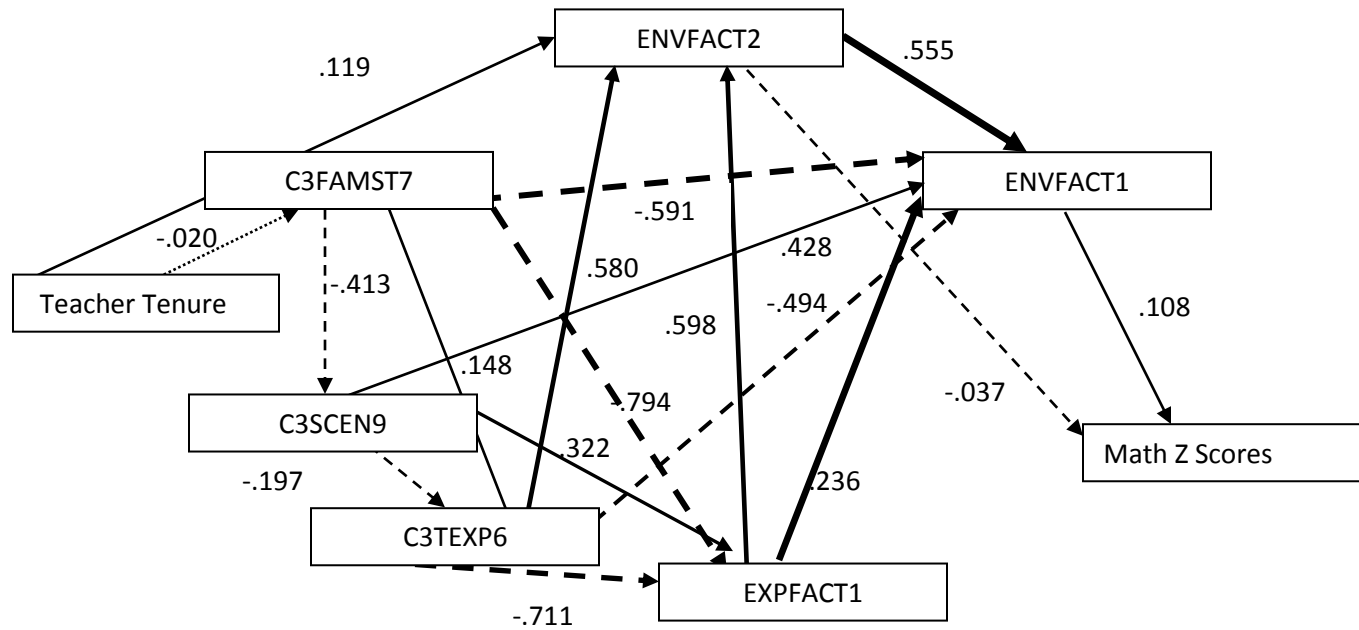
What has become clear is that there is a difference between the Fast designated schools and those without the social capital developing program. In Fast hosting schools, the environmental factors seem to have an impact on the final reading and math scores of students. There is also a difference in that parental involvement is more apparent to the teachers where FAST is present. Contrarily, the schools that do not participate in FAST only show one strong predictor variable which is whether the teachers find it difficult to work with parents. It is telling that in the FAST based schools parents are seen as participatory and in non-FAST schools, parents are seen as potentially adversarial.

The surprise is that teacher tenure is as not relevant to the reading and math scores recorded. This is in conflict with foundational research which evaluate teacher contributions to test scores (Clotfelter, Ladd and Vigdor, 2007; Rothstein, 2010; Rockoff, 2004). As a researcher, teacher tenure still seems important and alternative ways to investigate its impact on test scores it to put together a path analysis or to create a dummy variable which demonstrates teacher tenure. Path analysis looks at how variables might be connected by intermediary variables to the final outcome. Doing a quick mock up the path analysis for Math test scores (Figure 1), one sees that the path ways are often not robust even when they are statistically significant. This is most like due to the fact that teacher tenure would be our exogenous variable as it is the beginning of the path which we want to explore. Looking at potential paths, the variables will be evaluated in the fol-

lowing order, Teacher tenure, working with parents is difficult, parental involvement is high, students are not capable of doing current level of work, Positive View of the School, School Identity, Teacher Expectations, and finally either Reading or Math Scores. Conducting a Path analysis where paths are kept if seen as statistically significant, the model that is attained is demonstrated in Figure 1. The analysis though demonstrates that there is not much shift from year to year on teacher quality. Another potential implication of this is that there is a gradual increase from each year of working which does not necessarily mean that the tenure is not a factor. One way to explore this is by creating a dummy variable YRSDummy. The YRSDummy variable looks at teacher tenure as a binary variable with one aspect being teachers with less than 5 years of experience and the rest having 5 or more years of experience. Once again we do not see a statistically significant relationship between tenure and test scores. One potential answer to this is the self-selecting sample size. Teachers who take the time to fill out the survey are most likely going to be invested in their students and job. While this does not matter as much when you are evaluating two different sets of data with a significant event difference, it does follow that good teachers will have a more consistent smaller shift than non-invested teachers. When looking at the created independent factors, at FAST schools they all seem to be statistically significant in math attainment and two of them are significant in reading scores. There seems to be no relationship between factors and results at non-FAST schools. The issue is that at FAST schools Positive View of the Administration has a positive rela-

tionship while the others have a negative. This is most likely due to the high correlation between these factors which could cause a suppression effect. Creating the dummy variable FASTPART which is a dummy variable looking at whether a school is a FAST school or not we see that interaction variables made from this dummy variable and our selected variables also show that there is a high relationship between one of our factors Positive View of the Administration and the test results. The effect of FAST Participation is not as large as anticipated but this follows what was found by the original FAST study which showed little difference on educational attainment between FAST schools and non-FAST schools (Gamoran et al., 2012).

Figure 1. Path Analysis Model for Math Z Scores



CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

The OLS regression definitively showed that there is a difference between FAST schools and non-FAST schools based on the relationship of teacher social capital as a predictor for test scores. Even though when one is solely looking at a FAST and non-FAST regression assessment there is no statistically significant effect on the average scores of z-Test scores for standardized reading and math, there appears to be a relationship between FAST and non-FAST and teacher social capital as predictors for improved test scores. When a regression occurs with the selected teacher social capital variables for math test scores, there is a strong significance at the $p < .001$ level for ENVFACT1 and at the $p < .05$ level for ENVFACT2. ENVFACT1 has a positive relationship and ENVFACT2 a negative which mostly occurs because there is probably some overlap in the effect that ENVFACT1 and ENVFACT2 have on each other and a bit of suppression is occurring. The r square for math test scores is .034 for just FAST schools and .022 for all schools with FAST participation as a dummy variable. For reading test scores, one sees almost exactly the same relationship as with the math scores regression. The r-square for the FAST schools regression on reading test scores is .035 and .026 for all schools with FAST participation as a dummy variable. While with the non-FAST schools there is no statistical significance between these social capital development factors and test scores,

one does see some significance in other variables including a positive relationship between the teacher's perception of parental involvement and test scores and a negative relationship between test scores and a teacher's perception of whether dealing parents is difficult.

The most influential variable in the FAST school regressions was ENVFACT1. It regularly showed significance in regression outputs for test scores which means having a positive view of the school makes a difference in only the schools which have FAST activities occurring. The other interesting facts show that control variables while not having a huge impact on test scores outside of class size, do have a significant effect on all of the created factors demonstrating that these variables do have an indirect influence on test scores if not a direct impact on test scores.

What is troubling is that there is negative relationship between parental involvement and test scores in FAST schools. Normally, one would expect to see a positive relationship. The correlations between this variable and the reading test scores have a significant positive relationship and no relationship between it and math scores so why is there a negative relationship in the regression? The first possibility is that one variable component of ENVFACT1 is the perception that students misbehavior interferes with class. If both this variable and parental involvement is high, there is a possibility that high parental involvement at the school is interpreted as negative involvement, perhaps parents are seen as a distraction as their child might be considered a distraction. This does undermine the belief though that through building social capital a teacher comes to understand and respect parents more than if this social capital was not being created. Another possibility

is that the small survey size of teachers while meeting the rule of thumb of about 10-20 cases per variable for the smaller regressions, shows some bias in the types of teachers who self-selected to participate in the study, for instance these teachers might already be over committed to activities and see high parental involvement (perhaps even helicopter parents) as a negative aspect for their child and this in turn prevents the teacher from being able to instruct the child to their highest capacity.

Further opportunities for study on this topic are looking at a study with more teachers involved and more directly focused on teacher social capital interventions. This study is more focused on parents and students while data can be evaluated in terms of perceived teacher relations with the school, administrators and parents, the avenue of study in this thesis and the data involved is more of a by-product of the study rather than a focus. Another opportunity is to hold focus groups which explore the mechanisms and perceived gains in social building activities among teachers as has been done with parents (Shoji et al., 2014).

Teacher social capital does have a statistically beneficial effect on test scores in schools focused on building social capital. There is a possibility that this only an expectation created through the social capital building exercises themselves but regardless of why this occurs, students are seeing gains in test scores because of these interventions. Understanding that social capital building even among teachers is an important part of potential interventions can have a huge impact on policy and practice on creating better schools for at-risk Hispanic youth who have been lagging behind their ethnic counterparts.

APPENDIX A
COPY OF TEACHER SURVEY

 Children, Families & Schools

1. Are you male or female?

- ☐ Male
☐ Female

2. Are you of Hispanic or Latino origin?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

3. What is your race? *Please check all that apply.*

- ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native
☐ Asian
☐ Black or African American
☐ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
☐ White
☐ Other, please specify

4. How would you classify your teaching position? *PLEASE CHECK ONLY ONE ANSWER.*

- ☐ Regular full-time teacher
☐ Regular part-time teacher
☐ Substitute teacher
☐ Itinerant teacher
☐ Other, please specify

5. Do you speak any languages other than English?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No → Go to question 6

5a. What is the main other language that you speak?

6. How many years have you worked as a *full-time teacher* in any public or private school at any grade level or program?

- ☐ This year
- ☐ Two years
- ☐ Three years
- ☐ Four years
- ☐ Five years or more, please specify

7. How many years have you held your current position at this school?

- ☐ This year
- ☐ Two years
- ☐ Three years
- ☐ Four years
- ☐ Five years or more, please specify

8. How many years have you worked at this school in any teaching position?

- ☐ This year
- ☐ Two years
- ☐ Three years
- ☐ Four years
- ☐ Five years or more, please specify

9. How many years have you worked at this school in any teaching position? Please include part-time teaching. Write "0" if you have never taught the grade or program listed.

a. Early childhood (Pre-K, Head Start, Birth-3 Programs) years

b. Elementary school years

c. Middle or high school years

d. English as a Second Language Program years

e. Bilingual education program years

f. Special education program years

g. Other, please specify

10. What type of teaching certification do you have?

- ☐ None
☐ Temporary, probational, provisional, or emergency certification
☐ Certificate for completion of an alternative certification program
☐ Regular certification
☐ National Board certification or other advanced certification

11. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements about your school's environment.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
a. There is broad agreement among the entire school faculty about the central mission of the school.	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. The school administrator deals effectively with pressures from outside the school (for example, budget, parents, school board) that might otherwise affect my teaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. The school administration's behavior toward the staff is supportive and encouraging.	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. The principal lets staff members know what is expected of them.	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. The academic standards at this school are too low.	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Necessary materials such as textbooks, supplies, and copy machines are available as needed by staff.	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. In this school, teachers are continually learning and seeking new ideas.	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. The level of student misbehavior in this school (such as noise, horseplay, or fighting in the halls or cafeteria) interferes with my teaching.	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. Overall, parental involvement at this school is high.	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. The school has well-defined learning expectations for all students.	☐	☐	☐	☐

12. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements about your experience at this school.				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
a. I am generally satisfied with being a teacher at this school	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. I am certain I am making a difference in the lives of the children I teach.	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. I am satisfied with my class size.	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. I have a great deal of control in selecting instructional materials and methods	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. I have a great deal of control in selecting classroom management strategies.	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Many of the children I teach are not capable of learning the material I am supposed to teach them.	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. I am satisfied with my teaching salary.	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements about families of the students in your classroom.				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
a. Overall, parental involvement in my classroom is high.	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. I have developed strategies to get parents to be involved in homework time after school (such as homework planners or needing parent's signatures on work).	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. I enjoy meeting with parents on days other than planned parent-teacher conferences.	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. I believe that working with parents is worth the time and effort I invest.	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Parents of students in my classroom understand the value of working with their children on homework.	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. I encourage parents to visit or volunteer in the classroom.	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. I find working with my students' parents to be very difficult.	☐	☐	☐	☐

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