Examining Teachers’ Readiness to Partner With Immigrant Latinx Parents: A Comparative Case Study

Sarah Coleman Longshore

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EXAMINING TEACHERS’ READINESS TO PARTNER WITH IMMIGRANT LATINX PARENTS: A COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY

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DEDICATION

for

Carly and Claire

“Here’s to strong women. May we know them.
   May we be them. May we raise them.”

(Unknown)
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First and foremost, I would like to thank God Almighty for giving me the strength, ability, and opportunity to undertake this research study. Without His blessings and protection, this achievement would not have been possible.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine the readiness of teachers to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. Using a comparative case study approach, the researcher investigated two above-average high schools on opposite ends of the United States and ideological spectrum. Specifically, this study explored (a) the political attitudes conveyed through each state’s education code of laws and (b) teachers’ sense of self-efficacy (perception of capability) and level of preparation (knowledge of best practices and acquisition of related skills) to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

Data collection methods included (a) document analysis, (b) semi-structured interviews with 10 teachers, two school leaders, and two district administrators, and (c) a teacher questionnaire. Critical race theory, social cognitive theory, and a model of contextual interaction were integrated to form the theoretical framework for this study. Analysis of the data led to a deeper understanding of how contextual factors at various levels of society influence teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

The findings of this study support the conclusion that California laws are more often characterized by progressiveness, more focused on ensuring equitable access to resources and opportunities, and more forcefully assert that all people should feel safe, respected, and valued in school. California teachers’ preservice training tended to include more attention to working with English Learners and engaging families from diverse backgrounds than that of South Carolina teachers. California teachers also communicated higher feelings of self-efficacy than did South Carolina teachers.
Based on this study’s findings, being bilingual in English and Spanish may increase teachers’ self-efficacy for partnering with immigrant Latinx parents. In order to create the next generation of teachers who are fluent in both languages, immersive language study should begin as early as possible in a student’s educational career, and institutions of higher learning should continue to engage preservice teachers in becoming bilingual. Institutions of higher learning and teacher preparation programs should also make discussions of race and culture a core component to the preparation of aspiring teachers. Finally, school leaders and district administrators are encouraged to implement critically conscious models of parent and family engagement.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BCLAD .................. Bilingual, Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development

CA ................................................................. California

CBO .......................................................... Community-Based Organization

CCSS .......................................................... Common Core State Standards

CLAD ....................................................... Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development

CLS .......................................................... Critical Legal Studies

CRT .......................................................... Critical Race Theory

DACA ....................................................... Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals

EIA ............................................................ Economic Impact Aid

EL ............................................................... English Learner

ELA ........................................................... English Language Arts

ELD ........................................................... English Language Development

ESOL ........................................................ English for Speakers of Other Languages

ESSA ........................................................ Every Student Succeeds Act

GPA ............................................................ Grade Point Average

HSI ........................................................... Hispanic-Serving Institutions

K-12 ......................................................... Kindergarten through Twelfth Grade

NAEP ...................................................... National Assessment of Educational Progress

PACE ....................................................... Program of Alternative Certification for Educators

PLC ......................................................... Professional Learning Community
RFED ...............................................................Reclassified Fluent English Proficient
RTI ................................................................Response to Intervention
SC .......................................................................South Carolina
SCDE .................................................................South Carolina Department of Education
SDAIE .................................................................Specially Designed Academic Instruction delivered in English
SIOP ..................................................................Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol
US .......................................................................United States
CHAPTER 1:
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

United States (U.S.) classrooms are becoming increasingly diverse, but nearly 80% of all teachers are non-Hispanic White (Taie & Goldring, 2017). Because it can be challenging for White, middle-class teachers to develop effective partnerships with families who come from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, there is a need to examine the factors which influence teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. This study will provide an examination by comparing cases across diverse geographical and political contexts—South Carolina and California.

South Carolina has a small immigrant population. According to the American Immigration Council (2017b), approximately 5% of South Carolina residents were immigrants in 2015, while almost 4% of South Carolina residents were native-born U.S. citizens with at least one immigrant parent in 2016. Approximately 37% of immigrants in South Carolina were believed to be unauthorized in 2014, which accounted for almost 2% of the total state population at that time. Between 2010 and 2014, it is estimated that one in 25 children in South Carolina was a U.S. citizen living with at least one unauthorized family member.

Although South Carolina’s immigrant population remains small, it is growing. The number of foreign-born individuals residing in South Carolina rose from 115,978 in 2000 to 272,004 in 2012, a 135% increase in a little more than a decade (Federation for American Immigration Reform, 2013). While immigrants come from nations all over the
world, including significant numbers from India, Philippines, China, and Germany, the predominant country of origin for immigrants residing in South Carolina during 2015 was Mexico, making up 28.2% of the state’s immigrant population (American Immigration Council, 2017b). In 2010, 54.8% of the immigrant population residing in South Carolina was from Latin America (Federation for American Immigration Reform, 2013).

The influx of immigrants is significant and substantial for South Carolina’s public schools. While comprehensive data are not available on immigrant students in South Carolina, most are identified as English Learners (ELs) and may be assumed to be children of immigrants (Federation for American Immigration Reform, n.d.). Therefore, EL enrollment can be used as a proxy for the number of first- and second-generation immigrants in South Carolina’s schools. Spanish is the primary language spoken by ELs; it is the home language of approximately 77% of all ELs nationally (National Center for Education Statistics, 2018b). From 2000 to 2014, South Carolina had one of the sharpest increases in its EL population in the country (Sanchez, 2017). By the fall of 2015, the percentage of public school students who were ELs in South Carolina had reached 5.6%, up from 0.8% in 2000 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2018b).

In addition to an increasing EL population in South Carolina, which includes students from countries worldwide, the number of Latinx students (immigrants and non-immigrants) has also been on the rise. In 2000-2001, Latinx students accounted for 1.9% of the total student population in South Carolina’s schools. By 2015-2016, that number had risen to 8.5% (National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.). This growth has not been uniform throughout the state, as particularly high concentrations exist in some rural school districts. For example, the Latinx student population in Saluda County School
District reached 37.1% in 2017-2018, compared to the state at 9.7% (South Carolina State Department of Education, 2018a). Overall, South Carolina experienced a 148% increase in the Latinx population between 2000 and 2010, the most significant percentage growth in the United States during that decade (Rodriguez, 2018).

The western and southwestern regions of the U.S. have long been the most frequently chosen settlement destinations for Latinx immigrants due to geographical proximity to Latin American countries. California shares a 140-mile border with Mexico and has a long history of immigration. Additionally, for nearly a quarter of the nineteenth century, California was a Mexican province before it became the 31st state in 1850 (“California,” n.d.). According to the American Immigration Council (2017a), California is home to the largest number of immigrants in the U.S., accounting for over one-quarter of the state’s population (27.3% in 2015). Immigrants are considered to be a valuable part of the California workforce, have contributed tens of billions of dollars in taxes, added hundreds of billions of dollars to California’s economy, and generated billions of dollars in business revenue (pp. 3-4). The immigrant population in California continues to proliferate, and the number of school-age children who have at least one immigrant parent is larger in California (52%) than in the U.S. overall (26%) (Sugarman & Geary, 2018). In 2012-2013, California had the highest concentration of ELs in the United States at 24% and was home to nearly one-third of the country’s districts with the largest EL populations (8 of 25 districts) (Ruiz Soto, Hooker, & Batalova, 2015).

This study will investigate the readiness of teachers to partner with immigrant Latinx families using a qualitative, comparative case study of two above-average high schools with relatively large EL populations, one in South Carolina, one in California.
The study seeks to identify the factors within the respective political contexts that contribute to teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. Research questions will probe (a) the existing laws in each state that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents and (b) teachers’ preparation and self-efficacy to partner effectively with immigrant Latinx parents.

**Introduction to Chapter**

This chapter will discuss the problem addressed by the study and the purpose of the study. Research questions will be identified and will be followed by a brief overview of the methodology, definitions, delimitations and limitations, and assumptions. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of the significance of the study, the theoretical framework, and an overview of the study’s organization.

**Problem Statement**

Meeting the needs of ELs is a considerable challenge for public education; it is particularly challenging in areas such as the state of South Carolina, where increasing EL numbers are a relatively new phenomenon (Federation for American Immigration Reform, 2013). The recent rising number of immigrants and changing demographics have created new challenges for teachers. Several indicators demonstrate the difficulty U.S. public schools have had adapting. While the gap between the dropout rates of White and Latinx youth decreased by 17.5% from 2000 to 2016, the dropout rates for White and Black youth were both lower than the dropout rate for Latinx youth each year from 2000 to 2016. Latinx youth born in the U.S. had lower dropout rates (6.5%) than did their Latinx peers born outside of the U.S (16.1%) (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019).
Significant achievement disparities are also evident between student groups in an evaluation of NAEP data. In 2017, discrepancies existed in scores of White and Latinx students in grades four and eight in both reading and mathematics (National Center for Education Statistics, 2018a). Fourth grade Latinx students’ mathematics scores were 19 points lower than those of White students, and eighth grade Latinx students’ mathematics scores were 24 points lower. Fourth grade Latinx students’ reading scores were 23 points lower than those of White students, while eighth grade Latinx students’ reading scores were 20 points lower.

Immigration is one of the most highly debated and polarizing issues in the U.S. According to Rodriguez (2018), “Southern states like South Carolina maintain the anti-immigrant narrative that is currently being broadcast and affirmed from the highest office in the land” (pp. 22-23). Politics aside, there continues to be a growing number of first- and second-generation immigrant students entering U.S. schools, especially among the Latinx community, and schools must address the educational needs of these students. Educators must deepen their understanding of the immigrant Latinx community and work toward solutions, including home-school partnerships, that will improve the educational attainment and positive self-identity of a growing demographic segment in the U.S.

A successful home-school partnership is recognized as one of the most powerful influences on students’ school attendance, behavior, and achievement. Several researchers have strongly suggested that parental engagement is one of the leading indicators of students’ success in school (Epstein et al., 2002; González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997; Nieto, 2000; Olivos, Jiménez-Castellanos, & Ochoa, 2011). However, partnering with immigrant Latinx parents has
been a challenge for most U.S. teachers (Marschall, Shah, & Donato, 2012). It is particularly challenging for teachers in some southern states, such as South Carolina, where the number of immigrant Latinx families has increased rapidly in recent years (Sox, 2009). The problem this study seeks to address is that, in light of changing demographics, teachers should be adequately prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx parents effectively for the benefit of their students.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to examine the readiness of teachers to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. This study will investigate (a) the political attitudes conveyed through each state’s education code of laws and (b) teachers’ sense of self-efficacy (perception of capability) and level of preparation (knowledge of best practices and acquisition of related skills) to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. A comparison will be made between two high schools, one in California, the other in South Carolina.

This comparative case study will identify the specific laws and practices that may contribute to different levels of readiness of California and South Carolina educators to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. This work will ultimately provide recommendations for lawmakers, school and district leaders, and institutions of higher learning to enhance the readiness of teachers to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

**Research Questions**

The research questions that will guide this work are:

1. What statutes exist in each state that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California?
2. How have teachers been prepared, and what is their level of self-efficacy regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California?

**Overview of the Methodology**

This study will investigate the contextual factors that contribute to teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. A qualitative, comparative case study approach will be used to address the research questions. Data will come from two above-average high schools, each with a high proportion of ELs, one located in South Carolina, the other in California.

A comparative case study ensures that “the issue is not explored through one lens, but rather a variety of lenses which allow for multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood” (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 544). This methodology is most appropriate for the questions under investigation because there is a need to explain how context influences teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. In this study, each high school will serve as the case for the investigation of teachers’ readiness, as shaped by regional and political contexts.

Data collection methods will include (a) document analysis, (b) semi-structured interviews with teachers, school leaders, and district administrators, and (c) a teacher questionnaire. A document analysis will be conducted for both state’s education code of laws to understand the political attitudes of each state’s legislature. Semi-structured interviews will be conducted with 14 participants (two district administrators, two school leaders, and 10 teachers). The participating teachers will also respond to a questionnaire. Figure 1.1 summarizes the data collection methods that will be used in this study.
## Research Questions

| RQ1: What statutes exist in each state that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California? | 1. Document Review  
2. Interviews with District Administrators  
3. Interviews with School Leaders |
|---|---|
| RQ2: How have teachers been prepared, and what is their level of self-efficacy regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California? | 1. Teacher Questionnaire  
2. Interviews with Teachers |

### Figure 1.1 Summary of data collection methods.

#### Depiction of the Study Design

The framework that will be the foundation for this study is influenced by my belief that multiple factors at various levels impact teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. I also believe that these factors influence each other. A model of these interactions is visually represented in Figure 1.2.

The model depicted in Figure 1.2 represents the relationship between the independent variables (i.e., state laws and teachers’ sense of self-efficacy and level of preparation), which are thought to influence the outcome (i.e., teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents). Ostensibly, state law impacts teachers’ preparation and self-efficacy. A comparison will be made between each case (i.e., a California high school and a South Carolina high school) for each factor.
Figure 1.2. Depiction of study design.

Definitions

The following definitions and explanations are offered to provide clarity to important concepts and terms used in this study:

1. *Bicultural*. The term *bicultural* is preferable to *minority* or *people of color* because “it emphasizes the fact that students from these groups must contend with two cultural systems that are often at odds with one another and with a vastly different educational experience from that of majority-group students” (Nieto, 2000, p. 28). The term *bicultural* also emphasizes what the students and their families bring with them rather than what they are missing (p. 28). While some students and families may consider themselves to be *multicultural*, for this study, immigrant students and families will be referred to as *bicultural*, which acknowledges the differences in the beliefs, practices, values, goals, and language that may exist in their home in contrast to those found in the U.S. public school systems.
2. **Critical Consciousness.** Freire’s (1973) construct of critical consciousness describes how oppressed or marginalized people learn to critically analyze their social conditions and act to change them. According to Watts, Diemer, and Voight (2011), critical consciousness aims to foster a critical analysis of society and one’s status within it. For the purpose of this study, *critical consciousness* is appropriate and preferred over *cultural proficiency* or *cultural competency*.

3. **English Learners.** The U.S. Department of Education (2018) defines an *English Learner (EL)* as “a national-origin-minority student who is limited-English-proficient.” *EL* is preferred over *limited-English-proficient (LEP)* because it highlights accomplishments rather than deficits (para. 6). Although the number of ELs provides an estimate of first- and second-generation immigrant students, it must not be assumed that all ELs are Latinx.


5. **Foreign-Born.** The United States Census Bureau (2016) defines *foreign-born* as anyone who is not a U.S. citizen at birth, which includes naturalized U.S. citizens, lawful permanent residents, temporary migrants, humanitarian migrants, and unauthorized migrants. For the purpose of this study, no differentiation will be made among the various statuses.

6. **Immigrant.** *Immigrant* refers to a foreign-born resident who has relocated to the United States. *First-generation immigrant* also refers to those people who are foreign-born.
7. *Latinx. Latinx* is a gender-neutral label for Latino/a. It escapes the implicit gender binary and is inclusive of all possible gender and sexual identities, similar to a “singular they” in English (Logue, 2015). According to Google trend data, *Latinx* began to appear in Internet searches in 2014 and increased rapidly until hitting its peak popularity in September 2019. According to Salinas and Lozano (2019), scholars began using *Latinx* in 2018, and the term’s use in academic literature is expected to grow, becoming more accepted and institutionalized: “Given the number of emerging scholars who used the term in their thesis or dissertation, it is reasonable to assume that these individuals will continue to incorporate the term *Latinx* into their research as they enter academia as faculty members…” (p. 306). For the purposes of this study, I will default to *Latinx* when speaking of the entire population and the individual gender label (*Latino/a*) when discussing gender-normed groups within my study.

8. *New Latino South. Kochhar, Suro, and Tafoya* (2005) and Rodríguez and Monreal (2017) are among many scholars who refer to areas of the Southern United States where the Latinx population is growing the fastest as the *New Latino South*, which consists of six Southern states: Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee.

9. *Opportunity Gap. According to Milner* (2012), too much attention is placed on achievement gaps. Achievement gap explanations frame White students as the norm from which all other groups of students are to be compared. Achievement gap explanations conceptualize bicultural students from a deficit perspective, instead of examining the inequitable structures, systems, contexts, policies, and
practices that lead to perceived achievement gaps. Focusing on opportunity, instead, provides an opportunity to examine the causes of disparities that exist.

10. Partner/Partnership. The differences among parental involvement, participation, and engagement are not clearly or consistently defined in the literature. Although the terms are related, the term partnership will be applied in this study. In an effective partnership, parents and teachers educate each other during open two-way communication, and they share a mutual commitment to children and on exploring how they can enhance and celebrate their connectedness (Keyes, 2000; Sumson, 1999).

11. Readiness. An online search using Google Definition yields the following definition of readiness: “the state of being fully prepared for something.” For this study, the state of being fully prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx parents includes, but is not limited to, opportunities for preservice and practicing teachers to engage in professional training related to culturally responsive teaching and bilingual education, which may lead to increased self-efficacy.

12. School Leader. The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) includes a definition of school leader to mean a principal, assistant principal, or other individual who is “responsible for the daily instructional leadership and managerial operations in the elementary school or secondary school building” (Every Student Succeeds Act, Section 8101(44)). Two school leaders will participate in this study—an assistant principal at Somerset High School (SC) and a principal at McIvester High School (CA).
13. Second-Generation Immigrant. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2016), second-generation immigrant refers to those people with at least one foreign-born parent. In this study, second-generation immigrant is often used to describe students who may be U.S. citizens themselves but have at least one immigrant parent who was not born in the U.S.

14. Self-Efficacy. Bandura (1989b) applied the following definition of self-efficacy: “people's beliefs in their capabilities to fulfill different levels of task demands” (p. 730). Fasko and Fasko (1998) assert that beliefs in one’s capabilities strongly influence a person’s readiness for any task.

15. United States (U.S.). Although America is commonly understood as the United States of America (and American people are widely understood to be citizens of the United States of America), this study will default to the United States or the U.S., which is more accurate and not to be confused with North America, Central America, or South America.

Delimitations of the Study

The sample will consist of teachers, school leaders, and district administrators of two high schools with large populations of ELs, one in South Carolina, one in California. School counselors, other support staff, parents, and students who may know the subject well will not be involved with this study.

The decision to select schools at the secondary level was based on the following two premises. First, previous research in this area has been mostly contextualized at the elementary level. Few researchers have studied home-school partnerships with immigrant parents at the secondary level. This study will begin to address that gap in the literature.
Second, the decision was based on my positionality as a secondary educator. Qualitative researchers need to situate themselves in the research (Dwyer & Buckle, 2009). While insider status may improve my ability to carry out the study, I must commit to being keenly aware of my biases at all times and gather data with “eyes open” (Asselin, 2003; Rose, 1985).

Despite these delimitations, this research can contribute to the field both academically and practically, as specific factors will be identified in each case that contribute to teachers’ overall readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

**Limitations of the Study**

Three significant limitations exist in this study. First, I will identify teachers with the help of their school leaders, and I may be connected with teachers who are more culturally proficient, stand out as leaders in this area, are more willing to participate, or are having a positive experience partnering with immigrant Latinx parents. It is worth considering that the teacher participants of this study may not be truly representative of the greater population of teachers in South Carolina or California. Therefore, this study has limited generalizability.

Second, my affiliation with the public school system in South Carolina, my leadership role at the South Carolina Department of Education (SCDE), and the fact that I am a White, middle-class woman are factors in considering the reliability of the interview data. This power relationship may affect some participants’ willingness to speak openly and honestly with me. According to Glesne (2016), a useful research tool for qualitative researchers in overcoming this issue is rapport: “Rapport seems to act as a precursor to fostering trust and thus is part of gaining access…” (p. 137).
Finally, this study will not examine the relationship between teachers’ readiness and student achievement. Rather than attempt to claim that the identified factors are associated with narrowing achievement gaps, this study will highlight the differences between each case to identify teachers’ readiness and their perceptions about what is still needed to develop strong partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents for the benefit of their students.

Assumptions

There are five assumptions associated with this study. First, there is an assumption that because of California’s history as a Mexican province in the 1800s, its large immigrant population, a bipartisan legacy that is now leaning toward more liberal-progressive ideologies, and the 140-mile border it shares with Mexico, California teachers have a higher level of readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. Conversely, because immigration is a relatively new phenomenon in South Carolina and because of the conservative ideology that dominates South Carolina politics, South Carolina teachers are presumed to be less ready and bound by more restrictive and exclusionary laws. They are also expected to report less training and formalized systems of support pertaining to home-school partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents.

Second, this study assumes that the findings will be relevant to institutions of higher learning, school and district leaders, and policymakers who are interested in closing existing opportunity gaps across the U.S. Third, the study assumes that educators recognize the need to be more inclusive and culturally responsive as their schools become increasingly multicultural and that they are interested in developing successful partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents. Fourth, it assumes that the inclusion criteria
of the sample are appropriate and that the participants have a sincere interest in participating in the study and do not have any other motives.

Finally, it is assumed that the participants will answer truthfully and candidly about their experiences and perceptions. To encourage honesty, I will make every effort to preserve anonymity and confidentiality, while informing participants that they can withdraw from the study at any time without ramifications.

Since I hold these assumptions, I acknowledge that I will have to look carefully at these two specific cases instead of resorting back to those assumptions. Otherwise, I could risk drawing comparisons between what I heard and what I thought I should be hearing.

**Significance of the Study**

Western and southwestern regions of the U.S. have been the site selections for countless studies on parental engagement of immigrant Latín families (e.g., Auerbach, 2010; Colegrove & Krause, 2017; López, 2016; Peralta, 2013; Poza, Brooks, & Valdés, 2014; Ramirez, 2003). Fewer studies have been situated in the New Latino South, least of all in South Carolina, and far fewer have attempted to compare cases across geographical and political contexts. This study will employ a qualitative, comparative case study approach to examine teachers’ readiness for partnering with immigrant Latinx parents at high schools in a western state with a longstanding history of immigration (California) and a state in the New Latino South with a growing immigrant population (South Carolina).

While the California school system has had experience educating bicultural students for the last two centuries, South Carolina schools have only recently begun to
recognize this shift in demographics. According to Horsford and Sampson (2013), California benefits from the experience of serving large numbers of ELs, while other states, such as South Carolina, are beginning to consider what it means to serve this unique population. In light of the opportunity gap that persists, the education community must address the changing demographics of U.S. schools. Authentic parental engagement is also important to enhance global competence and to nurture positive self-identity. There is a need to understand the factors that contribute to teachers’ readiness to partner effectively with parents from diverse backgrounds.

This work will contribute to the growing body of literature that investigates how and why U.S. teachers are challenged to develop partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents. This research has implications for how K-12 schools and institutions of higher learning prepare educators to interact with and to respond to the needs of a growing population of immigrant Latinxs. The findings of this study will shed light on an increasing need for teachers in U.S. schools and will offer several recommendations.

**Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical framework situates and contextualizes the problem of study in established ideas (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Critical race theory, Bandura’s (1989a, 1989b) social cognitive theory, and Freeman and Freeman’s (2011) contextual interaction model are integrated to form the theoretical framework for this study. Together, they will provide a basis for interpreting and understanding the relevance of the study’s findings.

**Critical Race Theory**

Critical race theory is a civil rights-oriented discourse that was originally framed by legal scholars as a way of thinking about and assessing social inequities in racialized
systems (Burton, Bonilla-Silva, Ray, Buckelew, & Freeman, 2010). According to Becker and Paul (2015), critical race theorists “have a long tradition of interrogating mentalities that fuel racism by valuing whiteness and devaluing people of color” (p. 185). This line of thinking is built on the following principles: (a) race is a central component of social organizations and systems; (b) racism is institutionalized; (c) everyone within racialized social systems contribute to its reproduction; and (d) racial and ethnic identities are “socially constructed phenomena” that are continually being revised (Burton et al., 2010).

While this study does not employ counter-storytelling, a methodological tool often used by critical race scholars to disrupt dominant discourse while illuminating the voices and stories of those people who are often silenced and marginalized (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002), it does draw on the work of notable critical race theorists and views the problem and findings through a critical lens. This perspective is used to critique the existing structures, practices, and actors within each case of the study.

**Social Cognitive Theory**

Bandura’s (1989a, 1989b) social cognitive theory posits that perceived self-efficacy is a critical factor in human agency. When people perceive that they can achieve certain outcomes, they put forth more effort. These beliefs impact “individuals’ choices in what to pursue, how long they persist in the face of difficulties, how well they struggle in their endeavors, how much anxiety they feel, and how much they are aware of their accomplishments” (Capa, Uzuntiryaki, & Ceylandag, 2018). Social cognitive theory is built upon the idea that an individual behaves as a result of their observations and experiences (Bandura, 1977).
Key constructs of social cognitive theory include outcome expectations, self-efficacy, self-regulation, behavioral capability, and observational learning (Hivner et al., 2019). According to Bandura (1977), people use cognitive processes that involve different sources of information conveyed experientially, vicariously, socially, and physiologically to develop efficacy expectations. Social cognitive theory will, therefore, provide a foundation for understanding teachers’ efficacy beliefs about partnering with immigrant Latinx parents.

**The Contextual Interaction Model**

Freeman and Freeman (2011) created the contextual interaction model to conceptualize the societal influences that have a significant effect on school success for ELs. This model demonstrates the relationship among factors that are present in three different contexts: (a) school, (b) community and family, and (c) national and state. The contextual interaction model recognizes the interconnectedness of many factors at various levels of society, and teachers’ readiness is thought to be influenced by multiple societal influences. Therefore, the contextual interaction model will provide a useful frame for analyzing the variables which are thought to affect teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

**Organization of the Study**

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 introduced the nature of the study, which includes the problem statement and limitations. A review of the literature is presented in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 describes the research methodology that will be used in the study. An analysis of the collected data and findings from the research is discussed in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 summarizes the study and provides conclusions and
recommendations for future research, policymakers, and school and district leaders. References and appendices conclude this study.

**Chapter Summary**

This chapter provided a brief overview of the changing demographics of U.S. schools and the need for successful home-school partnerships between teachers and immigrant Latinx parents. Additionally, the problem statement, the purpose of the study, research questions, overview of the methodology, definitions, delimitations and limitations, assumptions, the significance of the study, a depiction of the study design, theoretical framework, and an overview of the study’s organization were presented. The next chapter will provide a review of the literature.
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Beginning in the 1970s and spurred by the critical 1983 *A Nation at Risk* report, many scholars and education reformers have touted parent engagement as a significant key to student success. Federal and state policy agendas and pivotal education legislation of recent decades, including Goals 2000, No Child Left Behind, and ESSA, have made parents a focal point of the broader plan to improve schools and the educational attainment of U.S. students. Parent engagement has been commonly framed as a means to the end of raising student achievement (Auerbach, 2010). The literature on parent engagement is plentiful, but more research is needed to understand the contextual factors that influence teachers’ readiness to partner with parents of various cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

The U.S. has become increasingly diverse since the 1960s, due in large part to a surge of Latin American migration (Baker, 2017). U.S. schools have also become more multicultural. The literature is wrought with examples of U.S. schools falling short of creating authentic partnerships with one of the nation’s most marginalized and fast-growing parent groups—immigrant Latinxs. When schools enact parent engagement strategies that are tied to school agendas and mandates, they tend to be driven by ideas of the dominant culture. A teacher’s level of readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents may also be influenced by other contextual factors such as policy and law, their preservice and in-service training, and their sense of self-efficacy.
Introduction to Chapter

This literature review will begin with an overview of the demographic changes currently taking place in the U.S., followed by a discussion of the incongruity between immigrant Latinx families’ aspirations and their children’s experiences and academic outcomes in U.S. schools. Next, wide-ranging beliefs about home-school partnerships will be examined, including commonly applied definitions, as well as an overview and analysis of both traditional and critically conscious models of parent engagement that are frequently encountered in the literature. I will then outline the most frequently cited barriers to immigrant Latinx parental engagement, review what the literature says about the factors that influence teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents, and conclude with an in-depth exploration of the theoretical framework that is the foundation for this study.

Changing Demographics in U.S. Public Schools

The U.S. continues to be a top destination for international migrants. The number of foreign-born residents is growing. According to the Migration Policy Institute (n.d.), the number of immigrants residing in the U.S. increased from 10 million in 1970 to almost 44 million in 2016. Latinxs make up the largest and fastest-growing immigrant group in the U.S.—17.9% of the total population in 2016 (Bauman, 2017). It is estimated that 12.1 million unauthorized immigrants were living in the U.S. in 2014 and that the majority came from the Latin American countries Mexico, El Salvador, and Guatemala (Baker, 2017).

Statistical trends imply significant changes for schools in the U.S. From 1996 to 2016, the number of Latinx students doubled from 8.8 million to 17.9 million, accounting
for 22.7% of all students (Bauman, 2017). The number of Latinx students in South Carolina increased by almost 23,000 during a five-year period beginning in the 2012-2013 school year through the 2017-2018 school year, from 7.1% to 9.7% (South Carolina Department of Education, 2018a). While Latinx students are entering South Carolina schools in increasing numbers, they are also dropping out of high school at a higher rate than their non-Latinx peers. The dropout rate in South Carolina for Latinx students in 2016-2017 was highest among racial demographic categories at 3.1%, compared to Black (2.5%), White (2.3%), and Asian (0.5%) students (South Carolina Department of Education, 2018b). Additionally, in 2016, according to national statistics, the Latinx population was least likely to hold a bachelor’s degree or higher at 16.4%, when compared with the Asian, White, and Black populations (55.9%, 37.3%, and 23.3%, respectively) (United States Census Bureau, 2017).

Within the Latinx student population, students from immigrant households face unique legal challenges. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2014), there are more than 840,000 immigrant students in the U.S., and more than 4.6 million ELs. While immigrants are of all nationalities, the largest and fastest-growing group of immigrants continues to be those from Latin America (Baker, 2017).

**The Incongruity between Aspirations and Academic Outcomes**

According to Gupta and Hocking (2018), “while reasons for immigration are complex, with some people choosing to immigrate for better work opportunities, many others are fleeing persecution and conflict, seeking refuge and asylum in order to survive” (p. 1). In the final months of 2018, a caravan of more than 7,000 Central Americans from Honduras, Guatemala, and El Salvador traveled approximately 2,500 miles.
miles reportedly in search of the U.S.-Mexico border to escape gang violence, drugs, poverty, and corruption (“Migrant Caravan,” 2018). Despite possible arrest and deportation, many families are willing to take risks and endure great hardships to find stability, safety, and opportunity for them and their children.

Immigrant Latinx parents hold high expectations about the quality of the U.S. school system and the opportunities it will provide their children; they value education as a tool for advancement (Hill & Torres, 2010; Nieto, 2000; Suárez-Orozco, Onaga, & Lardemelle, 2010). Nieto (2000) found that immigrant parents want their children to have a better chance, to do better than they have done, and to have opportunities for better jobs. The fact that they have uprooted and restructured their lives and the lives of their children in a new country with a culture mostly unknown to them cannot be minimized. It often involves making great sacrifices, including working multiple, low-wage, physically demanding jobs (DeCapua, Smathers, & Tang, 2009; López, 2001). As newcomers in the U.S., they are required to develop new understandings of the world around them, to learn to navigate new systems (e.g., medical, financial, and educational services), and to acquire new forms of cultural and social capital such as learning the English language. These tasks make adapting to their new life emotionally stressful and physically challenging (Pérez Carreón, Drake, & Barton, 2005). It is their hope for an improved quality of life, greater opportunities, better employment, and access to education for their children that influence many to immigrate (Azmitia, Cooper, García, & Dunbar, 1996; Hill & Torres, 2010).

Despite the considerable challenges experienced by immigrant Latinx families, these parents are likely to possess strengths that can help their children in school. Many
immigrant Latinx parents demonstrate strong resilience and psychological flexibility (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & González, 1992; Pérez Carreón et al., 2005; Sibley & Brabeck, 2017; Trueba, 1999). Latinx families tend to value and emphasize family obligations, warmth, reciprocity, and secure connections with others, which provide immigrant Latinx children with an extensive support system consisting of extended family and friends. These relationships can help protect against the adverse effects of poverty (Lansdale, Hardie, Oropesa, & Hillemeier, 2015; Sibley & Brabeck, 2017). One might also assume that strong support systems may protect children from the harmful effects of discrimination and unauthorized status.

Immigrant Latinx students often start school at a disadvantage since few participate in prekindergarten and center-based child care (Brandon, 2004; Sibley & Brabeck, 2017). When comparing immigrant and non-immigrant children, stark disparities exist in mathematics and reading skills, as well as in expressive language upon entering kindergarten (Han, Lee, & Waldfogel, 2012; Koury & Votruba-Drzal, 2014). Immigrant Latinx children remain disadvantaged throughout elementary and middle school due to cultural barriers between home and school, teacher bias, low expectations, and other forms of institutional oppression, which is linked to a higher risk of dropping out, lower academic motivation, and decreased self-efficacy (Brown, 2015; Brown & Chu, 2012).

According to Delpit (1995), teachers are implicitly taught or conditioned to develop lower expectations for bicultural students and students of poverty: “When teachers receive that kind of education, there is a tendency to assume deficits in students rather than to locate and teach to strengths” (p. 172). There is a growing need to examine
the preparation teachers are receiving and to gain an understanding of teachers’ self-efficacy as it relates to teaching bicultural children and partnering with their parents.

Institutional racism and institutional oppression contribute to the opportunity gap that persists in U.S. schools. Standardized testing is a significant obstacle that immigrant students are faced with in U.S. schools: “In addition to presenting an ethnocentric perspective on historical events, the literacy-dense exams are especially difficult for immigrant students who are emergent bilinguals” (Irizarry & Kleyn, 2011, p. 19). When students are tested in a language in which they are not fluent, they are at a severe disadvantage. Teachers understand the importance of these high stakes tests and use instructional time to prepare students for a test, rather than to help students make connections between what they are learning and how it connects to their lives.

Context also matters. Zerquera and Gross (2017) found that institutional contexts have a statistically significant relationship with the rate of dropping out of college and that these effects vary by student race/ethnicity. These findings highlight the significant role contexts play in Latinx student success: “To understand student success, it is important that institutions not just look outward at elements of students’ backgrounds that need to be fixed but look inward at themselves and what practices and policies in place that might work against students” (p 220). Many of the structures and processes present in U.S. schools handicap immigrant Latinx students, making them less likely to achieve the same attainment levels of their non-Latinx peers.

Statistics consistently demonstrate that immigrant students are less likely to graduate from high school than those of U.S. born parents (Hernández & Napierala, 2012). The teenage years are a formative time in any person’s life, but for immigrant
teenagers, high school can be especially crucial. Immigrant high school students are at greater risk of being isolated because of their cultural and linguistic differences (García Coll & Marks, 2009; Suárez-Orozco, Suárez-Orozco, & Todorova, 2008). Acculturation and its associated stress (e.g., learning the language, feeling different from peers, experiences of discrimination, lacking a sense of belonging, and difficulty adjusting to new culture) “can be particularly challenging for immigrant adolescents during a developmental period when peer relationships, ‘fitting in,’ and social connection are important” (Sibley & Brabeck, 2017). For some immigrant students, schools are “hostile places that are difficult to navigate” (Irizarry & Kleyn, 2011, p. 19). For their parents and guardians, U.S. high schools are often overwhelming (DeCapua et al., 2009).

According to Sibley and Brabeck (2017), immigrant Latinx youth are more likely to experience several risk factors when compared with their non-immigrant peers. They are more likely to experience poverty, a linguistically isolated household, a mother who did not graduate from high school, and isolation at school. In instances where the student is unauthorized or is living with an unauthorized parent, the risk factors multiply. Yoshikawa, Suárez-Orozco, and Gonzales (2016) report that over a quarter (28%) of first- and second-generation immigrant children and youth in the U.S. are directly affected by unauthorized status, which limits their family’s access to social services (Xu & Brabeck, 2012), causes them and their parents to experience fear and stigma regularly (Abrego, 2011), makes them susceptible to poverty and mental health issues (Pérez & Fortuna, 2005), and increases levels of extreme stress in the home (Yoshikawa & Kalil, 2011).
For students who are unauthorized or whose parents are unauthorized, significant legal and financial barriers exist to postsecondary education. Although *Plyler v. Doe* prohibits discrimination at the K-12 level based on immigration status (Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts, n.d.), it does not apply to postsecondary education. A few U.S. colleges and universities deny unauthorized students admission, while others permit attendance. According to McCorkle and Bailey (2016), South Carolina currently has one of the most restrictive laws regarding the treatment of unauthorized students in higher education. In 2008, the state enacted the *South Carolina Illegal Immigration Reform Act*, which placed barriers on unauthorized immigrant students. Section 59-101-430 of the South Carolina Code of Laws states that “an alien unlawfully present in the United States is not eligible to attend a public institution of higher learning in this State” and that “an alien unlawfully present in the United States is not eligible on the basis of residence for a public higher education benefit including, but not limited to, scholarships, financial aid, grants, or resident tuition” (South Carolina Legislative Services Agency, n.d.).

Most other states, including California, grant eligibility for state financial aid to unauthorized students. Many postsecondary schools in California also have programs that provide services, resources, and support to unauthorized students. The U.S. Department of Education provides discretionary grants to support Hispanic-Serving Institutions (HSIs) to fund on-campus resources and support services explicitly directed to Latinx students (U.S. Department of Education, n.d.). In 2015, the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Postsecondary Education recognized 472 HSIs in the country, and California had the most HSIs of all states with 159 (“College Guide for Undocumented Students,” 2019).
Even where unauthorized students are allowed to attend college, the tuition is often prohibitive. Some potential college Latinx students are U.S. citizens themselves but have unauthorized parents. These students are denied access to in-state tuition and financial aid in South Carolina based on their parents’ lack of state residency. McCorkle and Bailey (2016) identified that South Carolina “is alone with Alabama in completely banning unauthorized students, in the minority of states that deny in-state tuition for DACA [Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals] students, and one of the only states where in-state benefits and tuition for U.S. citizens of unauthorized parents is not guaranteed” (p. 163).

This inaccessibility is significant when one considers the cost associated with out-of-state tuition. For example, the total tuition and fees for an in-state resident per semester at the University of South Carolina for the 2017-2018 school year was $12,262 compared to a non-resident who paid $32,362 (University of South Carolina, n.d.). Not only is it $20,100 less per semester for in-state residents, but in-state residents might also qualify for state scholarships. Unauthorized students or students with unauthorized parents do not qualify for state scholarships or financial aid in South Carolina, which means that in some cases, they have no way to afford higher education. As a result, “two students, one a DACA student and one a traditional student, who both graduated from the same high school with high GPAs, would have a vast difference in educational costs” (McCorkle and Bailey, 2016, p. 163).

It is challenging for first- and second-generation immigrant students to afford a college education. The same barriers exist for many immigrant students who aspire to learn a trade or earn a certification at a community or technical college. This harsh reality
can cause high school students to lose motivation, academically disengage, and underperform (Olivos & Mendoza, 2009; Roth & Grace, 2015).

When children grow up and attend school in a system that is replete with obstacles and unfair disadvantages based on race or nationality, they are held as hostages to the poverty, hardships, and stress their families tried so valiantly to escape. The cycle can and must be broken:

To make changes and see significant differences, society must be willing to challenge the status quo and change the culture by breaking the cycle of generational poverty—equipping people living below the poverty level to use education as the catalyst to move from poverty to middle-class—where the hidden rules to function in society are available for everyone. (Johnson, 2019, p. 96)

**Involvement, Engagement, and Partnership**

Scholars, educators, and policymakers often rank parent engagement high among factors that contribute to student achievement. The topic has been widely studied and theorized, and the literature overwhelmingly supports involving parents in their children’s education; the “evidence is consistent, positive, and convincing: families have a major influence on their children’s achievement in school and through life” (Henderson & Mapp, 2002, p. 7). The literature strongly supports the benefit of increased parent engagement.

Despite the vast body of research that exists, there is a general lack of agreement on the goal of parent engagement or how it is defined. To illustrate, consider the array of terms and definitions that exist in the literature to describe the idea: *parent involvement, home-school collaboration, parent engagement, family engagement, parent participation,*
and *home-school partnerships*, to name just a few. This section will explain the subtle differences between the three most commonly encountered terms in the literature: *involvement, engagement, and partnership*.

**Involvement**

The most common understanding of parent involvement applies to a narrow definition that places the responsibility on the parents/family. According to Olivos et al. (2011), the term *parent involvement* is synonymous with “school activities and practices designed to involve parents (or better yet, keep them busy) in support of the school and its daily tasks as defined by its leadership” (p. 10). The idea of parent involvement most often implies the need for families to help schools reach school-defined goals that reflect school values and priorities (Jordan, Orozco, & Averett, 2001). Typically, the power to define it rests in the hands of school officials, researchers, and policymakers and not in the hands of parents themselves (Olivos et al., 2011).

Parents are encouraged to attend school-sanctioned activities, be present at parent-teacher conferences, participate in fundraising efforts, provide their signatures, be visible in the school, chaperone field trips, serve on committees, and assist with daily operational tasks. The traditional definition of parent involvement is narrow and can, therefore, be relegated to a scripted role for parents to perform (López, 2001) and is mostly passive and one-way (Olivos et al., 2011). This view tends to align with middle-class Euro-American values and ideals, making it relatively easy for White, middle-class parents to be involved. It is problematic for families of diverse racial, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds who are often characterized as being uninvolved for failure to or an inability to adhere to the script (López, 2001).
Engagement

Another common understanding takes into account all behaviors that take place both inside and outside of the school. This understanding is termed *engagement* and, for the purpose of this study, is preferred over *involvement*. While *involvement* is most often used to describe the specific things parents do, *engagement* includes parents’ understandings of the world and how their involvement practices are embedded in their own cultural spaces (Pérez Carreón et al., 2005).

Latinx parents tend to define engagement practices more broadly than do middle-class Euro-American parents. Latinx and immigrant Latinx parents often cite activities that occur outside of the school, such as providing informal educational support for their children at home, helping with homework, giving advice, providing emotional support, and having school-related discussions (Araque, Wietstock, Cova, & Zepeda, 2017; LeFevre & Shaw, 2012).

López (2001) described how one family taught their children the value of education through hard work. These immigrant Latinx parents believed that by acquainting their children with the type of work they do and showing how difficult, strenuous, and poorly compensated their work is, their children would come to realize that without an education, they will end up working in a similar type of job. McWayne, Melzi, Schick, Kennedy, and Mundt (2013) found that Latinx families’ engagement was multidimensional by fostering socio-emotional and behavioral skills (e.g., training in responsibility, morality, and interpersonal relationships) in addition to cognitive and linguistic skills (e.g., teaching their children about their culture and developing academic skills).
Partnerships

Partnership is not a concept that is consistently defined throughout the literature. Although there is no universally accepted definition, it is often understood as “individuals sharing a purpose, mutual respect, and the willingness to negotiate, as well as an exchange of knowledge and making decisions together” (Broomhead, 2018, p. 436).

Westergårda and Galloway (2010) suggested that although teachers and parents are equal partners in a child’s education, the teachers are responsible for the curriculum, while the parents complement them by providing additional knowledge about their children.

Drawing on the work of Bastiani (1993), Cuttance and Stokes (2000) defined home–school partnerships as:

- a sharing of power, responsibility, and ownership with each party having different roles;
- a degree of mutuality, that begins with the process of listening to each other and which incorporates responsive dialogue and ‘give and take’ on both sides;
- aims and goals based on a shared understanding of the educational needs of the children; and
- a commitment to joint action in which stakeholders work together (p. 4).

Regardless of which definition is used, there seems to be agreement among most scholars that the responsibility of building and maintaining a successful home-school partnership lies primarily with the teacher. Teachers have often experienced limited preparation, so many are unsure how to develop partnerships with parents (Broomhead, 2018; Epstein, 2005; Forlin & Hopewell, 2006; Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones, & Reed, 2002; Murray, Mereoiu, & Handyside, 2013; Witmer, 2005).
There is also a lack of evidence to suggest that teacher preparation programs are encouraging teachers to develop links to the home lives of immigrant Latinx students (Delpit, 1995). An essential aspect of Latinx culture is relationships and the strong sense of belonging to a group, in which there are shared obligations, responsibilities, and a sense of belonging (DeCapua et al., 2009). Teachers should be taught to build on these relationships with immigrant Latinx parents to foster ongoing two-way communication and strong partnerships. When parents are full partners, it means that their language, culture, and expectations are part of the dialogue (Nieto, 2000).

**Traditional Models of Home-School Partnerships**

Many scholars have acknowledged the importance of parents’ engagement in a child’s education and have proposed models to explain the various ways in which parents choose to partner with teachers and their motivations for doing so (Eccles & Harold, 1996; Goodall & Montgomery, 2014; Grolnick, Benjet, Kurowski, & Apostoleris, 1997; López, 2016; Smith, Connell, Wright, Sizer, & Norman, 1997). The most widely referenced models in the literature are those offered by Epstein et al. (2002) and Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997). Yamauchi, Ponte, Ratcliffe, & Traynor (2017) conducted a study to investigate the frameworks that researchers have used. Of the 153 empirical articles they reviewed from 2007 to 2011, they found that Epstein’s model was the most commonly used framework, followed by the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model. They found that other frameworks were used, but not as often.

**Epstein Model**

Epstein et al. (2002) presented a framework that is intended to guide educators in developing more comprehensive parent partnership programs. To that end, the model
presents six types of parent involvement: (a) parenting, (b) communicating, (c) volunteering, (d) learning at home, (e) decision making, and (f) collaborating with the community. Each type of involvement is laid out like a menu for practitioners, outlining sample practices (e.g., providing calendars for parents and summer learning packets, recruiting parent volunteers, and hosting workshops and trainings for parents), redefinitions for up-to-date understandings (e.g., operationally defining parent leader and community), and the expected results for both teachers and parents of each activity (e.g., awareness, skills, knowledge, and appreciation).

Epstein’s model, therefore, serves as a useful guide for teachers and school leaders in developing partnership programs. It has many positive aspects, such as recognizing the vital role parents play in providing a home environment where education is supported and encouraged. It also promotes shared decision-making and two-way communication. However, several limitations exist with this model. It does little to explain parent engagement from the parents’ perspective. The model attempts to empower parents by giving them a voice and by recognizing the contributions that they make to their children’s education, but the school is responsible for informing parents of effective strategies for home use. Parent involvement is, therefore, defined and evaluated by the school rather than by the families (Bower & Griffin, 2011).

The Epstein model favors White, middle-class norms while lessening issues of status and culture (Auerbach & Collier, 2012) and is lacking in its examination of power relationships (Yamauchi et al., 2017). Consider, for example, the assertion that schools should “encourage families to provide reactions, ideas, and preferences and to ask questions about school programs and children’s progress” (Epstein et al., 2002, p. 47).
The notion that parents should feel free to volunteer their ideas for school improvement or to ask questions of teachers is aligned with White middle-class norms and incorrectly assumes that parents of all cultural backgrounds believe that their opinions are welcome or warranted. Latinx families tend to respect the role of the teacher and are less likely to speak up, particularly when they perceive there is a problem at the school and especially when English is not their home language (Bower & Griffin, 2011). Epstein et al. (2002) concluded that schools “must solve the challenge” of communicating with families who do not speak and read English, thus portraying immigrant families as a problem in need of a solution. It also presumes that language is the only barrier to immigrant Latinx families’ participation in school and fails to recognize the influence of power and status.

A close examination of the literature reveals that while the Epstein model of parent involvement is widely referenced and often included as a conceptual framework in research articles (Abel, 2012; Kolbert, Schultz, & Crothers, 2014; Leenders, Haelermans, de Jong, & Monfrance, 2018; Pahic, Vidovic, & Miljevic-Ridicki, 2011; Smith, Wohlstetter, Kuzin, & De Pedro, 2011), little empirical evidence exists to support its assertions. While many scholars advocate for the Epstein model, few empirical studies have tested it with a general population, and even fewer have applied it to marginalized populations. Of those few, Bower & Griffin (2011) conducted a case study to test the effectiveness of the Epstein model in a high-poverty elementary school and found that it “may not fully capture how parents are or want to be involved in their children's education, indicating that new ways of working with parents in big minority, high-poverty schools are warranted” (p. 84). Ingram, Wolfe, and Liebeman (2007) used survey data from 220 parents from three Chicago public schools with high poverty and diverse
populations to conclude that the Epstein model was unable to clarify the characteristics
and impact of parent involvement for ethnically and racially diverse groups. Only two of
Epstein’s six types of involvement applied to their participants (i.e., Type I-Parenting and
Type IV-Learning at Home). Despite its limitations and the paucity of empirical research
to test it, the Epstein model continues to be one of the most widely referenced
frameworks for developing partnerships with parents.

**Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler Model**

While the Epstein model focuses on parents’ contributions to the process as
deemed appropriate by the school, Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997) presented
a model that is more helpful in understanding the perceptions and beliefs of parents. They
conceptualized five sequential levels of parent involvement in their original model and
later revised some of the constructs in the first two levels. Level 1 outlines belief systems
that influence parents’ decisions to be involved: (a) personal motivators, such as parents’
role construction and self-efficacy (Do parents believe that they should be involved? Do
parents believe that their involvement will make a difference?); (b) perceptions of
invitations (Do parents believe that the school and the child wants/needs them to be
involved?); and (c) perceived life contexts (Do parents believe they have the time,
energy, skills, and knowledge to be involved?). Level 2 describes the specific forms of
involvement (e.g., attending school events, volunteering to chaperone field trips, and
helping with homework). Level 3 addresses the mechanisms through which parent
involvement influences children’s outcomes, including encouragement, modeling,
reinforcement, and instruction. Level 4 focuses on mediating variables (i.e., the fit
between the parents’ involvement strategies, the children's developmental level, and the
school's expectations), and Level 5 is composed of student outcomes (e.g., students’ skills, knowledge, and personal efficacy) (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997; Tekin, 2011; Walker, Wilkins, Dallaire, Sandler, & Hoover-Dempsey, 2005).

The Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model of parent involvement is useful in understanding the underlying reasons parents choose to be or choose not to be involved in their children’s education by taking into account their beliefs and experiences. Although it is not referenced in the literature as often as the Epstein model, it has been used more often by researchers who attempt to shed light on the involvement practices of immigrant Latinx parents.

Jasis and Ordoñez-Jasis (2012) found that effective school-family partnerships are more likely to emerge when immigrant parents are allowed to express and act on their motivations for participating. Their findings demonstrated an increase in engagement when parents’ roles, aspirations, life experiences, and knowledge were respected and seen as valuable. Reynolds, Crea, Medina, Degnan, and McRoy (2015), who also drew from the work of Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995, 1997), found that significant differences in perspectives of parent involvement existed between parents and teachers. Whereas teachers clearly distinguished between involved and uninvolved parents based on their own experiences and perceptions, parents’ ideas of involvement extended beyond interactions with the school personnel, such as providing supervision until homework is completed, instituting and maintaining schedules such as mealtimes and bedtimes, and ensuring an on-time arrival for their children to school. These findings highlight the importance of considering how family culture, self-efficacy, and life contexts influence perceptions.
More than a few researchers have investigated the utility of the Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model for predicting parents' involvement in both general and diverse populations, and the findings are mixed (Deslandes & Bertrand, 2005; Green, Walker, Hoover-Dempsey, & Sandler, 2007; Lavenda, 2011). An example is a study conducted by Walker, Ice, Hoover-Dempsey, and Sandler (2011), which empirically tested the ability of the Hoover-Dempsey model to predict Latinx parents’ involvement in their children’s schooling using a quantitative methodology. Their results suggested that the model has some predictive power of parents’ involvement at home and school; however, several other expected variables, such as general invitations to partner and self-efficacy, did not emerge as predictors. The researchers reasoned that more culturally grounded measures are needed. Because the model is comprehensive, most empirical research, including the study mentioned above by Walker et al. (2011), has focused on specific aspects of the model, and the complete model has yet to be thoroughly tested (Tang, 2015; Yamauchi et al., 2017). In most cases, studies have focused only on the first two levels of the model; therefore, there is a need for empirical work that investigates this model in totality.

While both the Epstein and Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler models are useful for understanding the factors that motivate parents’ involvement practices, as well as how schools can more effectively initiate successful partnerships with parents, they fail to contribute significantly to our understanding of what an authentic partnership looks like when the parents come from diverse cultural backgrounds and racial/ethnic groups that have been historically marginalized and overlooked in mainstream society. Tekin (2011) agreed in his review of the literature, concluding that more in-depth discussion is needed
to understand parent involvement situated in different cultures and contexts. Critically conscious models of home-school partnerships will be discussed in the next section.

**Critically Conscious Models of Home-School Partnerships**

The expectations of home-school partnerships are often derived from a Eurocentric, middle-class ideal, positioning the cultures of poor, immigrant, and linguistically diverse families as subordinate. The involvement of bicultural parents is most often viewed through a deficit lens (Reynolds, 2007). The need for alternative paradigms for viewing parental engagement of families from diverse racial, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds is clear. According to Poza et al. (2014), “measures undertaken in the spirit of remediation and deficit perspectives offer no true potential for transformation, only paternalism and new ways for schools to charge parents with not participating” (p. 146). By challenging mainstream, middle-class portrayals of parent engagement, Osterling and Garza (2004) and Olivos (2006) offer notable contributions to the literature with models that view parental engagement of Latinx families from collaborative perspectives and with a high degree of critical consciousness.

**Garza’s Model of Latino Parent Engagement**

Inspired by Epstein’s model of parent involvement, the Garza model of Latino parent engagement identifies six different types of Latinx parent engagement opportunities that community-based organizations (CBOs) and schools can both encourage:

1. Parents as Leaders—The power is shared between the school and the parent;
2. Parents as Collaborators—The parent participates in significant decision-making;

3. Parents as Teachers—The parent is an academic partner who supports learning;

4. Parents as Supporters—The parent attends school events;

5. Parents as Parents—The parent provides social-emotional support; and

6. Parents as Contributors to School—The parent serves the school as needed (Osterling & Garza, 2004, pp. 272-273).

Osterling and Garza (2004) also analyzed case studies of Latinx CBOs that have successfully worked with U.S. public schools to partner with parents. They reasoned that Latinx CBOs are in a key position to act as a bridge between U.S. schools and Latinx families because CBOs are better equipped to overcome common barriers to parent involvement. CBOs can offer flexible hours, bilingual staff, and culturally relevant services, courses, and programs. Osterling and Garza (2004) postulate that the way to strengthen Latino parental involvement is “to develop and effectively use non-traditional outreach mechanisms that already exist in the local communities” (p. 281).

The Garza model offers a variation of Epstein’s model that more aptly depicts the various roles Latinx parents may assume in their children’s education, while also providing evidence to support the reliance of CBOs as mediating partners. Garza’s model is rarely referenced in the literature, and there is a lack of evidence to suggest that any scholars have empirically tested it. Nevertheless, it serves as a prime example of how some scholars are attempting to mediate traditional models of parent involvement with what is understood about Latinx families and their unique circumstances. Osterling and
Garza (2004) also provide a significant contribution to the literature in their findings of barriers to immigrant Latinx parent involvement in U.S. schools, which will be discussed in a later section of this chapter.

**The Transformative Education Context Model**

Olivos (2006) presented a collection of seminal ideas with his parent involvement analysis paradigm. The paradigm’s four levels are the family influence model (level one), alternative school reform model (level two), the cooperative systems model (level three), and the transformative education context model (level four). The purpose of the parent involvement analysis paradigm is to reach the fourth level of transformational education. This final level (i.e., the transformative education context model) is depicted as a process of transformation in which social literacy and critical consciousness are achieved by all the participants for the benefit of the students and the school. It is built on the belief that people can engage in actions that can transform their realities and that transformation is accomplished through “dialogue and problem-posing education that seek to name the problem, understand the conditions creating the problem, and offer alternatives and solutions to the problems” (Olivos, 2006, p. 111). Dialogue is seen as an emancipating process and as a “language of possibility,” in which parents’ involvement shifts from passive to active. This contribution to the literature suggests that parent involvement practices should move from an authoritarian model of governance to a democratic one, in which parents and teachers are seen as equal partners.

The transformative education context model is different from models previously presented in this chapter because it not only acknowledges, but also confronts issues of social, cultural, and economic factors that impact a school and its students: “The
transformative education context model addresses the issue of how knowledge is constructed and normalized based on an individual's or a group’s position in society” (Olivos, 2006, p. 111). This approach examines issues of racism, classism, and conflicting personal interests, and it acknowledges contributing sociopolitical and economic factors (p. 110). It recognizes that the process of developing home-school partnerships is mainly political. This model is noteworthy because it demonstrates that the state of parent involvement in many U.S. schools reflects larger social and political realities. In the transformative education context model, parents are not superficially connected to school culture, merely invited to collaborate, or seen as co-participants in the decision making process. Instead, at its highest level, parents exist within a cultural democracy, in which parents are action researchers, agents of transformative change in the school and community, and full partners.

The transformative education context model has not been widely tested, but one example involved a case study in a large urban school district. While Jiménez-Castellanos, Ochoa, and Olivos (2016) found that parents can be transformative change agents for their children and their schools in many ways, several challenges were encountered. This study investigated only the initial phases of the five-level process of the transformative education context model. Despite a lack of empirical testing, however, the model is frequently referenced in literature reviews by scholars in the field (Barrantes Santamaria, 2012; Machado-Casas, Andrés Cabello, Talati-Espinza, & Abdul-Razaq, 2018; Poza et al., 2014). Its appeal seems to lie in the idea that schools can serve as spaces to create advocacy and can empower parents of diverse and often marginalized backgrounds, which makes authentic home-school partnerships an attainable goal.
**Barriers to Home-School Partnerships with Immigrant Latinx Parents**

While parent engagement is one of the most significant predictors of achievement for any student regardless of race, Carpenter, Ramirez, and Severn (2006) found that it has a more significant impact on the increased achievement of Latinxs, more so than on any other racial group. A wealth of evidence exists in the literature to support the contention that parent engagement has positive, long term effects (DeCapua et al., 2009); however, immigrant Latinx parents face considerable and unique obstacles to becoming involved in traditional ways. In this section, several of these barriers will be explored.

Teachers may assume that immigrant Latinx parents are not engaged in their children’s education (Gilbert, Spears Brown, & Mistry, 2017; López, 2001; Marschall et al., 2012; Poza et al., 2014; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2008). This assumption is made because Latinx parents do not typically participate in traditional ways, such as attending parent-teacher conferences or joining parent organizations (Nieto, 2000). Teachers often report feelings of frustration and hopelessness, as they work to support a group of students who speak little English, who have substantial knowledge and skill gaps, and whose parents are frequently unavailable or unreachable. Because Latinx parents are primarily engaged in their children’s education at home and out of the school’s view (Moreno & López, 1999), “educators may erroneously assume that parents are not involved and by extension, do not care about their children’s education” (Moreno, Lewis-Menchaca, & Rodríguez, 2011, p. 25). Because much of the research in this area links failure to socioeconomic status and cultural differences, there is a tendency for teachers to assume deficits (Delpit, 1995).
One of the most frequently cited barriers to parent involvement in the traditional sense is a difficulty with language acquisition. An inability to communicate confidently with teachers and other school officials using the English language creates a substantial barrier to a partnership. While researchers and scholars often advocate for interpreters and bilingual staff in schools (DeCapua et al., 2009), schools may encounter funding issues that prevent such additions to staffing. Not only does language prevent parents and school staff from communicating essential information, but teachers often treat non-English speaking parents as if they were incompetent (Trumbull, Rothstein-Fisch, & Hernández, 2003).

Osterling and Garza (2004) offered several explanations as to why traditional efforts to involve Latinx parents have been mostly unsuccessful. In addition to language barriers, Latinx parents may feel intimidated because they perceive that U.S. school officials do not fully understand their culture. They may experience stress and anxiety about how teachers and school leaders perceive them. Parental engagement and advocacy are not only discouraged in some Latin American countries but are also considered disrespectful. While suggestions for parents to help children with homework, volunteer in school, and attend school functions might sound reasonable to most mainstream parents, immigrant Latinx parents may believe it is disrespectful to take on the role of the teacher (Freeman & Freeman, 2011; Nieto, 2000; Valdés, 1996). As a result, immigrant Latinx parents typically believe that it is the school's job to educate children with minimal interference from the family. Teachers and school leaders are viewed as authority figures; their counsel carries much higher weight than that of the parents (DeCapua et al., 2009).
This belief is in direct contrast with the dominant views of parent involvement in mainstream U.S. school culture.

Additional barriers to productive home-school partnerships for immigrant Latinx parents include feeling uncomfortable in a school setting, long work hours, an unawareness of U.S. school expectations and their right to participate in educational decisions for their children, and fear of contact with authorities if they have questionable immigration status (DeCapua et al., 2009; Gándara & Contreras, 2009). Compared to natural-born U.S. citizens, immigrant Latinx parents usually have less access to information about schooling and other social resources, and if they are unauthorized, they have even less access to social and health services (Gándara & Contreras, 2009).

While most Latinx parents are concerned about their children’s success in school, many do not have a complete understanding of how they can help their children achieve success (Freeman & Freeman, 2011). Valdés (1996) found that parents were living lives that required large amounts of energy just to survive. They had little formal schooling and few notions about what schools expected of them and their children. And yet, they valued education. The collective family wisdom had already instilled in them a sense of the importance of high school graduation. They wanted their children to have good jobs, and they wanted them to have whatever education they would need in order to get such jobs. (p. 167)

Trumbull et al. (2003) used an individualistic/collectivism framework, as well as the funds of knowledge approach (González et al., 2005), to highlight the cultural differences between U.S. schools and immigrant Latinx families. Collectivism, in which the goal is group/family interdependence, is the culture of most immigrant Latinx
families (DeCapua et al., 2009); in contrast, the dominant European-American culture is individualistic, in which independence, self-expression, and personal achievement are valued. Their findings are presented in a sociocultural context and suggest that teachers must learn to interact with families in a nonjudgmental way. According to Delpit (1995), the “narrow and essentially Eurocentric curriculum we provide for our teachers” is not adequately preparing them to teach bicultural children effectively or to partner with their immigrant parents (p. 181). U.S. teachers should understand the culture of immigrant Latinx families; otherwise, common involvement strategies will only serve to alienate marginalized parents who already feel disconnected from the school (Nieto, 2000).

There is a need to understand how teachers are and are not being prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx families. Countless researchers have pointed to the misunderstanding and mistrust that exists between U.S. educators and immigrant Latinx parents. Most U.S. teachers do not understand the different ways in which parents show concern for their children’s education (Delpit, 1995). An underlying assumption of this study is that South Carolina educators have received less racial and cultural diversity training than those in California and are, therefore, less prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. South Carolina is a mostly rural state that has deeply embedded conservative values:

There are many rural areas where a majority of the residents have had little or no experience with people from other cultures proficient in other languages. This can lead to fear and misunderstanding when immigrants begin to settle in an established and perhaps isolated community. (Peralta, 2013, p. 240)
Silence and denial in U.S. schools are prevalent. Teachers often believe or have been taught that to acknowledge a student’s color is a form of discrimination. Well-intentioned teachers fear that talking about race will only exacerbate the problem (Nieto, 1999, 2000). McIntyre (1997) found that White female student teachers were reluctant to discuss issues of race and racism because they viewed their students as victims and preferred to see themselves as their students’ protectors. Donaldson (1997) found that most White teachers claimed not to be aware of racial biases in schools or that racial biases could harm students, and Wollman-Bonilla (1998) concluded that many teachers lack the courage to present perspectives different from those of the mainstream culture. While color blindness sounds utopian, it sends a message that there is something wrong with being bicultural or that it should not be noticed (Delpit, 1995). According to Delpit (1995):

Teachers must not merely take courses that tell them how to treat their students as multicultural clients, in other words, those that tell them how to identify differences in interactional or communicative strategies and remediate appropriately. They must also learn about their brilliance the students bring with them “in their blood.” Until they appreciate the wonders of the cultures represented before them—and they cannot do that without extensive study most appropriately begun in college-level courses—they cannot appreciate the potential of those who sit before them, nor can they begin to link their students’ histories and worlds to the subject matter they present in the classroom. (p. 182)

Many teachers may perceive color blindness as being the same as nondiscriminatory, but Nieto (2000) argues that color blindness may result in “refusing to
accept differences and therefore accepting the dominant culture as the norm” (p. 138).

Considering that the populations of immigrant Latinx and EL students in K-12 schools are expected to continue increasing for decades to come, there is a need to understand better those factors which contribute to teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents, including guiding policies and laws, available resources, professional training, and teachers’ levels of self-efficacy.

**Factors that Influence Readiness to Partner with Immigrant Latinx Parents**

Issues related to immigration, such as language and culture, have been topics of discussion and debate in the U.S. for hundreds of years. President Theodore Roosevelt said in a 1919 published letter:

> We have room for but one language here, and that is the English language; for we intend to see that the crucible turns our people out as Americans, of American nationality, and not as dwellers in a polyglot boarding house; and we have room for but one soul [sic] loyalty, and that is loyalty to the American people.

(Potowski, 2010, p. 19)

More than 60 years later, President Ronald Reagan shared a similar attitude: “It is absolutely wrong and against American concept to have a bilingual education program that is now openly, admittedly dedicated to preserving their native language and never getting them adequate in English so they can go out into the job market” (Nieto, 2000, p. 192). Among other issues related to the treatment of immigrant students in U.S. schools, bilingual education has been an especially controversial topic because “it is concerned with the relative power or lack of power of various groups in our society” (p. 203).
According to Rodriguez (2018), notions of “good immigrants” have been characterized by being “assimilable and aligned with whiteness” since the late 19th century (p. 3). Irizarry and Kleyn (2011) agree: “The role of politics within the educational system is evident in … legislation aimed at limiting immigrants’ access to public services, including education, and efforts to curb the tide of immigration, especially from Latin America and the Caribbean” (p. 24).

Public opinion is substantial in shaping political attitudes, and broader societal contexts and political agendas often constrict teachers. Nieto (1999) argues that teachers are victims of policies and practices that restrict their freedom of choice, particularly in how they choose to serve students and families of diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

DeCapua et al. (2009) argue that teachers should understand the needs of their immigrant and EL students, be familiar with their students’ culture, home country, geography, and basic history of their native areas. Additionally, teachers should be trained in English as a Second Language (ESL) approaches and practices, regularly update their professional skills and knowledge, and actively encourage open communication with students’ parents/guardians. Gándara and Contreras (2009) concluded that these activities are those in which U.S. teachers feel they have the fewest skills. According to their research, schools are mostly ineffective at partnering with bicultural parents and parents whose home language is anything other than English due to a lack of training and experience. U.S teachers who are not bilingual themselves may find it challenging to involve parents who speak a language other than English (Freeman &
Freeman, 2011), and some teachers even accept the notion that differences get in the way of effective home-school partnerships (Nieto, 2000).

Teachers’ self-efficacy for partnering with immigrant Latinx parents is influenced by their preservice and in-service training. Because many teacher preparation programs “still function within a monocultural framework, … few teachers are prepared for the numerous cultures, languages, lifestyles, and values they will face in their classrooms” (Nieto, 2000, p. 101). Campano (2007) argued that professional training should support the development of teachers’ and students’ experiential knowledge. Immigrant students spend the majority of the school day with “teachers who may have the best intentions but are not adequately prepared to work with them. Teachers may not be able to teach from a culturally relevant perspective, support the native language while providing instruction in learning English or understand students’ home countries’ educational systems” (Irizarry & Kleyn, 2011, p. 11).

The findings suggest that teachers both want and need professional development to work with their ELs better. In particular, data support the need to better prepare rural teachers of ELs, as rural ELs are a fast and growing demographic group in the U.S. (Hansen-Thomas, Grosso Richins, Kakkar, & Okeyo, 2016).

**South Carolina: Law and Teacher Preparation**

Southern states are infrequently the subject of scholarly research as it pertains to home-school partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents. Many scholars are now referring to six non-traditional immigrant-receiving Southern states as the New Latino South—Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee (Rodriguez & Monreal, 2017). These Southern states have experienced fast growth rates
of the Latinx population since 2000. A lower cost of living and new job opportunities for migrant farming, construction, and service jobs now make it an appealing destination for many Latinx immigrants (p. 767). According to Irizarry and Kleyn (2011), “states that have not typically been destinations for immigrants are now faced with unprecedented increases in their percentage of immigrant children, presenting new challenges for educators in these diversifying schools across the country” (p. 9). Of the research which examines issues related to the education of ELs or family engagement of immigrant Latinx parents in the New Latino South, South Carolina is rarely mentioned (Rodriguez, 2018).

A few scholars have given attention to South Carolina’s immigration policies and laws in recent years. South Carolina is of particular interest because it is a new immigrant destination and has some of the most restrictive, anti-immigration policies in the U.S. (McCorkle & Bailey, 2016; Roth, Grace, McCool, Ma, Amageldinova, Schena, Wilborn, & Williams, 2018). A systematic policy review conducted by Rodriguez (2018) found that “South Carolina policy seeks to exclude large groups of immigrants from participating in education and society in a variety of ways” (p. 20). Rodriguez (2018) identified two major themes: (a) South Carolina policy explicitly excludes immigrants from schooling by restricting their access to educational resources (e.g., scholarships and higher education); and (b) South Carolina policy implicitly excludes immigrants from schooling by attempting to establish immigrants as undeserving of schooling resources with “constructions of ‘deserving’ immigrants such as those who assimilate into White, middle-class society versus ‘undeserving’ immigrants such as those who assimilate more slowly, not at all, or into other segments of society” (p. 10).
Rodriguez and Monreal (2017) conducted a policy analysis and came to a similar conclusion that South Carolina is proposing and enacting legislation that negatively impacts immigrants’ access to resources and opportunities for social mobility. They identified four themes: (a) proving one’s status, (b) “othering” language (i.e., constructing immigrants as outsiders, aliens, and criminal) (c) increased law enforcement, and (d) economic/security threats. They argue that South Carolina’s policy discourse (even if it is not law) creates problematic conditions for immigrant youth in the state.

Conservative Republican ideology is often associated with anti-immigration and nativist sentiments (Hopkins, 2010). Filindra, Blanding, and Coll (2011) found that there is a direct correlation between policy and political contexts and graduation rates for immigrant children. Graduation rates of immigrant students are higher in Democrat-controlled states, which can be attributed to the increased likelihood that Democrats may be more likely to invest in programs and services that benefit immigrant families and their children (p. 430). South Carolina has voted for a Republican presidential candidate in the last ten elections beginning in the early 1960s in response to civil rights legislation. There has only been one exception in 1976 when South Carolina voted for Jimmy Carter (South Carolina State Election Commission, n.d.). Since 1987, South Carolina has had only one Democratic governor, Jim Hodges, who served a four-year term (1999-2003); all other South Carolina governors have been Republican, most of which served two four-year terms (National Governors Association, 2020). (Horsford and Sampson (2013) found that South Carolina had the most substantial EL population growth between the 2000-2001 and 2010-2011 school years but that the state does not provide any state dollars to fund EL education.
Few studies have been conducted to examine South Carolina teachers’ self-efficacy for teaching in multicultural classrooms with ELs. Quach, Heining-Boynton, and Wang (2007) found that teachers who work with bicultural students and who understand their students’ languages and cultures teach them more effectively. The researchers surveyed 138 teachers from North Carolina and South Carolina and found that “superficial attempts in language study or travel experiences do not influence efficacy beliefs in teachers working with students who are culturally and linguistically diverse” (p. 15). Data revealed that teachers typically take world language courses at the high school level to meet minimal requirements for graduation and that this limited time of study is often insufficient to develop cultural responsiveness. The researchers recommended that all teachers who work with students of diverse backgrounds “develop a lifelong commitment to learning a language other than English” (p. 15). These findings suggest that institutions of higher learning should engage preservice teachers in becoming bilingual and promote travel abroad opportunities.

**California: Law and Teacher Preparation**

Countless research studies have been situated in California pertaining to the education of ELs, and many examine the state’s (a) policies and laws, (b) funding formulas and available resources, or (c) teacher preparation programs. Many studies have also focused on parental engagement of immigrant Latinx families in California school communities, but few researchers have investigated the effect that policy/law and teacher preparation have on home-school partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents in California. This study will begin to address that gap in the literature.
Many researchers have conducted studies that examine the various district policies and state laws related to ELs in California, but most focus on state testing requirements, accountability measures, and teacher licensure. Few studies make clear a direct link between policy/law and home-school partnerships, but one such study was conducted by Reyes and Domina (2019). State law requires ELs to pass the California English Language Development Test and the California Standards Test in English Language Arts to be Reclassified Fluent English Proficient (RFEP). Reyes and Domina (2019) examined the reclassification process in two California school districts and found that the law was implemented differently in each. Both districts made it more difficult for ELs to reclassify by setting higher reclassification requirements than those set by the state. Schools and districts have “an accountability-driven incentive to keep their top performing English language learners classified as EL students in order to have higher achievement scores meet Title I requirements” (p. 5). In one of the school districts, parent recommendations are weighted heavily in classification decisions. This district’s policy provides a role for parents, and parents’ opinions are highly considered in the process. The final reclassification decision is made by the parent and the school leader together. In the other school district, decisions are based on test scores exclusively without input from parents.

Jiménez-Castellanos (2010, 2011, 2013, 2016) is a leading researcher in the area of education finance, parent engagement, and equity in ethnically and linguistically diverse communities. While most of his research has been situated in Arizona, he has also conducted extensive research in California. Jiménez-Castellanos and Okhremtchouk (2013) used a case study approach to analyze the allocation and expenditure of funds in a
California school district from two categorical entitlement programs—Title III, a federal program, and Economic Impact Aid (EIA), a California state aid program. Significant findings from this study included the following: (a) the district allotted more EIA dollars per pupil for the lower grades compared to higher grades, (b) no clear guidelines existed to address how funds should be shared among the district and its schools; only half of the funds in this study was allocated to the schools, (c) funds were incorrectly used in some instances to supplant general funds, and (d) not all available funds were spent; the high school had available $238 per EL student but spent only $96. These findings reveal the need for districts and schools to improve their approach to allocating funds and providing services. One of the few effective expenditure practices found in this study was the engagement of parents in fiscal decision-making, which is a requirement of Title I.

Teacher preparedness to work with ELs in California is often an area of focus in research studies, but teachers’ sense of self-efficacy to partner with immigrant Latinx parents is seldom discussed. Johnson and Wells (2017) used California as a case study to investigate teachers’ preparedness to implement the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) in their multicultural classrooms. They found that teachers are not equipped with the skills and experiences they need to implement CCSS with their ELs successfully. Their recommendations included: (a) preservice teachers should participate in extensive and required fieldwork with ELs, (b) in-service teachers should receive comprehensive professional development connected to practice, and (c) districts should develop systematic evaluation procedures to assess the effectiveness of in-service EL teachers.

While the research findings of Johnson and Wells (2017) suggest that teachers are not adequately prepared to implement CCSS with students of diverse cultural and
linguistic backgrounds, no attention is given to teachers’ ability to foster partnerships with immigrant parents. One might assume that if teachers are ill-equipped to teach EL students, they might also be ill-equipped to develop partnerships with their parents.

Ransom and Esmail (2016) conducted a study to determine the effect Professional Learning Community (PLC) implementation over five years had on standardized test scores of 308 ELs in kindergarten through Grade 6 in Northern California elementary schools. The results demonstrated significant improvements in students’ achievement, which suggests that teachers can improve EL instruction and teacher strategies by engaging in PLCs. According to Ransom and Esmail (2016), “learning the strategies that best fit the needs of diverse students, especially [EL] students and low achievers, holds potential benefit for all students” (p. 9). Future research in this area may demonstrate a correlation between PLC implementation and increased teacher readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

Cadiero-Kaplan and Rodríguez (2008) examined the definition of a highly qualified teacher as presented at the federal level with specific regard to ELs. Then they described the legislative process that changed key authorizations for teaching ELs in California and continuing efforts to challenge mandates and policies that prevent teachers from effectively meeting the needs of ELs. This study illuminates the need to redefine the concept of a highly qualified teacher: “This redefinition of highly qualified teachers must move beyond content and incorporate process, pedagogy, and policy engagement to be educationally responsive to the needs of English language learners” (p. 385). So that they can be responsive to the needs of ELs, teachers must be equipped with the knowledge and skills needed to develop authentic partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents.
Theoretical Framework

Critical race theory, social cognitive theory, and Freeman and Freeman’s (2011) contextual interaction model are integrated to provide a basis for interpreting and understanding the relevance of the study’s findings. Social cognitive theory was used as a guiding framework in designing the study, while critical race theory and the contextual interaction model will be used as explanatory frameworks to discuss the findings.

Critical Race Theory

Critical Race Theory (CRT) was initially used to address the role of racism in American law, and it has since been applied in the field of education to address school inequities. CRT emerged in the late 1980s when scholars of the Critical Legal Studies (CLS) movement began calling into question “the role of the traditional legal system in legitimizing oppressive social structures” (Yosso, 2005, p. 71). Early CRT scholars recognized that social transformation and their ability to analyze racial injustice would not be possible without considering the lived experiences of those marginalized, silenced, and disempowered (Yosso, 2005).

Solorzano and Yosso (2001a, 2001b) described five principles of CRT originally posited by Solorzano (1997, 1998): (1) the centrality and intersectionality of race and racism, (2) the challenge to dominant ideology, (3) the commitment to social justice, (4) the centrality of experiential knowledge, and (5) the interdisciplinary perspective. More broadly, Yosso (2005) defined CRT as “a framework that can be used to theorize, examine and challenge the ways race and racism implicitly and explicitly impact on social structures, practices and discourses” (p. 70). CRT is meant to disrupt the narrative told by the dominant group, to understand the oppressive aspects that exist within society,
and to work toward the elimination of racism and all forms of subordination (Matsuda, 1991).

Since Brown v. Board of Education (1954), overt discrimination is encountered less frequently in schools; however, many scholars argue that de facto attitudes and practices of schools and teachers have maintained racial injustice and have made it common to blame students and parents for students’ lack of academic success. According to Solorzano and Yosso (2001b), teachers often use both blatant/overt and unconscious/subtle forms of racial stereotyping to blame unequal outcomes on bicultural students themselves rather than on society and its institutions. CRT scholars contend that school structures, standards, processes, and discourses are aligned with White middle- to upper-class cultures and values, which marginalize and disadvantage bicultural students (Ladson-Billings, 2006; Yosso, 2002). CRT theorists challenge all explanations for academic disparities that do not take into account racism and its harmful effects on students and their families.

Society tends to promote an idea of colorblindness, that perhaps by ignoring issues of race, discrimination will no longer exist. Stein, Wright, Gil, Miness, and Ginanto (2018), however, caution that “colorblindness is an obfuscation regarding race that aims not to seek a resolution or redress of racial conflict but to hide race from the nation’s view” (p. 107). CRT scholars reject the notion of colorblindness and, instead, seek to confront issues of race and racism directly. This framework challenges the assumption that schools are neutral systems that function in the same ways for all students (Huber, 2010). Further, Solorzano and Yosso (2001a) explained that CRT
“challenges the traditional claims the educational system and its institutions make toward objectivity, meritocracy, color-blindness, race neutrality, and equal opportunity” (p. 472).

Most often, CRT scholarship tends to articulate racism in terms of a Black/White binary (Yosso, 2005). While conversations about race and racism in the U.S. frequently focus on issues of oppression among the African American community and is a necessary and critical conversation, it leaves little space to discuss areas of concern for all populations of color (Davila & de Bradley, 2010). Therefore, CRT has expanded to address how other marginalized groups, such as women, Native Americans, Asian Americans, and Latinxs, experience, respond to, and resist racism and other forms of oppression (Yosso, 2005).

**Social Cognitive Theory**

According to Bandura’s (1989a, 1989b) social cognitive theory (SCT), learning occurs in a social context and is influenced by several factors, including other individuals and the environment. Each personal, environmental, and behavioral factor affects the other. SCT provides a useful framework for understanding how people develop, sustain, and abstain from certain behaviors.

A major element of SCT is the concept of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is the level of a person's confidence in their ability to successfully perform a behavior or to exercise control over their behavior (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy affects people’s effort, perseverance, motivation, and choices: “The strength of people’s convictions in their own effectiveness is likely to affect whether they will even try to cope with given situations” (p. 193). According to SCT, individuals assess their efficacy based on information from four primary sources: (a) performance accomplishments, (b) vicarious experience, (c)
verbal persuasions, and (d) emotional arousal, such as fear, anxiety, and stress (Bandura, 1977). Of the four sources of efficacy expectations, performance accomplishments have been studied most often, while emotional arousal has received the least attention (Morris, Usher, & Chen, 2016).

Performance accomplishments, or mastery experiences, refer to past performance attainments and serve as a powerful source of self-efficacy (Usher & Pajares, 2008). According to Morris, Usher, and Chen (2016), “People who view their past efforts as successes are more likely to approach similar tasks with confidence, whereas those who believe they have failed may doubt their capabilities.” (p. 797). A performance accomplishment may increase a person’s self-efficacy when the person believes that the accomplishment is a result of their own ability or effort. Therefore, repeated success strengthens motivation and persistence: “Successes raise mastery expectations; repeated failures lower them, particularly if the mishaps occur early in the course of events” (Bandura, 1977, p. 195). Not all successes carry the same weight. For instance, if the person required considerable assistance or substantial effort to complete the task, self-efficacy may not be as easily influenced (Morris, Usher, & Chen, 2016).

Efficacy expectations are also impacted by vicarious experience. The acknowledgment that others have performed the activity without any adverse consequences may lead to increased expectations: “If people of widely different characteristics can succeed, then observers have a reasonable basis for increasing their own sense of self-efficacy” (Bandura, 1977, p. 197). Morris, Usher, and Chen (2016) argued that vicarious experiences are more powerful when the individual perceives that the model or comparison group is similar. Vicarious experience also involves evaluating
one’s own capabilities by making comparisons to the performances of others (Morris, Usher, & Chen, 2016).

Verbal persuasions may also influence efficacy beliefs. According to Bandura (1977), “People are led, through suggestion, into believing they can cope successfully” (p. 198). The more specific and sincere the message is, the more significant effect it will have on a person’s self-efficacy (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Bandura (1977) argued that people who are persuaded that they possess the capabilities to master difficult situations will exercise greater effort, thus resulting in an increased chance of success.

Finally, individuals depend on their own physiological and affective states, or emotional arousal, when assessing their own capabilities (Bandura, 1977). The intensity of emotional states, such as fear, anxiety, and stress, may influence a person’s self-efficacy and may elicit avoidance behaviors (Bandura, 1977; Morris, Usher, & Chen, 2016). Bandura (1977) explained:

Because high arousal usually debilitates performance, individuals are more likely to expect success when they are not beset by aversive arousal than if they are tense and viscerally agitated. Fear reactions generate further fear of impending stressful situations through anticipatory self-arousal. (pp. 198-199)

The idea of self-efficacy and how it influences a person’s motivation and behavior has been widely studied for the last four decades. Previous research has suggested that teachers with a high level of self-efficacy are more likely to use effective teaching strategies, are less likely to experience burnout, are more committed to the profession, receive higher evaluations, and see an increase in their students’ achievement (Klassen & Zee, 2014; Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011; Zee & Kooman, 2016).
Deficiencies in the literature still exist. In a meta-analysis of 82 empirical studies that focused on self-efficacy in teaching, Morris, Usher, & Chen (2016) determined that few researchers have tested the independent effect of each of the four hypothesized sources of efficacy expectations and that in order to generate a more complete understanding of the sources and their influence, more research should be done that includes all four sources. Morris, Usher, & Chen (2016) also noted that it is difficult to make generalizations about the relationships between the hypothesized sources and self-efficacy when the variables have been measured inconsistently.

Despite any of its limitations, SCT and the concept of self-efficacy will be useful in understanding teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. Teachers’ self-efficacy may help to explain the behaviors they engage in or avoid, how much effort they expend, and their persistence. SCT also accounts for context and acknowledges that learning is a social process that is influenced by both internal and external stimuli (Bandura, 1977).

**Contextual Interaction Model**

Freeman and Freeman (2011) created a model to conceptualize the societal influences that have a significant effect on school success for ELs. This model considers many factors at different levels—national, state, community, family, and school—that affect the success of emergent bilinguals. They based their considerations on Gándara and Contreras’s (2009) schooling and social context models for Latinxs, Suárez-Orozco et al.’s (2008) research on immigrant students in the U.S., and Cortés’s (1986) contextual interaction model. At the heart of their conceptual model is the recognition that “school performance depends on the interaction of a number of factors both inside and outside the
school” (Freeman & Freeman, 2011, p. 40). The contextual interaction model is a useful frame for analyzing the variables which are thought to influence teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

The outer circle of the Freeman and Freeman (2011) model includes factors from national and state levels, including societal attitudes towards immigrants, mass media’s coverage of immigrant issues, and legal mandates. They argue that mass media shapes attitudes, that attitudes are reflected in legal mandates, and that legal mandates are at every level. ESSA, the U.S.’s national education law, includes the progress of ELs as a required indicator in every state's accountability plan. Because ESSA provides flexibility, however, states are free to interpret the law in relation to their state laws.

At the next level of the model, factors relating to the community and family are considered. Social and cultural capital in society, parent education, family income, family structure, and whether or not there is mobility or stability for the family are important considerations. The availability of resources in the community, including preschools, social services, recreational facilities, and health care, is also a factor from the community context that has a significant effect.

In the innermost circle of the model, factors in the school context play an essential role. Of these factors, Freeman and Freeman (2011) focus their discussion primarily on: (a) teacher readiness and (b) available resources. They argue that the importance of teacher knowledge, skills, and attitudes cannot be understated. ELs have a higher chance of success when their teachers have a background in second language acquisition and training in cross-cultural communication. Resources (e.g., facilities, curriculum,
technology, skilled teachers and school leaders, after-school programs, and transportation) are also an important factor in the school context.

The contextual interaction model will be useful in framing the focus of this research, to examine the factors within the respective geographical, cultural, and political contexts that contribute to teachers’ readiness to partner with Latinx parents in a California and a South Carolina high school. Teachers’ readiness is thought to be influenced by various societal influences and might best be explained “by taking into account multiple, competing, and changing conditions: the school’s tendency to replicate society and its inequities, cultural and language incompatibilities, the unfair and bureaucratic structures of schools, and the political relationship of particular groups to society and the schools” (Nieto, 2000, p. 245).

The interaction of pedagogical factors, sociocultural frameworks, and societal forces lead to a more comprehensive understanding of teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. According to González and Soltero (2011):

Contextual-interaction theories suggest that several factors interact to influence the academic success or failure of Latinos. This approach takes into account both the effect of school structural factors as well as external elements negatively impacting schools’ contexts and processes, such as school funding practices and educational policies. (p. 272)

Freeman and Freeman’s (2011) contextual interaction model will be useful in answering the questions under investigation by taking into account the multiple factors, from school contexts to societal elements, that influence teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.
Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a review of the literature, including an overview of the demographic changes currently taking place in the United States and accelerating in South Carolina, followed by a discussion of the incongruity between immigrant Latinx families’ aspirations and their children’s experiences and academic outcomes in U.S. schools. Wide-ranging beliefs about home-school partnerships were detailed, including commonly applied definitions, as well as an analysis of both traditional and critically conscious models of parent involvement that are frequently encountered in the literature. Common barriers to immigrant Latinx parent involvement were examined, the factors that influence teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents were reviewed, and this section concluded with a discussion of the theoretical framework that is the foundation for this study.

Chapter 3 will discuss the research design and methodology of this qualitative study. Included in the discussion are the site and participant selections, data collection methods, data analysis, the researcher’s subjectivity and positionality statements, ethical considerations, and risks and benefits. This methodology will prove compatible with the research questions listed earlier and will serve to integrate the theoretical framework with the design of the study.
CHAPTER 3:
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to examine and compare the readiness of teachers in a California high school and a South Carolina high school to partner effectively with immigrant Latinx parents. This study will investigate factors that may influence teachers’ readiness: (a) the existing laws in each state that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents and (b) teachers’ professional training and sense of self-efficacy for partnering with immigrant Latinx parents.

Introduction to Chapter

This chapter will discuss the research design and methodology of the study. Research sites and participants will be identified and will be followed by an overview of the data collection methods, data analysis methods, the researcher’s positionality and subjectivity, and trustworthiness of the data. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of ethical issues and risks and benefits for the participants.

Methodological Stance

Because the overarching goal is to answer questions about experience, meaning, and perspective, a qualitative methodology is most appropriate (Glesne, 2016; Maxwell, 2013). The intellectual goal of this research is to understand the phenomenon under study, not to measure or predict. I am interested in the personal experiences and perceptions of individual people rooted in different contexts and political climates, and
that is best understood through qualitative research. Knowledge gained from this qualitative study may reveal potential inequities, as well as inform future professional practice, educational research, and policy in the area of home-school partnerships with immigrant Latinx families. A qualitative research design is useful in that it helps to prevent inappropriate generalization, to recognize diversity among the individuals and settings under investigation, and to draw attention to the specific beliefs, actions, and events within situated contexts (Maxwell, 2013).

Within qualitative inquiry, a case study approach is useful in studying complex phenomena within their contexts. According to Glesne (2016), case study research refers to the intensive study of a case, and a case is “a bounded integrated system with working parts” (p. 289). A case study has four essential characteristics: (a) particularistic (focusing on a particular entity or unit), (b) descriptive (because the result is a rich portrait), (c) heuristic (because it leads to new understanding and meanings), and (d) inductive (because generalizations and hypotheses emerge from the data) (Nieto, 2000). A case study is an in-depth inquiry into a specific and complex phenomenon set within its real-world context: “To arrive at a sound understanding of the case, a case study should not be limited to the case in isolation but should examine the likely interaction between the case and its context” (Yin, 2013, p. 321).

According to Nieto (2000), case studies require attentiveness to individual voices, and the stories in these case studies provide valuable insights into contemporary life. The primary concern of a case study is not to generalize; instead, a case is studied in a particular context, and the goal of the researcher is to develop an adequate description, interpretation, and explanation of the case (Maxwell, 2013). The focus is on the
complexity within the case, its uniqueness, and its linkages to its social context (Glesne, 2016). Using a case study approach, this study focuses on teachers in a South Carolina and a California high school and their readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

This study will utilize the following components of a case study design (Yin, 2012):

1. The research addresses both descriptive and explanatory questions.
2. The research focuses on a phenomenon within its real-world context, using the collection of data in natural settings, as opposed to relying on derived data.
3. The research clearly defines two unique cases for in-depth study.
4. The research uses multiple sources of evidence and establishes converging lines of evidence through triangulation.

This study is unique because it uses a comparative case study design, which is more robust than a single case analysis in that the findings can be more revealing (Jiménez-Castellanos, 2010). According to Yin (2009), case studies can cover multiple cases and then draw a single set of cross-case conclusions. Using a comparative approach to study two extreme cases (Patton, 2002) will allow differences to be identified, as well as those conditions that best support home-school partnerships between teachers and immigrant Latinx parents.

**Site Selection**

Little research has been reported that examines teachers’ readiness for partnering with immigrant Latinx parents in the New Latino South. Even fewer researchers have explored this phenomenon within the context of South Carolina. This study will
contribute to the literature by not only illuminating the factors which influence teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents in an often overlooked state but also by comparing cases across geographical and political contexts—South Carolina and California.

To identify cases that illustrate teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents, a combination of sampling methods was used to select sites. According to Patton (2002), qualitative sampling approaches are not mutually exclusive, and more than one qualitative sampling strategy may be necessary. For this study, a combination or mixed purposeful sampling was used to strategically select information-rich cases worthy of in-depth study.

First, maximum variation sampling was used to select two states within the U.S. that emphasize the diversity relevant to the research questions. Maximum variation sampling is most often used when researchers seek to understand how different groups of people make sense of a particular phenomenon within different settings (Patton, 2002). California and South Carolina are geographically separated by approximately 2,500 land miles and are on opposite sides of the country. California shares a border with Mexico and has a history of being a popular settlement destination for Latin American immigrants. South Carolina is on the eastern seaboard and has only seen rapid population growth among immigrant Latinxs over the last two decades. Although there are areas in California where conservative and Republican candidates might win local elections, the state has earned a reputation as being a solidly Democratic one (McGhee & Krimm, 2012). Conversely, South Carolina has not voted for a Democratic presidential candidate in a general election since 1976, a trend that shows no signs of ending. Employing
maximum variation sampling results in two kinds of findings: (a) high-quality and detailed descriptions of each case, useful for documenting uniqueness and (b) important shared patterns that cut across cases, both of which are essential findings in qualitative inquiry (Patton, 2002).

At the next level, purposeful criterion sampling most closely resembles the method that was used for selecting a school within each state. A systematic review of all high schools in both California and South Carolina was undergone to identify two (one in each state) of similar size, organizational structure, the proportion of EL population, demographic make-up, and community’s population density (i.e., rural, suburban, or urban). National and state rankings were used to identify above-average public high schools with comparable EL populations.

McIvester High School in California and Somerset High School in South Carolina are the two schools selected and have been assigned pseudonyms to ensure anonymity. Using data collected from the California Department of Education (2018), Niche (n.d.), SC School Report Card (2019), and “Best U.S. High Schools,” (n.d.), the two schools were identified based on their similarities to each other. Total student enrollment of each school is approximately 1,250 +/- 80, and both schools are situated in a small city setting. Each school has a high percentage of minoritized enrollment (approximately 60-70%), in which the majority are Latinx students. Both schools are eligible for Title I funding based on the percentage of students living in poverty. Each school has a total EL population of approximately 27%.

McIvester High School and Somerset High School were determined to be interesting cases for further study since they are not only diverse, but they are also both
high performing. Each school boasts a graduation rate of more than 80%, and both are ranked in the top quartile of schools in their respective states. The decision to narrow the selection to above-average high schools is firmly rooted in a desire to not only illuminate differences between the two cases, but also to discover which implemented strategies have been most effective and to inform recommendations for future research and practice.

**Participant Selection**

In all, participants included two district administrators (one from each school district), two school leaders (one from each school), and 10 teachers (five from each school). Although the validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information richness of the cases selected than with sample size, sample size adequacy was subjected to peer review and consensual validation (Patton, 2002).

After obtaining IRB approval, the 14 participants were invited to participate in the study. Two versions of the invitation to participate letter were created, one for teachers, the other for school leaders and district administrators. Both letters can be found in Appendix B. The letter introduced myself and explained my connection to the University of South Carolina, described the study procedures, shared the plan to preserve participants’ confidentiality, and informed participants that their involvement is voluntary.

After inviting the high school leaders and district-level administrators to participate, a typical case sampling method was used to identify high school teachers. The purpose of typical case sampling is to illustrate what is typical to those unfamiliar
with the setting, not to make generalized statements about the experiences of all participants (Patton, 2002). Typical case sampling involves “the cooperation of key informants … who can help identify who and what are typical” (p. 236). School leaders served as the key informants for this purpose and were asked to identify teachers who matched their personal definition of typical teacher at their school.

**Somerset High School (SC) participants.** There were seven participants from Somerset High School: a district administrator (Director of Student Services), a school leader (an assistant principal), and five teachers.

**Cheryl.** Cheryl is the Director of Student Services at the Somerset District Office. She is a Black female, not of Latinx origin, and not bilingual. She has worked in the district for fourteen years, always in the Student Services Department. Cheryl does not have a teaching background, but she knows the school and its surrounding area very well. She is a graduate of Somerset High School, and she and her family continue to live and work in the Somerset community.

**Anita.** Anita is Assistant Principal at Somerset High School. She is a White female, not of Latinx origin, and not bilingual. Anita has been an educator for 26 years, 16 of which have been at Somerset High School. Before school administration, she was an English teacher. Anita grew up in Georgia, but after attending college in South Carolina, she decided to make it her home.

**Brenda.** Brenda is a veteran teacher who has taught mathematics at Somerset High School 22 years out of her 27-year career. She is a White female, not of Latinx origin, and not bilingual. As a child, she went to school in Somerset. Brenda then
attended college and began her teaching career in Texas. She has been teaching at Somerset High School ever since returning to South Carolina in 1996.

**Kevin.** Kevin is an international teacher, originally from Chile. He is Latino and fluent in both English and Spanish. He teaches English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) at Somerset High School. In Chile, Kevin taught English. He has a total of 16 years of teaching experience, and this is his second year at Somerset High School.

**Megan.** Megan is a White female, not of Latinx origin, and not bilingual. She has taught English at Somerset High School for her entire teaching career (18 years). She has lived in the community all of her life and is a 1990 graduate of Somerset High School. Currently, Megan is teaching ninth graders in English 1, which she described as her “true passion.”

**Stephanie.** Stephanie is a White female, not of Latinx origin, and not bilingual. She has taught ninth grade mathematics courses at Somerset High School for two years, and she has a total of seven years of teaching experience. She has always lived and worked in South Carolina, but this is only her second year in the Somerset community.

**Tami.** Tami is a White female, not of Latinx origin, and is bilingual. She is originally from Virginia and attended college in Tennessee. She majored in Biochemistry and minored in Spanish. After moving to South Carolina, Tami was accepted into the Program of Alternative Certification for Educators (PACE). She has taught science for a total of nine years, five of which have been at Somerset High School.

**McIvester High School (CA) participants.** There were seven participants from McIvester High School: a district administrator (Deputy Superintendent), a school leader (the principal), and five teachers.
**Jasmine.** Jasmine is a bilingual Latina, a native of California, and the daughter of first-generation Central American immigrants. She has been an educator for 16 years and has been a teacher, Title I coordinator, assistant principal, and principal. Jasmine is currently in her fourth year at the McIvester School District and is serving as the Deputy Superintendent of Instruction, Innovation, and Social Justice.

**Jackson.** Jackson is the Principal at McIvester High School. He is a White male, not of Latinx origin, and not bilingual. He has been at McIvester High School for 10 years (three as an assistant principal and seven as the principal). In total, Jackson has 27 years of experience as an educator. He has lived in California his entire life and has worked in several diverse high school settings across the state.

**Connor.** Connor is the son of a Central American immigrant to the U.S. He is a White male of Latinx origin. He does not consider himself to be truly bilingual, but he knows some Spanish. Connor graduated from the other high school in the McIvester School District, so he is familiar with the area. He majored in Plant Biology in college and decided after graduation to get his teaching certification. Connor has taught for seven years, six of those have been at McIvester High School.

**Corwin.** Corwin is originally from Colombia, but he has been in the U.S. and a resident of California for 26 years. He is a Spanish native speaker and learned English as a second language. He has been a teacher for a total of 24 years and has taught Spanish at McIvester High School for two years. Corwin described his race as American Indian or Alaska Native.
Darla. Darla is a White female, not of Latinx origin, and not bilingual. She is an English teacher at McIvester High School. She has taught for 22 years, and 20 of those have been at McIvester High School.

Liz. Liz is a White female of Latinx origin; her father was an immigrant from Colombia. She has taught English, Spanish, and English Language Development (ELD) at McIvester High School for 15 years. Liz majored in Linguistics with an emphasis in Second Language Acquisition and Development. Her Master’s degree was in Spanish; it was during this graduate program that she discovered her love of teaching. She is bilingual and learned Spanish as a second language.

Monkrun. Monkrun is a White male, not of Latinx origin. He lived in Mexico at two different times before he began teaching in the U.S.—once on his own in Mexico City, the other as a student participating in a study abroad program in the Yucatan. He has also traveled extensively all over the world. He has 25 years of teaching experience and has been teaching music part-time at McIvester for eight years. Monkrun is bilingual, but he says that he was much better with Spanish 40 years ago than he is now.

Research Questions

The study addresses the following two research questions:

1. What statutes exist in each state that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California?

2. How have teachers been prepared, and what is their level of self-efficacy regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California?
Data Collection Methods

Three data collection methods were used: (a) document analysis, (b) questionnaire, and (c) interviews. A summary of the data collection methods and their alignment to the research questions can be found in Figure 3.1. Triangulation (i.e., using different methods as a check on one another) will result in a more secure understanding of the issues under investigation and be useful in supporting a single conclusion (Maxwell, 2013). According to Maxwell (2013), this strategy will reduce the risk that the conclusions drawn from this study reflect the biases of a specific data collection method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Data Source #1</th>
<th>Data Source #2</th>
<th>Data Source #3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What statutes exist in each state that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California?</td>
<td>CODE OF LAWS</td>
<td>Participant Group: SCHOOL LEADERS &amp; DISTRICT ADMIN</td>
<td>Participant Group: TEACHERS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How have teachers been prepared, and what is their level of self-efficacy regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California?</td>
<td>Document Analysis</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.1. Alignment of data collection methods and sources to research questions.
First, a document analysis was conducted of both states’ education code of laws and was done to understand the societal and political attitudes at the state level, which help to shape local and school contexts. I attempted to discern the relationship between education and immigration in the laws and recorded the findings in a chart, and critical race theory guided this process. According to Glesne (2016), document analysis can lead to observations, questions, and a deeper understanding that would not have been reached any other way.

Second, a self-administered questionnaire with mostly open response questions was used to gain insight into teachers’ prior education and training, as well as their perceptions and sense of self-efficacy for partnering with immigrant Latinx parents. Open questions have many advantages. They allow the researcher to obtain unanticipated answers, they more closely describe the real views of the respondents, and many respondents appreciate the opportunity to answer questions in their own words (Fowler, 2014). A field pretest was conducted to find out how the instrument works under realistic conditions (pp. 105-106). The field pretest involved respondents in the field similar to the selected participants of the study (Johnson & Morgan, 2016). The respondents of the field pretest were asked whether the instructions and questions were clear, whether there were any problems in understanding what kinds of answers were expected, and whether they were able to provide answers to the questions as posed (Fowler, 2014). A few minor adjustments were made to the instrument, based on the respondents’ feedback.

Finally, in-depth interviews were conducted to investigate the two research questions. These interviews were semi-structured in that an interview protocol was used (see Appendix A) but was also adaptive and followed the lead of the participants as they
responded to the questions. SCT was used to develop the interview protocol in order to determine teachers’ self-efficacy. According to Glesne (2016), semi-structured interviews are used most often by qualitative researchers and incorporate impromptu depth-probes as needed throughout the interview sessions.

**Data Analysis**

Qualitative researchers use an inductive process of data analysis, which allows for patterns and themes to be built from the bottom up and can involve collaborating with the participants to ensure accurate meanings and perceptions. Thematic analysis was used to segregate data, and although a goal of this approach is to identify patterns in the data, this process was useful in revealing underlying complexities to explain where and why there are differences between the two cases (Glesne, 2016).

Transcribing began as soon as possible to ensure that I did not lose understanding of the data, so that I could follow up with ambiguous data promptly, and to reduce the feeling of being overwhelmed with too much data (Liamputtong, 2009). Two volunteer research assistants assisted with ensuring that transcriptions were completed quickly and accurately. I used both categorizing and connecting strategies to identify (a) what data was important and (b) the relationships that linked the data within each context (Maxwell, 2013). I then employed thematic analysis, which required the identification and analysis of “patterns of meaning” within the data. According to Liamputtong (2009), “It is also important to carry out an ongoing analysis to refine the themes so that clear definitions and names for each theme can be generated” (p. 135).
Positionality and Subjectivity Statements

Positionality

Positionality is the researcher’s “social, locational, and ideological placement relative to the research project or to other participants in it” (Hay, 2005, p. 290). Identity categories and positions affect how the participants perceive researchers. I am White, middle-class, and female, and I live and work in South Carolina. I have worked in the South Carolina public school system for 17 years as a teacher, assistant principal, principal, and now at the SCDE. I do not have strong political leanings, nor have I participated in partisan political activities, but I consider myself to be more progressive and liberal on the political spectrum than many of my peers.

Subjectivity

Subjectivity is viewed as “autobiographical, emotional states that are engaged by different research situations” (Glesne, 2016). Qualitative researchers are unable to escape themselves; their personal histories and passions will contribute to the research (p. 146). Peshkin (1988) offered a strategy to help researchers uncover and describe their own subjectivity—tracing subjective Is. This process shows points on a map of oneself, and keeping track of these subjective selves and inquiring into their origins increase awareness of one’s perspectives and how those practices might influence the research process (Glesne, 2016). Next, I will describe three of my subjective Is.

To start, the Egalitarian I relates to my belief in the principle that all people are equal and deserve equal rights and opportunities. Although I see nothing inherently wrong with this belief, I had to ensure that my sensitivity to this principle did not lead me to hear and interpret what the participants shared with me in an overly critical way. I
allowed the participants to explain whether or not inequality exists in their view of the world.

Second, the Accountability I comes from my experience in a system of high stakes accountability and evaluation. Despite my humanitarian tendencies, I also understand the role that test scores, survey results, and graduation rates all play in a school’s overall rating. During the research process, I had to suppress this Accountability I, as I assumed the role of researcher, not accountability specialist. I have become accustomed to viewing school from the perspective of both an educator and a parent. As a researcher, I attempted to see school through a completely different lens.

Finally, I had to contend with the Problem-Solver I. In my roles as educator, wife, daughter, mother, and friend, people often talk to me when they want help solving a problem. As a researcher, my role was not to give advice or to pass judgment, but rather to understand. My Problem-Solver I had to be restrained throughout the entire interview process, as my instinct was to offer a solution or to redirect participants’ thinking.

Because I have spent many years working with immigrant and non-immigrant Latinx students and their families in a school setting as both a teacher and a school leader, I bring a unique perspective to this research, as opposed to a researcher without insider knowledge. Not only have I worked with teachers for 17 years, but I was a teacher. I believe that I bring valuable experience and knowledge to this process that serves as a strength.

**Trustworthiness**

Whereas quantitative researchers often speak of validity, qualitative researchers are concerned with trustworthiness. According to Glesne (2016), “trustworthiness is
about alertness to the quality and rigor of a study, about what sorts of criteria can be used to assess how well the research was carried out” (p. 53). Memoing, triangulation, reflexive questioning, member checking, and peer review and debriefing increased the trustworthiness of this study.

**Memoing**

Memoing was a useful strategy to monitor my subjectivity throughout the research process. Whenever my feelings were evoked, I spent time reflecting on what these feelings meant, why I was having these thoughts, and how they may be interacting with the research process. This ongoing critique and critical reflection of my subjectivity helped to ensure awareness of self throughout the process. I essentially conducted two research studies at the same time: one investigating the topic of teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents and the other investigating my interactions, my thoughts and feelings, and the research process itself (Glesne, 2016).

**Triangulation**

Using multiple data-collection methods (i.e., document analysis, questionnaire, and interviews) and multiple sources (i.e., teachers, school leaders, and district administrators) helped to ensure trustworthiness. Triangulation assisted me in understanding all available perspectives and their contexts; this approach also revealed complexities and inconsistencies in the data, particularly when participants responded differently to the same question (Glesne, 2016).

**Reflexive Questioning**

Reflexive questioning was employed to monitor my subjectivities and assumptions. To assist in reflexivity, Glesne (2016) provided a list of questions that I
asked myself (e.g., “What values and experiences shape my perspectives and my research decisions?”), my research participants (e.g., “What has shaped their world views?”), and the audience (e.g., “How do they make sense of what I present to them?”). I addressed these questions in my memos. This process allowed me to make clear the connections between my belief systems and my interpretations of the data.

**Member Checking**

Member checking involves sharing interview transcripts, analytical thoughts, or drafts of the final report with research participants and obtaining their feedback and interpretations (Glesne, 2016). According to Maxwell (2013),

This is the single most important way of ruling out the possibility of misinterpreting the meaning of what participants say and do and the perspective they have on what is going on, as well as being an important way of identifying your biases and misunderstandings. (pp. 126-127)

Member checking occurred both during the interviews, as well as throughout correspondences during the months following the interviews. I allowed each participant the opportunity to review and approve their transcripts. Immediately after each interview had been transcribed, I sent the transcription to the participant. Participants were instructed to make any edits or revisions that they wished and send it back to me. Many of the participants responded that the transcript was fine as it was and made no changes. Others struck lines from the record that they later regretted or felt had not adequately conveyed their thoughts. Some participants added clarifying language or examples. This process helped to ensure that participants’ voices were recorded accurately and increased the trustworthiness of the data.
Peer Review and Debriefing

I regularly obtained external reflections and input on my progress from other Ph.D. students, family, friends, and colleagues who were able to provide invaluable assistance (Glesne, 2016). I asked them to work through portions of the data, developing and applying codes, to assist me in developing new ideas and interpretations, and to inform me of any sections that, if published, could be problematic for either personal or political reasons (p. 212).

Ethical Issues

Ethical considerations are paramount. There are three ethical issues of this study: (a) assuring subjects that participation in research is voluntary, free from coercion or undue influence; (b) having adequate procedures in place to ensure privacy and confidentiality of participants, schools, and school districts; and (c) implementing procedures for securing raw data and materials.

Marshall and Rossman (2011) cautioned that researchers should be careful not to disclose more than the participants are comfortable with. To this end, I conducted regular member checks throughout the process. I offered multiple assurances of anonymity to the participants and used pseudonyms to protect their true identities. Pseudonyms were also used for schools and school districts. The two volunteer research assistance only knew the pseudonyms of the participants. I also asked for permission to audio record the interviews, and invitation letters were provided in advance (see Appendix B). Interviews were held at the times and locations that were preferred by the participants, and I ensured that participants knew that they were free to withdraw at any time with no repercussions. Every effort was made to ensure that no participant felt obligated to participate.
Procedures were implemented to store collected data securely. Only the minimum amount of personal data necessary was collected. The notes, recordings, transcripts, and questionnaires were initially kept in a vetted and security-hardened online tool available through the University of South Carolina called OneDrive for Business. Once participants returned the amended transcripts to me, the digital recordings and my notes were destroyed.

**Risks and Benefit**

Because of the procedures and safeguards I put in place to protect my participants from hurt, harm, and danger, I foresee little associated risk with their participation. I am, however, prepared for any potential adverse reaction resulting from the publication of the findings of the study. As an employee of the SCDE and an outspoken advocate for South Carolina’s public schools, there is some modest professional risk for me to publish a report which includes findings that may not reflect well on the state of South Carolina or a particular school/district.

Nevertheless, I believe there is more benefit than risk—for the participants, myself, immigrant Latinx parents, South Carolina educators, and immigrant students. The findings of this study will provide valuable insight and a frame of reference that may ultimately improve the conditions allowing for more authentic home-school partnerships, thereby improving the academic outcomes and educational attainment of one of the fastest-growing populations in the U.S.—immigrant Latinxs.

**Chapter Summary**

In designing the research methods for this study, I utilized a qualitative approach with an explanation of the site selection, participant selection, research questions, data
collection methods, and data analysis of the research. Chapter 3 concludes with the ethical issues of the study. Chapter 4 will present the results of the study, and Chapter 5 will summarize the results and make recommendations.
CHAPTER 4:

RESULTS

This study was conducted to improve understanding of teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. Specifically, I sought to understand the extent to which context contributes to teachers’ readiness. This study attempts to add to the literature by comparing cases across geographical and political contexts.

Introduction to Chapter

This chapter presents the findings and a qualitative analysis of the data collected from a thorough review of each state’s education code of laws, as well as from interviews conducted with 10 teachers, two school leaders, and two district leaders from two above-average high schools, one in South Carolina, the other in California. Following a review of the research questions, a description of the schools and participants, and the data collection and analysis methods, the remaining chapter is organized by each research question.

Research Questions

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. What statutes exist in each state that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California?
2. How have teachers been prepared, and what is their level of self-efficacy regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California?

**Description of Schools and Participants**

This study was conducted over seven months during 2019. In the early part of October 2019, data were collected through in-person interviews at McIvester High School in California. In November 2019, data were collected through in-person interviews at Somerset High School in South Carolina. The process of transcribing began immediately after each set of interviews. I had two volunteer research assistants who assisted with the process of transcription. Careful repeated listening increased familiarity with and correctness of the data. In both instances, conversations continued with the participants by phone and through email over the next several months. Through follow-up questioning and frequent member checking, the accuracy, credibility, and validity of the interview data were improved. The schools and participants were assigned pseudonyms to protect confidentiality.

Two traditional public high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California, were the focus of this research study. Both schools have a diverse student population and have received above-average ratings through each state’s accountability system and national rankings. The two schools are also similar in size, organizational structure, the proportion of EL population, demographic make-up, and the community’s population density. These schools were chosen to minimize or mitigate extraneous discrepancies and disparities that may impact the validity of this study.
Somerset High School (SC)

Somerset High School is a well-established high school in South Carolina. Because the area is home to a thriving tourism industry, the Somerset community is a generally good cross-section mix of the population as well as a popular settlement destination for immigrants in search of viable work opportunities in the service sector. Somerset High School is one of several high schools in the district, but its large and growing Latinx population makes it uniquely relevant to this study. A district administrator, Anita, shared that Somerset:

used to be a very Black and White kind of community. Now there is a lot more variation. That whole side of the county is really growing by leaps and bounds with the number of students we serve from different areas. I mean, we’ve gotten an influx of students from Honduras, Mexico, just a lot of different places.

Somerset High School is also one of the more affluent schools in the district, but there is a widening gap between families at opposite ends of the socioeconomic spectrum, with a small, decreasing middle class. Because the high school is situated in a popular tourist locale, Somerset is affected by families moving in and out of its attendance zone, in addition to overcrowding. According to Anita, “Somerset is growing and struggling a little bit. We're productive struggling, we hope, but we're becoming acclimated to this growing population.”

Out of approximately 80 teachers employed at Somerset High School, it is estimated that six are teachers of color, and the overwhelming majority speak fluently in only one language—English.
McIvester High School (CA)

McIvester High School in California is a suburban high school, but it has many of the characteristics of an urban school, in that it has a high Latinx population, a high immigrant population, and is a Title I school. It is the oldest public high school in the county and is well-established; the community is made up of multiple generations of families who have gone through the school. According to the district administrator, Jasmine, “There’s also this unique thing about the fact that people grow up here, go to school here, they stay here, and they teach here. Every district has a little bit of that, but I think it’s a higher percentage here.”

In 2018, the people living in this county had the second-highest median household income in California, well over $100,000. The median residential property value was more than $1,000,000 (United States Census Bureau, 2018). Similar to Somerset, SC, a large income gap exists in the community. A particular area of McIvester is home to the county’s lowest-income families and provides a location where workers can live close to their places of employment. Approximately 70% of the families residing in this community are immigrant Latinxs. Because the housing in this area is no less expensive than comparable apartments elsewhere in the county, it is common to find residents sharing apartments with other families. As explained by a McIvester High School teacher, Darla:

Essentially when people who have made a lot of money in the tech industry decide they want to have families, they buy a house in McIvester with cash. It’s become that, except for a single neighborhood with a lot of pre- and post-war apartment housing … Our district serves both of those communities. So we have
very wealthy kids who are very, very, far more wealthy than is at all normal nationally, and then we have an immigrant population who are coming to us with no educational experience whatsoever and who don’t speak English.

While the majority of McIvester High School’s teaching faculty is White (estimated to be between 80% and 90%), nearly half of all teachers and staff at McIvester High School are bilingual, even though only two are native speakers. According to Jasmine, 60% of principals in the district speak Spanish, three of which are Latinx.

**Participants**

For each school, five teachers, one school leader, and one district administrator were interviewed. The total number of participants was 14. Typical case sampling was used to identify the teachers, and the school leaders were key informants who helped to identify the participating teachers (Patton, 2002). Information about the participants is listed in Table 4.1.

Only one Somerset participant was of Latinx origin; whereas, four out of the seven McIvester participants were of Latinx origin. In all, 12 out of the 14 participants identified as White. The district administrator at Somerset identified as Black, and a McIvester teacher identified as American Indian or Alaska Native. In all, there were five males and nine females who participated in this study. Two Somerset participants were bilingual; four McIvester participants were bilingual. Of the 10 teacher participants, seven earned their certification as part of the requirements for an undergraduate degree at a four-year college or university. The other three obtained certification through an alternative program after completing their undergraduate degrees. The teachers taught in the following subject areas: English, ESOL, mathematics, science, music, and Spanish.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Somerset High School (SC)</th>
<th>McIvester High School (CA)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Leaders</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Administrators</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latinx Origin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian or Alaska Native</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Pathway to Certification (Teachers)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative Pathway to Certification (Teachers)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialty Area</td>
<td>Administration - 2</td>
<td>Administration - 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English - 1</td>
<td>English - 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ESOL - 1</td>
<td>Music - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mathematics - 2</td>
<td>Science - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Science - 1</td>
<td>Spanish - 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1. Participant information.

Data Collection

Data collection methods included document analysis of each state’s education code of laws, a teacher questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews with 10 teachers, two school leaders, and two district administrators.
Document Analysis

An analysis of both states’ education code of laws was conducted to understand and illustrate the differences in political attitudes between South Carolina and California. Using the states’ official legislative websites, I conducted searches using terms such as immigrant, immigration, Hispanic, Latino, bilingual, nationality, national origin, limited English, English fluency, English proficiency, discrimination, parents, and equal opportunity. Figure 4.2 includes a sample keyword search.

![California Legislative Information]

**Figure 4.2. Sample keyword search within the California Legislature website.**

Search results were organized by state in a chart (see Figure 4.3). The chart included five categories: a) statute; b) intent, aim, or focus of the statute; c) assumed rationale; d) key quotes; and e) the relationship between education and immigration (positive/negative or inclusive/non-inclusive). This chart was adapted from work published by Rodriguez (2018) and can be viewed in its entirety in Appendix C.

I considered a specific law to be *positive* when it seemed to communicate the ideas of or was characterized by affirmation, progressiveness, or presence. For a law to
be considered *inclusive*, I considered whether it intended to ensure equitable access to resources and opportunities and to ensure that all people feel safe, respected, and valued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>California Statute</th>
<th>Intent/Aim/Focus</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Key Quotes</th>
<th>Relationship between education and immigration (positive/negative; inclusive/non-inclusive)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language of Instruction, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 30-30.5</td>
<td>Establishes English as the basic language of instruction in California, but allows bilingual instruction when it is advantageous to students and when it does not interfere with the regular instruction of all students.</td>
<td>Districts should have the flexibility to make the best decisions for all students.</td>
<td>“The governing board of a school district … may determine when and under what circumstances instruction may be given bilingually.” “It is the policy of the state to ensure the mastery of English by all pupils in the schools, provided that bilingual instruction may be offered in those situations when such instruction is educationally advantageous to the pupils.”</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.3. Sample data organization chart.**

**Questionnaire**

The 10 participating teachers were asked to complete a questionnaire before the scheduled interview. The questionnaire consisted of 22 questions designed to gather information about teachers’ preservice and in-service training, the extent to which their training had prepared them for partnering with immigrant Latinx parents, education background, work experience, other relevant experiences (e.g., travel abroad, in-depth language study), and demographics (see Appendix D). By asking teachers to complete the questionnaire in advance of the interview, it (a) allowed me to keep the interview to under 45 minutes, (b) drew my attention to areas of high interest that I wanted to follow-up on in when meeting with them in person, and (c) assisted me in developing an understanding of each participant’s unique experiences.
The questionnaire was field-tested before its use with six high school teachers not participating in the study or at either of the schools included in the study. The field test was used to check the soundness and validity of the instrument. Adjustments were made to the questionnaire based on the feedback provided and after examination of the presentation of data.

**Interviews**

Semi-structured interviews were utilized to gain insight into teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. This flexible approach allowed me to be focused and respectful of participants’ time, but also responsive to their comments and reactions. I was able to cover specific topics, but also hear the participants’ stories (Rabionet, 2011). Using existing literature and previous work as a basis, I designed interview protocols containing introductory and closing statements, questions, and follow-up probes, one for the teachers, the other for school and district leaders (see Appendix A).

Each interview lasted between 30–45 minutes, and all interviews took place at the participant’s worksite (i.e., school or district office). Most of the teacher interviews took place in a conference room, except for one teacher who preferred to meet in her classroom. With the permission of each participant, the interviews were recorded on two separate devices to ensure accuracy. In addition to the recordings, I took notes during the interviews on my laptop using a Google Form to organize their responses. Transcription began immediately following each interview.

**Data Analysis**

Strategies such as memoing, reflexive questioning, member checking, and peer review increased the trustworthiness of the data and its interpretation. Although this
study’s theoretical framework strongly guided interview questioning and the data analysis process, I remained committed to accurately representing the opinions, experiences, and perspectives of the participants. As a first step in the member checking process, the transcription was sent to each participant to review and edit. Once I received an approved transcript back from the participant, the interview recording and my notes were deleted for privacy and anonymity.

Memos also served as an essential technique during the process of data analysis. Memoing not only captured my analytic thinking about the data but also facilitated my thinking by stimulating analytic insights (Maxwell, 2013). According to Saldaña (2009), memoing “before, during, and about the entire enterprise is a question-raising, puzzle-piecing, connection-making, strategy-building, problem-solving, answer-generating, rising-above-the data heuristic” (p. 32).

The analysis process involved both categorizing and connecting strategies. First, I identified data that seemed meaningful based on my review of prior literature, the study’s theoretical framework, and my ideas of what was important, as well as attempting to capture new insights from the participants’ responses (Maxwell, 2013). Next, I used a combination of a priori coding and open coding. SCT was utilized to look for self-efficacy beliefs, and I used open coding to see what additional themes emerged from the data outside of the theoretical frameworks. This coding process involved sorting and defining the data collected from all relevant sources (e.g., interview transcripts, memos, documents, notes, and the questionnaire). The first level of categories served as “conceptual boxes for holding data” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 108). Then, substantive subcategories were inductively generated based on my growing understanding. The final
phase involved using connecting strategies to identify the relationships that link the data within each context into a coherent whole (Maxwell, 2013). The process of coding, categorizing, and theme-searching allowed me to think with my data, to reflect upon what I had learned, to make new connections, to gain new insights, and to imagine how the final write-up would appear (Glesne, 2016).

**Results**

**Research Question One**

The first research question guiding this study is: What statutes exist in each state that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California? To answer this research question, I conducted a document analysis of each state’s education code of laws. I also used responses from the school and district leaders from semi-structured interviews. Critical race theory and Freeman and Freeman’s (2011) contextual interaction model were used to guide this work and to frame an understanding of the existing opportunity gaps.

South Carolina’s education code of laws addresses very little regarding immigrant Latinx students, their parents, or the preparation and training requirements of their teachers. Of the six statutes which speak to this topic, either directly or indirectly, four may be categorized as being non-inclusive. In particular, considerable attention is given to preserving and elevating the English language. First, the laws stipulate that a language other than English may be used in South Carolina’s schools in only two instances: (a) if it is being used to make students proficient in English, or (b) if it is helping the students learn another language in addition to English. In all other instances, English is the only
language that may be used (§ 1-1-698). Second, all statewide assessments used for accountability purposes must be administered in English, regardless of the students’ English proficiency level (§ 59-18-310). Third, South Carolina colleges and universities are required to have policies designed to ensure that instructors are proficient in English. Students are to be provided with a grievance procedure when their instructor is not proficient in English (§ 59-103-160). The abovementioned statutes all encourage the use of English and prohibit the use of any other language other than the one used by the dominant group.

Although this is a comparative case study of two high schools, it also seeks to understand and illustrate how context shapes or influences teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. A difference in political attitudes can be seen through a further examination of each state’s laws regarding access to higher education. South Carolina law prohibits undocumented students (or “aliens”) from attending institutions of higher learning in South Carolina and from receiving scholarships, financial aid, grants, and resident tuition (§ 59-101-430). The eligibility for such benefits is based on the verification of lawful presence and proof of residence. Even though some students may be U.S. born citizens, they may be ineligible for state support if their parents are unable to provide proof of legal residency in South Carolina, a factor beyond the student’s control.

Cheryl, the district administrator for Somerset High School, would like for South Carolina laws to be more inclusive of all people: “I think the state has the responsibility to recognize that we are a changing state. That’s major. Some of our laws, some of our
practices have to recognize the changing face of our state and stop viewing people as second class citizens…”

Cheryl also cited South Carolina’s compulsory attendance laws as being counterproductive to promoting positive relationships between school and immigrant Latinx parents: “If you have a family that values bringing in the dollar, and whether that’s bringing in the dollar to contribute to this household or contributing to a household back home, I think our compulsory attendance laws work against that value that they have.” She explained that once students reach a certain age, some immigrant families may value their children contributing financially to the home more than they do a high school diploma. She communicated a desire not to change families’ mindset or to rearrange their priorities, but instead to help them understand that there are laws in South Carolina, such as compulsory school attendance for children aged 16 and under, that must be adhered to and that the district is responsible for enforcing. These are societal and cultural issues that appear either to be unaddressed or too casually dismissed, further diminishing the home-school partnership, particularly when considering the changing societal landscape and norms. South Carolina seems particularly slow to respond or reticent to admit these changes.

Despite its prohibition of undocumented students and the students of undocumented parents from enrolling in South Carolina’s colleges and universities, the South Carolina legislature has banned discrimination based on race, creed, color, or national origin in South Carolina’s public schools. No student can, therefore, be refused admission into or be excluded from any public school in South Carolina ($59-63-40).
work with institutions of higher learning to ensure that best practices in parental involvement are incorporated into teacher and principal preparation programs and that these practices be culturally responsive (§ 59-28-140).

Current South Carolina laws, which tend to be more non-inclusive than inclusive, subject the state to accusations that it is a “racist state” (Rodriguez & Monreal, 2017). California Attorney General Xavier Becerra has taken a stand against South Carolina by placing a ban on all state-funded or state-sponsored travel to South Carolina because of its “discriminatory” provisions in law (Daniels, 2019).

California’s education code of laws includes provisions for inclusivity, culturally relevant practices, a diversified educator workforce, and bilingual education. The California legislature allows languages other than English to be used in the public school setting and encourages their use when it is beneficial to the students and their families:

The Legislature hereby finds that when a public school … does not have in its employ one or more bilingual employees fluent in both English and the primary language of such pupils and their parents or guardians, a serious educational disadvantage results for the pupils … It is, therefore, the intent of the Legislature in enacting this article to remove some of the barriers that face pupils who, together with their parents or guardians, speak a single primary language other than English, and to provide them, through more effective communication, with the most beneficial education possible… (Cal. Ed. Code §§ 45400-45403)

(emphasis added)

Providing California students with bilingual learning opportunities, as well as access to bilingual educators, is an apparent priority. In multiple instances, the California
legislature affirms the need for teaching and administrative personnel qualified in bilingual and crosscultural skills. Districts are also required to provide bilingual and crosscultural training to existing and future educators. In addition to helping students achieve fluency in English, districts have been directed to implement programs that “provide positive reinforcement of the self-image of participating pupils, promote crosscultural understanding, and provide equal opportunity for academic achievement, including, when necessary, academic instruction through the primary language” (Cal. Ed. Code §§ 52160-52178).

Additionally, California has enacted the Access to Higher Education for Every Student Act, which affirms the ability of California’s colleges and universities to provide services, benefits, and assistance to all students, regardless of immigration status. A list of safeguards that institutions of higher education are expected to have in place include, but are not limited to: (a) refrain from disclosing personal information about students which may be incriminating, (b) advise students that an immigration officer is expected to enter or has entered the campus, (c) notify a student’s emergency contact if it is believed he/she may have been taken into custody of immigration officers, (d) refer an immigration officer to the office of the chancellor or president, and (e) maintain and make available a contact list of legal services providers who provide legal immigration representation.

California’s Access to Higher Education for Every Student Act also directs institutions of higher learning to make all reasonable efforts to assist undocumented students who have been detained or deported with retaining eligibility for financial aid, fellowship stipends, exemption from nonresident tuition fees, funding for research or
other educational projects, housing stipends or services, or other benefits he or she has been awarded or received. Colleges and universities must permit a student to be reenrolled if and when the student can return following detainment or deportation.

The findings of this document analysis support the conclusion that California and South Carolina fall on different ends of the political spectrum—California being more liberal-progressive, while South Carolina is more moderate-conservative. These varying political ideologies and beliefs, through their interconnectedness with state law, must be presumed to affect teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx families. According to Freeman and Freeman (2011), community and school contexts are influenced by many state-level factors, including attitudes toward immigrants, the mass media’s coverage of immigrant issues, and legal mandates that regulate education.

**Research Question Two**

The second research question that guided this study is: How have teachers been prepared, and what is their level of self-efficacy regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California? To answer this question, I interviewed a combined total of 10 teachers, two school leaders, and two district administrators from Somerset High School in South Carolina and McIvester High School in California. SCT provided the basis for determining self-efficacy.

**South Carolina.** I interviewed five teachers, one school leader, and one district administrator at Somerset High School in South Carolina using a semi-structured interview protocol to determine how teachers have been prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx parents and their expectations of efficacy.
**Preservice and in-service training.** Typically, South Carolina teachers earn their teacher training and certification through an undergraduate program at an accredited college or university. Aspiring educators may also enter the teaching profession by completing PACE. Interview data indicate a variance in preservice training for partnering with immigrant Latinx parents, depending on whether the training was obtained through a traditional route or the alternative certification pathway. Brenda, a teacher leader at Somerset High School, concurs: “I think it’s very inconsistent. That’s my number one word. I mean, it is so hit or miss. Big time.”

Based on the data collected during this study, traditional teacher preparation programs at the state’s institutions of higher education could be doing more to prepare future teachers for bicultural classrooms and to increase their capacity to partner with culturally and linguistically diverse parents. When asked how well traditional teacher preparation programs in South Carolina are preparing teachers to meet the challenges associated with serving a diverse student population, Stephanie responded “not at all,” and Cheryl said, “probably a negative 20%.” Cheryl questioned whether or not teachers in training are being taught to understand the impact that trauma has on a young person, such as being separated from one’s family or escaping violence. She believes that aspiring teachers should be warned against believing that every student will walk in on day one and be prepared to learn, but instead to look at everything through “a trauma-informed lens.” Anita, the school leader, shared a similar concern: “... sometimes these newcomers are coming from countries of unrest, and the kids have seen some horrible things and experienced horrible things. The empathy definitely needs to be there...”
The only Somerset High School teacher interviewed who earned teaching certification by completing the PACE program felt prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx parents effectively:

PACE did a good job, not only of explaining the importance of communicating with parents as a whole, but also providing strategies that allow us to communicate with parents for whom direct communication may be difficult. We had several seminars on ESOL as a whole, not only focused on Latinx, to help us understand what does that mean, how does that look in a classroom, how does that look communicating to families, and then what can you do to make that communication successful.

Cheryl, the district administrator, and Anita, the school leader, both discussed the challenges associated with training in-service teachers when there are multiple, competing interests, including curriculum standards and required statewide testing for accountability purposes. However, both acknowledged the need to do more to fill the void left by teachers’ preservice training. Anita felt that “a cultural study” would help to bridge the gap between the school and immigrant Latinx parents and that “every part of the faculty meeting needs to have something to help us understand our Hispanic students and the families and culture.”

All Somerset High School teachers are required to complete Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) training, which is designed to help teachers plan and deliver lessons that support the unique needs of ELs. Because the course is required for all teachers at Somerset High School, it is paid for by the school, at no cost to the teachers. Tami explained that although SIOP is primarily focused on instructional strategies that
can be used to overcome language obstacles with English Learners in the classroom, it
was also helpful in terms of improving communication with immigrant Latínx parents:
“There was a small portion on parent communication… We did talk about how to
communicate with parents, which really mimicked what I learned in PACE. It was very
spot on and parallel.”

Participants agreed that the SIOP training was helpful but that more targeted
professional development is needed, particularly in understanding Latínx culture and
learning the Spanish language. Through in-service training, teachers at Somerset High
School have increased their knowledge of instructional strategies that support ELs. Little
has been done in the area of fostering teachers’ cultural awareness, Spanish language
acquisition, and partnering with immigrant Latínx parents. Tami acknowledged, “I have
this thought that in the Latínx communities, they tend to not hold education in a high
regard. I’ve come across that somewhere, but to what extent is that a true statement? It’d
be interesting to learn about this.”

Five out of six participants felt strongly that language is a barrier and that having
the opportunity to learn Spanish would be useful. Brenda explained:

I think we need language lessons… I think language would really, really help…
when I think about what else we could do, what I would be willing to add to my
busy life, language would be helpful. And we’ve done bits and pieces of that. We
took a workshop on ‘Spanish for Educators.’ But again, that’s probably been
twelve years ago. Long time.

In summary, four out of five Somerset High School teachers received their
preservice training through traditional means while earning an undergraduate degree, and
those teachers’ level of readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents is comparatively lower than that of the one teacher who completed PACE. Somerset High School requires all teachers to complete SIOP training, which is an expectation above what is required by the district or the state. Although this is a positive step, Stephanie summed up what I heard from them all: “None of us are anywhere near where we need to be.”

**Self-efficacy.** According to Bandura (1977), expectations of personal efficacy are based on four major sources of information: (a) performance accomplishments, (b) vicarious experience, (c) verbal persuasion, and (d) emotional arousal.

**Performance accomplishments.** Four out of five teachers were able to recall instances when they had been successful in forming partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents. Megan shared that she was currently working with an immigrant Latinx parent for the benefit of one of her struggling students:

This young man is very low in both Spanish and English, and mom is concerned and is very willing to get him everything that he needs. She did come to a parent meeting… so we kind of have him in an RTI [Response to Intervention] process right now trying to figure out exactly how we can best serve him… so I felt like that was a really good, positive thing… He’s eager. He’s willing. He just doesn’t have the skills, and we’re not quite sure why… So that’s kind of where we are, and she, you know, came in and said, ‘I want all the help he can get. I want you guys to do whatever you can.’ We asked if we could test, and she said, ‘absolutely.’ So I thought that was a really, really good thing and the best thing is that she wants it for him.
Stephanie was the one exception, unable to recall a particular time when she felt successful in partnering with an immigrant Latinx parent or family: “I honestly haven’t had much interaction with a lot of parents. I’ve had a few parents come in for open house, but that’s kind of it. No big connections… the parents, you rarely see them.”

_Vicarious experience._ All five Somerset High School teachers felt that in comparison to their colleagues in other parts of the state, they were better equipped and better able to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. Because their student population has a higher percentage of English Learners than in most other areas of South Carolina, they see themselves as leaders and pioneers. When asked to imagine themselves in comparison to California educators, however, they all hypothesized that teachers in California were more advanced than they were. They reasoned that California’s educators have had more time and experience and that more California teachers are bilingual. Tami explained:

Just my initial thought is that there has been immigration in high numbers in California longer than it has been here, which probably means it might be a little bit easier. Maybe there are, on average, a higher percentage of teachers who are bilingual compared to here. Do I know if that’s a true statement? No, but I mean, if I were just thinking about it and coming up with a thought, I would think maybe it would be a little bit easier in California because it’s been done longer. It’s been more prominent in that society, in that community, those communities, a lot longer than it has been here. Time usually makes things easier and better. You learn as you go.
Verbal persuasion. None of the teachers recalled receiving positive verbal affirmations from instructors, colleagues, or administrators regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents, but Tami and Kevin noted that supporting English Learners is an expectation of their previous and current school and district administration.

Emotional arousal. The three teachers who do not speak any Spanish used the following descriptions to describe their feelings about interacting with immigrant Latinx parents: “nerve-racking,” “self-doubt,” “unsure about the language,” “fear of judgment,” “intimidated,” “nervous,” and “uncomfortable.” On the other hand, the two bilingual teachers reported positive feelings. Tami, who is bilingual, is quite comfortable: “Oh, I feel just fine with them. I have the added advantage of being quite conversive in Spanish… I have a lot of background with the language, so it probably makes me feel a little bit more comfortable.”

South Carolina emergent themes. After completing the document analysis, collecting responses through the questionnaire, and finishing the interviews, the data was coded. Inductive analysis resulted in the identification of patterns within the data. The categories and subcategories were used to identify themes.

Three themes emerged for South Carolina: (a) misunderstanding, (b) beyond Spanish 101, and (c) progress amid frustration.

Misunderstanding. The first theme that emerged was that of teachers’ deficit beliefs about immigrant Latinx parents and teachers’ lack of cultural knowledge. Teachers conveyed care and concern for the students but communicated overall low opinions of their parents, seemingly built upon a misunderstanding of the families’ background and culture. Immigrant Latinx parents were thought to be uninvolved in their
children’s schooling for lack of valuing education, inaccessible, fearful, and intimidated. The belief that immigrant Latinx parents possess an *us-versus-them* mentality also became apparent and that the teachers do not know how to convince parents otherwise. Megan illustrated this line of thinking:

It’s kind of helping us figure out a way to get them to buy in to their students’ education and realize that really we want to be a team and it’s not a ‘me against you.’ I want to partner with you to help your student be successful, and I’m not trying to catch you at anything or get anybody in trouble. This is a good thing. It’s not a bad thing when teachers try and reach out.

There was an underlying assumption that immigrant Latinx parents may not be attending school functions, answering phone calls, or responding to emails because they might have something to hide: “If they are undocumented, they don’t want to come in here because a lot of times they think of school as the government, and they don’t want to get in trouble. They don’t want to draw attention to themselves.”

Kevin recognized that this kind of deficit thinking was common among the faculty and insisted that parents “always want something better for their kids.” He felt that they, as a school, should do more to learn about the students and their families and connect with them:

They have no idea how these families are living or what their lifestyles are here in the United States. How they came, what their problems were at home… Some teachers—I mean to be honest with you—don’t get connected with kids. So that is a problem. They’re not connected with their realities. They don’t know what they
are going through… I think connection is important because once you get connected with the children, the connection with parents is easy.

From her purview at the district level, Cheryl felt that teachers who possess a strong desire to know about their students and where they come from are best at developing partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents: “If we could have the respect from our end to recognize what these families have gone through, what they have endured just to get here to try and find a piece of the American Dream, and then try to figure out how we mold our services to fit them.” Anita, the school leader, also felt that more should be done to increase the level of empathy and awareness among the faculty at Somerset High School. She would like to see teachers develop their ability to put themselves in the positions of the students and their families: “If I found myself in a Spanish speaking country, and I don’t speak Spanish, I’m going to have a hard time.”

No anti-immigrant sentiments were blatantly or overtly expressed by any of the Somerset High School educators. Perceived low levels of engagement by immigrant Latinx parents were explained with more unconscious and subtle forms of racial stereotyping, steeped in misunderstandings and a general lack of cultural understanding (Ladson-Billings, 2006; Yosso, 2002). Teachers’ traditional views of parent engagement at Somerset High School tended to be narrow and aligned with middle-class Euro-American values and ideals; teachers seemed mostly unaware that they were characterizing immigrant Latinx parents as disengaged or as not valuing education simply because they did not adhere to “the script” (López, 2001).

*Beyond Spanish 101.* All seven participants felt that language was a barrier to creating effective partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents at Somerset High School.
Five participants indicated that having a bilingual liaison helped bridge that gap, and two participants advocated for professional development in the study of Spanish language for teachers.

Brenda not only felt that language was one of the most challenging obstacles to overcome, but also usually the first: “If you phone them, and they answer in another language, the conversation stalls out right there sometimes.” She also shared that she has spent time in California, has a few educator friends there, and feels that they have an advantage by being bilingual: “My friends there can speak Spanish. And I believe in my head that that would help me, too, but I haven’t been able to swing that.”

Somerset High School employs one bilingual liaison and, according to the teachers, is a tremendous help in reaching immigrant Latinx parents. Stephanie said that the bilingual liaison is amazing but is “spread too thin.” Tami echoed: “I think we have an amazing liaison. She is awesome … the ability to communicate is 100% there … she will contact parents for you. It might take her a couple of days, but she’s doing it for the entire school.” The bilingual liaison is well-known and highly regarded in the Latinx community, and she is available to assist teachers with interpreting at meetings, translating documents, or contacting parents by phone.

While the bilingual liaison is a resource that non-Spanish speaking teachers can utilize, teachers also recognized that having someone else reporting what is being said is not the same as being able to speak directly to a parent in their first language. Tami explained:

If I can call, if I can sit down and talk to a parent directly, I will absolutely sit down and talk to a parent. I prefer to be the one to talk to the parent. I’m not as
confident in talking about education, so I usually have the liaison with us, but I think it helps build a respectful relationship between the parent and me if I can actually speak directly with them. I don’t think that using the liaison takes that away, but I do think it takes the relationship to another level if I can communicate directly with the parent.

Progress amid frustration. The participants at Somerset High School recognized the changing demographics of their school and community. They felt as if they are not keeping up with these changes, but not for a lack of trying or wanting. They recognize that language is a barrier to family engagement and believe that there is still so much they need to learn about the immigrant Latinx families they serve and their culture, but they were not resistant or averse to change. For many participants, including Brenda, their immigrant population was a source of pride: “We don’t hide our diversity. We don’t try to explain away our diversity. It’s a strength, and that’s how we see it.”

Nevertheless, their frustration was palpable—frustration that they do not know how to engage immigrant Latinx families better, that they cannot speak the language of so many of their students’ parents, that they are struggling to attract and retain a diversified workforce (e.g., teachers of color, bilingual staff). With little guidance and no more resources than what they have had in the past, Anita, the school leader, shared that they are making progress amid the frustration: “I just want to share that, like I said, we’re struggling, but we’re putting things in place... We’re on the cusp. Even though we’re struggling, we’re trying to figure it out.” Many steps have already been taken in this direction, such as hiring a bilingual liaison and requiring SIOP training of all Somerset High School teachers.
California. Using the same protocol, I interviewed five teachers, one school leader, and one district administrator at McIvester High School in CA to answer the following research question: How have teachers been prepared and what is their level of self-efficacy regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina and one in California?

Preservice and in-service training. Similar to South Carolina, California teachers may receive their preservice training and certification through a traditional four-year undergraduate program at a college or university, but there are also alternative pathways to certification. Regardless of which route was taken, McIvester High School teachers reported overall high levels of satisfaction regarding the training they received. Connor, who earned his certification through an alternative teacher preparation program, said that he was sufficiently prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx parents:

At the time, I didn’t really understand it. I felt like we should probably be getting more, what I viewed as, practical information about how to teach, but they actually spent a lot of time talking about cultural awareness and cultural sensitivity… I was kind of rolling my eyes at it at the time, but then as soon as I got into the classroom, it became evident why that was so important… I really felt that they weaved it throughout the curriculum… It didn’t seem to matter what the course title was, we were still getting that cultural component to it.

Darla, also a California native and an experienced teacher at McIvester High School, recalled that her teacher preparation program prepared her well for what was their immigrant population at the time. When she was in college more than twenty years
ago, the immigrant population consisted primarily of Salvadoran refugees and Mexicans who were literate only in Spanish.

Written communication was something that was feasible. Most of our immigrants at the time were coming having had eighth grade to high school experience, if not college experience in El Salvador or Mexico. At this point, we have a dramatically different immigrant population. It’s almost entirely now people coming from several departments in Guatemala and a very rural area of El Salvador, and their experience with education, in general, tends to be maybe third grade… Additionally, that Guatemalan population doesn’t actually speak Spanish. So they are speaking in an array of different languages that are Mayan and not necessarily written, or we don’t have access to them as written languages… A lot of training initially I had was around how you bridge those barriers through paper. I don’t know really how appropriate it is now.

An additional requirement for teachers in California is to have English Learner Authorization and Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development (CLAD) certification if they will be working with at least one English Learner. CLAD certification authorizes teachers to provide instruction for English language development and Specially Designed Academic Instruction delivered in English (SDAIE). All California teachers in grades kindergarten through grade 12 with one or more EL students in their classroom are required to have CLAD certification (Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2018). Because of the large number of English Learners in the district, a teacher must have CLAD certification to be hired at McIvester High School. According
to Jasmine, the district administrator, teachers may also acquire B-CLAD certification, which allows them to teach in bilingual classrooms.

Jasmine and the school leader, Jackson, both shared a belief that despite a focus on bicultural education in teachers’ preservice training, novice teachers are still entering the profession not as prepared as they need to be to partner with immigrant Latinx parents, but more prepared than they have been in the past. Jasmine explained, “I just don’t think any teacher is ready. I certainly wasn’t ready.”

In addition to teacher certification, CLAD certification, and training in SDAIE methodologies, the McIvester High School teachers have had opportunities to participate in other relevant, in-service professional development, such as Courageous Conversations and Capturing Kids Hearts, which the teachers described as “empathy training.” Such opportunities are optional and come with stipends. Darla noted:

I think a lot of the training and support that we’ve had recently has been focused on adaptations and methodologies that you have to use in your own instruction when you’re dealing with severely traumatized populations and transitional populations and pre-literate populations. The training has shifted away from communicating your academic needs to families, to figuring out how you’re going to hear what’s going on in these families. It’s become a much more social, emotional orientation to the family or the extended group, than it is how do I transition these academic expectations.

A challenge to planning professional development that addresses home-school partnerships with immigrant Latinx families at McIvester High School is the limited opportunities school and district leaders have to implement it. Only one day is built into
the school calendar each year for professional development. Although they can use up to 200 meeting minutes per month, Jackson feels strongly that conversations as complicated as race cannot be done in a workshop or a meeting after school. He likened conversations about race to “peeling an onion” and was insistent that he would need at least two full days free of interruption to do the topic any justice. The restriction on 200 meeting minutes and one day of professional development is clearly outlined in the Collective Bargaining Agreement between the governing board of the school district and the McIvester Federation of Teachers. The primary function of this union is to represent teachers, counselors, psychologists, nurses, and librarians in negotiating the terms of their contracts.

Jasmine agreed with Jackson that there is not enough time built into the calendar, and therefore, there is no clearly articulated district-wide strategy for professional learning at the secondary level—no structures or processes that outline how professional learning will be facilitated or sustained at McIvester High School. Jasmine shared her vision to create flexible structures within the teaching day that would provide time for teachers to participate in professional learning opportunities. Jackson maintained that if family connections were valued, the teacher contract should be structured in such a way to allow more than one day out of the school year for professional development.

*Self-efficacy.* As with the South Carolina teachers, I explored Bandura’s (1977) four sources of personal efficacy with the five California teachers.

*Performance accomplishments.* Four teachers shared instances when they felt they were successful in partnering with immigrant Latinx parents. Corwin responded, “Oh, I have tons of them!” He then told me a story about a student who was not doing well in
school and had fallen in with the “wrong group of friends.” Corwin requested a parent-teacher conference. He said, “His mom came to my classroom, and I talked to her and to the student in Spanish, of course. I showed him how hard she was working in order to provide for him, and he was not doing his part.” Corwin recalled that the mother had just come from working in the fields, still in her work clothes, and that her hands were chapped and blistered. He scolded the student in Spanish in front of the mother, and from that day forward, according to Corwin, the student showed improvement. Corwin said that the biggest hug he ever received was from that student’s mother after graduation.

Vicarious experience. All McIvester High School teachers believed that they were more effective at forming partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents than educators in other parts of California, as well as in different states, specifically South Carolina. They attributed this to their “social mission.” Darla explained:

Anyone who’s working here is working here by choice. We’re all very clear in our own minds about the scope of that mission and the difficulty of it…

Everybody’s here because they have identified for themselves that this is an issue that they think is important and that they want to be working with.

Jasmine described the McIvester High School faculty as a group of people who are “committed to equity” and that they want to “work with the Latinx community.” Even though the teaching faculty is White, she believes that “there’s just certain things that will draw people.” Jackson agreed:

I would also say there is a sensitivity to the needs of immigrant families, which is understanding the nature of families’ legal and political status in the country or access to resources and information that I would say all our staff understands.
That is clearly something that if you teach at McIvester High School, it’s different than if you teach elsewhere. I think there’s a certain level of pride in our underdog status within the community that we wear and that we celebrate.

*Verbal persuasion.* Teachers quickly recalled instances of verbal persuasion from previous instructors, colleagues, or administration. Darla indicated that the messages coming from school and district leaders regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents is that it is not only her job, but it is her “first job.”

*Emotional arousal.* Teachers reported varying states. Liz said that she enjoys meeting with immigrant Latinx parents because she feels like they are on a team together. Connor said that he feels a little nervous but that he gets over it quickly. Corwin expressed pride. Monkrun said that he feels anxious about his Spanish-speaking abilities and “first-world guilt.” Finally, Darla described an “extreme emotional response,” mostly “anger and disgust at a culture that’s choosing to treat people, a specific group of people, the way it is.”

*California emergent themes.* Two themes emerged: (a) empathy, appreciation, and sensitivity and (b) a focus on bilingualism.

*Empathy, appreciation, and sensitivity.* Each conversation was notably marked by empathy, appreciation, and sensitivity. Most of the participants shared a personal immigration story—their parents were immigrants, they are an immigrant in the U.S., or they experienced life as an immigrant in another country. Liz asked me, “So what’s a pilgrim?” She went on to explain that pilgrims came to the U.S. because they wanted a better life and for economic reasons. She said that Latinx immigrants are today’s pilgrims and reminded me that pilgrims are “cool.” She insisted, “What a crime not to see the
cool, amazing people who are coming here. They’re not lazy. They’re hard-working. They’re courageous. They have more courage than most of us ever have to have.”

Monkrun said that he feels sadness “for the task in front of the parents that they’re not managing” and that his “gratefulness sometimes feels out of step with the immensity of problems” that he detects in people who are struggling. Darla shared similar feelings:

It’s so overwhelming sometimes to be presented with people who are working so very, very hard to do what they are being told is right for their kids and are also struggling with so much sort of social animus in the world around them. So, they isolate themselves into a community where they feel safe and where they are safe. And when you’re with someone who you know had the strength and the courage and the capacity to get themselves out of a dangerous situation, through a dangerous situation and try to create a new life for themselves, you’re in the presence of someone who has strength of character and a strength of purpose that I have never had to exhibit. Right? Except everything around them is telling them that they are failing… I can’t fix that. I can choose to never perpetuate it, but I can’t fix that for them.

The McIvester High School teachers exhibited a high level of empathy and sensitivity for immigrant families. They also conveyed appreciation, admiration, and a desire for social transformation so that immigrant Latinxs could be recognized as the “pilgrims” they are. Connor ended our interview by saying that, as the son of a Central American immigrant to this country, he wished he could do more.

*Focus on bilingualism.* Not only are bilingual instruction and the growing demand for bilingual educators top priorities for California legislators as evidenced in the state’s
education code of laws, but the McIvester educators also demonstrated a focus on increasing bilingualism on their staff as well as among their student body. Four out of the seven participants at McIvester High School self-described themselves as bilingual. Although Connor does not consider himself to be truly bilingual but does know some Spanish, he feels that language is a barrier to forming deep and authentic partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents:

I understand that my Spanish is probably as bad as their English, and we’re trying. But I also feel like we’re not able to get deep enough … we can’t really get to the issues that we need to because of that language barrier. So we might be able to, on the surface, identify what the problems are and possible solutions, but it’s really hard for us to go deeper than that.

Language versatility is a highly valued characteristic at McIvester. Both Jackson, the school leader, and Jasmine, the district administrator, expressed the need for a more diversified teaching staff, both teachers of color and bilingual teachers. Jasmine explained:

You know, California has done everything to say it is an asset to be bilingual. This is a wonderful thing. They’ve put it in every document. It is in the ELA framework. It is in the ELD standards. We have the EL roadmap. So the messaging from the state is, ‘This is a good thing. We need to have bilingual programs.’ And yet, we can’t find the teachers. We don’t have enough.

Under Jasmine’s leadership, the district is moving away from transitional programs, which she says “lets you do this Spanish thing until we can get you into English.” Jasmine contends that the research does not support that approach, so she is in
the design phase of building a dual immersion program, which will offer instruction to all students in both English and Spanish: “We’re going to start at 90/10, then we’re going to 80/20, then we’re going to 70/30, and we’re finally going to get to 50/50. From fourth and fifth grade on, we are going to design the curriculum so you get 50% in English and 50% in Spanish.”

The school is beginning to make plans for developing its next generation of bilingual teaching staff. Jackson shared, “We’re actually now contemplating a grow-our-own teachers [program]. You know? How do we create career academies around education here in the high school with the goal of creating a pipeline of future teachers that will come back to our community and teach at all levels?”

**Summary of Results**

The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents in a South Carolina high school and a California high school. This study sought to understand how context influences teachers’ readiness by examining each state’s political attitudes about immigration, teachers’ preservice and in-service training, and teachers’ feelings of efficacy.

An assumption I had beginning this study was that California teachers would have a higher level of readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents and higher levels of self-efficacy than South Carolina teachers. Conversely, South Carolina teachers were assumed to be bound by more restrictive and exclusionary policies and to have had less training pertaining to home-school partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents.

To a degree, the findings of this study support those assumptions. California laws were more often characterized by affirmation and progressiveness, more focused on
ensuring equitable access to resources and opportunities, and more forcefully asserted that all people should feel safe, respected, and valued in school. California teachers’ preservice training tended to include more attention to working with ELs and engaging families from diverse backgrounds. California teachers also communicated higher feelings of self-efficacy.

However, it has been interesting to note that the strategies employed by each school were curiously similar, regardless of external factors. While all McIvester High School teachers are required to hold CLAD certification, all Somerset High School teachers must complete SIOP training. Additionally, both schools employ a full-time bilingual liaison who assists teachers with communicating with Spanish-speaking families. The difference seemed to be that the SC educators felt that they are figuring it out on their own, void of any directives or additional support given to them by the state legislature. SC teachers revealed that they held deficit beliefs about immigrant Latinx parents, but they also acknowledged that they possessed a lack of cultural knowledge and conveyed a desire to fill this gap with targeted professional development.

**Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented the findings and a qualitative analysis of the data collected. After a review of the research questions, a description of the schools and participants, and the data collection and analysis methods, the remaining chapter outlined the findings by research question. Chapter 5 will discuss how the findings of this study answer the two research questions. It will also address the implications this study has on policymakers, K-12 schools, and institutions of higher learning and will offer several recommendations for future research and practice.
CHAPTER 5:
CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the readiness of teachers to partner with immigrant Latinx parents using a qualitative, comparative case study approach. Two above-average high schools with diverse student populations—one in South Carolina, one in California—served as the individual cases for investigation of teachers’ readiness, as shaped by regional and political contexts. Data collection methods involved triangulation—document review, a questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews with teachers, school leaders, and district administrators, with a total of 14 participants. This study investigated (a) the political attitudes conveyed through each state’s education code of laws and (b) teachers’ sense of self-efficacy and perceived level of preparation that enables them to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

This study is unique in its research design and, therefore, makes a significant contribution to the literature. By using maximum variation sampling to select two states within the U.S. that emphasize the diversity relevant to the research questions, the findings contribute to a better understanding of how people make sense of a particular phenomenon within different contexts (Patton, 2002). Separated by a wide geographical space, opposing political ideologies, and vastly different approaches to educating bicultural students, South Carolina and California represent extremes on the sampling spectrum. Nevertheless, their challenges are very much the same.
While U.S. classrooms are experiencing an increase in the number of immigrant students and ELs, the teaching profession is dominated by non-Hispanic White women (Taie & Goldring, 2017). Traditional and alternative teacher preparation programs and schools are challenged to prepare teachers to work in multicultural classrooms (Marschall et al., 2012). Teachers must be able to meet the educational needs of a growing demographic segment of the U.S.—immigrant Latinxs. Furthermore, because successful home-school partnerships have been recognized as one of the most powerful influences on students’ achievement (Epstein et al., 2002; González et al., 2005; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 1997; Nieto, 2000; Olivos, Jiménez-Castellanos, & Ochoa, 2011), teachers should possess the knowledge and skills needed in order to foster relationships with their students’ families from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

Introduction to Chapter

This study was organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the study, which explained the significance of the study. A review of the literature was presented in Chapter 2, including a discussion of the study’s theoretical framework. Chapter 3 described the research design and methodological stance of the study. An analysis of the data and a summary of the findings were discussed in Chapter 4. This chapter will summarize the study and provide conclusions and recommendations not only for future research but also for policymakers and school and district leaders. References and appendices will follow Chapter 5.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to examine and compare the readiness of teachers in a South Carolina high school and a California high school to partner with immigrant
Latinx parents. This study investigated factors that are believed to influence teachers’ readiness: policy/law, professional training, and self-efficacy. Two research questions guided the study and served as a basis for the development of the interview questions.

The research questions are as follows:

1. What statutes exist in each state that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California?
2. How have teachers been prepared, and what is their level of self-efficacy regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California?

Conclusions

Research Question One

The first research question of this study was: What statutes exist in each state that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California? To answer this question, I conducted a document analysis of each state’s education code of laws and interviewed school leaders and district administrators.

Policy reflects the values and attitudes of the people creating it, and policy influences legislation that ultimately impacts students in the classroom. A critical analysis of the law, therefore, provides an opportunity to understand the beliefs held by a particular group of people, or for the purpose of this study, a particular state. This research emphasizes the critical role law plays in education; it can be used as “a tool of equity, or deemphasized, maintaining the social order that constrains opportunity”
Differences in the political ideology of South Carolina and California, through an analysis of each state’s education code of law, were striking.

**South Carolina.** Very few statutes exist in South Carolina’s education code of law that directly address immigrant Latinx students, their parents, or the preparation and training requirements of teachers serving bicultural students. During the document analysis, I identified six statutes in South Carolina’s education code of laws that spoke to this topic, directly or indirectly, at either the K-12 or post-secondary levels. Four of those six statutes may be categorized as non-inclusive.

Three South Carolina statutes intend to preserve and promote the English language, while denouncing the use of all other languages (§ 1-1-698, § 59-18-310, & § 59-101-430). Additionally, § 59-101-430 prohibits undocumented students from attending institutions of higher learning in South Carolina and from receiving scholarships, financial aid, grants, and resident tuition. This finding is significant in that Alabama and South Carolina are the only two states in the U.S. that prohibit undocumented students from enrolling in institutions of higher learning, while Arizona, Georgia, and Indiana will allow undocumented students to enroll but prohibit them from receiving in-state tuition rates (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2019).

The district administrator for Somerset High School, Cheryl, also described some South Carolina laws as “counterproductive” to promoting positive relationships between teachers and immigrant Latinx parents. She used the state’s compulsory attendance law as an example, explaining that such a requirement is in direct contrast to the goals of and the values held by some immigrant families.
I identified 15 statutes within California’s education code of laws that, either directly or indirectly, address the topic of this study. The statutes strongly reinforce inclusivity and communicate the importance of teachers using culturally relevant instructional practices, schools having a diversified teacher workforce, and students having access to bilingual programs, services, and supports. All 15 statutes may be characterized as positive or inclusive, and the entire list is included in Appendix C.

The close analysis of California statutes contributed to the identification of the two themes discussed in Chapter 4: (a) empathy, appreciation, and sensitivity and (b) a focus on bilingualism. The California legislature conveys pride in the state’s diversity and sensitivity to the needs of often marginalized groups of people. This stands in contrast to South Carolina laws, which favor middle-class Euro-American ideals and place importance on the preservation of the language and culture of the dominant group.

As an example of the two states’ differing political attitudes concerning immigration, consider the polarity of the stance taken by the states’ legislatures regarding access to higher education. While South Carolina law prohibits enrollment of undocumented students into its public colleges and universities, California’s Access to Higher Education for Every Student Act not only ensures that all students, regardless of immigration status, have full access to services, benefits, and assistance, it also directs institutions of higher learning to make all reasonable efforts to protect and assist undocumented students:

> It is imperative that California put necessary protections in place, and show it will take the necessary steps to ensure that the state’s students, faculty, staff, and the public have every opportunity to continue their education without fear or undue
risk. In doing so, California reaffirms the principles that the attainment of education for the betterment of the individual and the community is paramount, regardless of one’s immigration status. It is in the country’s best interests, as a nation of immigrants, which has benefited greatly from immigrants of all walks and backgrounds, to ensure that those who pursue educational and academic growth may further contribute to the productivity of this great state and nation.


Institutions of higher learning in California are asked to refrain from disclosing personal information about students, to advise students that an immigration officer is expected to enter or has entered the campus, to notify a student’s emergency contact if it is believed that the student may have been taken into immigration custody, to refer an immigration officer to the office of the chancellor or president, and to make available to students a current contact list of legal services providers who provide legal immigration representation. California institutions of higher learning are expected to assist undocumented students who have been detained or deported with retaining eligibility for financial aid, fellowship stipends, exemption from nonresident tuition fees, funding for research or other educational projects, housing stipends or services, or other benefits. Colleges and universities must also permit a student to reenroll if and when the student is able to return following detainment or deportation.

**Research Question Two**

The second research question that guided this study was: How have teachers been prepared, and what is their level of self-efficacy regarding partnering with immigrant Latinx parents in two select high schools, one in South Carolina, one in California? To
answer this question, I interviewed 10 teachers (five at each school), two school leaders (one at each school), and two district administrators (one for each school).

**Preparation and Training.** As it relates to developing home-school partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents, McIvester High School (California) teachers receive more preservice training than do the teachers at Somerset High School (South Carolina). In California, CLAD certification is required by law for any teacher who works with at least one EL; this certification authorizes teachers to provide instruction using SDAIE methods. As a result, McIvester High School teachers reported entering the profession with having had more instruction and a stronger background in culturally responsive pedagogy.

An unexpected finding of this study was that the three teachers (one at Somerset High School and two at McIvester High School) who pursued alternative pathways to certification reported higher levels of satisfaction regarding how they were prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx parents, than did the teachers who followed traditional routes. It was not within the scope of this study to determine if, how, or why alternative teacher certification programs are preparing future teachers to work with bicultural students and their parents better than traditional teacher preparation programs are. Therefore, this is a topic suggested for future research.

It was also noted that more McIvester High School teachers were bilingual than at Somerset High School. The teaching faculty at McIvester High School is estimated to be between 80% and 90% White, but nearly half of all teachers and staff at the school are bilingual, only two of which are native Spanish speakers. The vast majority of bilingual faculty and staff at McIvester High School learned Spanish through school as a second
language. On the contrary, the faculty and staff at Somerset High School in South Carolina is estimated to be 93% White, English-only speakers. This difference can likely be attributed to the states’ disparate laws regarding language instruction, bilingual education, and especially the use of languages other than English in school.

Concerning in-service training, a striking similarity was noted between the two cases in that finding time to devote to professional development is an obstacle for teachers, school leaders, and district administrators. The participants at Somerset High School shared that there are multiple, competing interests, including statewide testing, and that they are continually prioritizing how they spend professional development time. At McIvester High School, there is a limit to the number of days that can be spent on professional development in a school year—one full day (in addition to 200 meeting minutes a month). In both cases, schools and districts have provided and required training for their teachers, but they are challenged to find the time to train teachers the way that they would like to.

Self-efficacy. McIvester High School teachers reported higher levels of self-efficacy than did the teachers at Somerset High School. According to SCT, individuals assess their efficacy based on information from four primary sources: (a) performance accomplishments, (b) vicarious experience, (c) verbal persuasions, and (d) emotional arousal, such as fear, anxiety, and stress (Bandura, 1977).

While four out of five Somerset High School (SC) teachers had experienced past performance attainments, only one teacher attributed past success to their own ability and effort. The other three Somerset teachers believed that any success they have experienced should be credited to the bilingual liaison. Four out of five teachers at McIvester High
School (CA) had experienced past performance attainments that they attributed to their own ability and effort.

Vicarious experience involves evaluating one’s own capabilities by making comparisons to the performances of others (Morris, Usher, & Chen, 2016). Considering their ability to partner with immigrant Latinx parents, all five Somerset High School teachers considered themselves to be “as or more capable” than other South Carolina teachers, but “less capable” than California teachers. All five McIvester High School teachers believed that they were “as or more capable” than other California teachers, as well as South Carolina teachers. Participants from both high schools shared the assumption that the more time and experience people have, the more proficient they become at any given task.

With regard to the third source of efficacy expectations, none of Somerset High School teachers reported receiving verbal persuasions, while all five of McIvester High School teachers had received verbal persuasions. I believe this finding is significant and could have implications for future practice. None of the Somerset High School participants have been told that they have the necessary ability to effectively partner with immigrant Latinx parents, contrary to the five McIvester High School teachers who have all been convinced by a credible source (i.e., professor, school leader, or mentor teacher) that they are capable.

The final source of efficacy expectation is emotional arousal. Three out of five Somerset High School teachers reported general feelings of stress, anxiety, and fear when interacting with immigrant Latinx parents. Only two out of five McIvester High School teachers reported minimal feelings of anxiety relating only to oral communication, one of
which said he overcomes this feeling rather quickly. The McIvester High School teachers reported experiencing less emotional arousal than did the teachers at Somerset High School.

These findings support the conclusion that the teacher participants at McIvester High School in California possess higher levels of self-efficacy, compared to the teacher participants at Somerset High School in South Carolina. These findings also indicate a link between teachers’ training and second language acquisition to teachers’ self-efficacy for partnering with immigrant Latinx parents.

**Discussion of Theoretical Framework**

CRT, SCT, and Freeman and Freeman’s (2011) contextual interaction model were integrated to form the theoretical framework for this study. These three ideas came together to provide a basis for interpreting and understanding the relevance of the study’s findings. SCT was used as a guiding framework to develop the interview protocol and to analyze the interview data regarding self-efficacy. Critical race theory and the contextual interaction model were useful frameworks for guiding the document analysis and for providing a possible explanation for the differing levels of teacher readiness in each state.

**Critical Race Theory**

A foundational premise of CRT is that structures, processes, and discourses that are aligned with White middle-class values marginalize and disadvantage people of color and bicultural students (Ladson-Billings, 2006; Yosso, 2002). While blatant discrimination is presumed to occur infrequently in schools, many CRT scholars argue that unconscious and subtle forms of racial stereotyping are often used to place blame for
unequal outcomes on the students and families of color themselves, rather than on society and its institutions (Solorzano and Yosso, 2001b).

CRT scholars also argue that many U.S. laws and policies are biased against people of color. An analysis of South Carolina’s education code of laws revealed a congruence between policy enactment and the culture and values of the dominant group—White, middle-class. The data pointed to an effort by the state legislature to limit educational opportunities and to restrict public resources for “undeserving immigrants” (Rodriguez, 2018) and to preserve South Carolina as an English-only state through a resistance of bilingual education and services. Whether explicit or implicit, discriminatory language and actions of the state legislature disadvantage first- and second-generation immigrant students of South Carolina.

It is also important to note what is not addressed in South Carolina’s education code of laws: any discussion of the professional training or certification requirements for teachers of bicultural/EL students or the rights of immigrant/non-English speaking parents. In light of changing demographics, the South Carolina legislature is urged to recognize this shift and to take action that will ensure students and families from all cultural and linguistic backgrounds are provided with equitable services, supports, and opportunities.

While no anti-immigrant or racist sentiments were overtly expressed by any of the Somerset High School educators, their beliefs about immigrant Latinx parents were generally skewed, stemming from misunderstanding and a lack of cultural knowledge—something they acknowledged themselves as a problem and expressed a desire to improve. There were also hints of color blindness in some of the Somerset High School
participants’ comments, which indicated an inability to or a failure to recognize differences (e.g., “They’re still part of our society and everything. I mean, we all consider us equal.”). While such statements sound utopian and non-discriminatory on the surface, CRT scholarship argues that color blindness is rooted in a lack of racial awareness and disregards how society has maintained the interests of the White population throughout history and still today. The participants at Somerset High School acknowledged that the faculty, as a whole, possessed a cultural knowledge gap and that they lacked significant experience educating bicultural children and partnering with their parents. Every Somerset High School participant indicated a need and a desire for more professional development. Megan concluded, “I really think we probably have a lot to learn from those folks in California.”

**Social Cognitive Theory**

Self-efficacy is a major construct of SCT, and it describes a person's confidence in their capability to perform a behavior successfully or to exercise control over their behavior. Self-efficacy affects people’s effort, perseverance, motivation, and choices. People who believe they are capable of mastering difficult situations will exercise greater effort and are, therefore, more likely to experience success. According to SCT, individuals assess their efficacy based on information from four primary sources: (a) performance accomplishments, (b) vicarious experience, (c) verbal persuasions, and (d) emotional arousal (Bandura, 1977).

The teacher participants at McIvester High School (CA) communicated higher levels of teacher self-efficacy overall. In terms of the four sources of efficacy expectation, a striking difference was noted for verbal persuasions. According to Arslan
(2019), when people are convinced by someone credible that they have the necessary ability to overcome situations, their self-efficacy strengthens. If prospective teachers’ classmates, family, lecturer, or mentor teacher tell a student that they will be a good teacher in the future, their teaching self-efficacy and attitude towards teaching will likely increase, while a lack of recognition may diminish teachers’ sense of self-efficacy (p. 93). Each teacher participant from McIvester High School (California) said that they had received verbal persuasions (e.g., positive feedback or encouragement) relating to partnering with immigrant Latinx parents. In contrast, none of the teacher participants from Somerset High School (South Carolina) reported receiving verbal persuasions.

**Contextual Interaction Model**

Freeman and Freeman’s (2011) contextual interaction model conceptualizes the societal influences that have a significant effect on school success for ELs. The model recognizes the interconnectedness of many factors at various levels of society and provides a useful frame for this study. A comparative case study research design was implemented to examine how context influences teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

The contextual interaction model illustrates the relationship among factors that are present in three different contexts: (a) school, (b) community and family, and (c) national and state. Freeman and Freeman (2011) theorize that the interaction of factors at all three levels, both inside and outside of the school, influence student outcomes. The outer circle of the model includes factors within the national and state context. The next circle, moving inwards, includes community and family factors, and the innermost circle of the model includes factors within the school context.
A defining premise of the contextual interaction model is that schools do not exist in a vacuum or a state of isolation from outside influences. Instead, they are shaped by broader contexts, in which policy and legal mandates help to regulate education. According to Freeman and Freeman (2011), law often reflects attitudes, rather than best practices supported by research. Law influences schools, students, families, and communities; teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx families also “results from complex interactions of dynamic contexts” (Freeman & Freeman, 2011, p. 46). The contextual interaction model posits that societal contexts are constantly changing and interacting with educational contexts at various levels. The findings of this study suggest that no single factor can explain teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents; instead, context matters. Legal mandates, political attitudes, and policy likely account for the differences between the two cases of this study.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

The three teacher participants who pursued alternative pathways to certification felt that they were well prepared to teach in multicultural classrooms, unlike most of the teachers who completed their certification requirements as part of a traditional degree program. Because of the methodological stance of this study, its limited generalizability, and the small sample size, I am unable to postulate if, how, or why alternative teacher certification programs are preparing future teachers to work with bicultural students and their parents better than traditional teacher preparation programs are. Future research should investigate the comparability between traditional and alternative teacher certification programs as it relates to preparing aspiring educators to teach bicultural children and to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.
Future research should examine the relationship between politics/law and resource allocation, as it pertains to the education of ELs and immigrant students, in a school system within the New Latino South. According to Okhremtchouk (2017), political dynamics directly influence the allocation of supplemental resources, often resulting in a top-down approach that prioritizes school district or institutional needs over student needs for which the supplemental funds were originally intended. Low tax bases, inequitable school funding formulas, and laws that restrict how funds may be spent negatively impact schools with higher numbers of ELs. Jiménez-Castellanos and Okhremtchouk (2013) argued that “more attention should be given to monitoring policies at the state level, allocation policies at the district level, and policies on the use of these funds at the school level to address the needs of English language learners” (p. 32).

Finally, future research should study the impact leadership has on a school that is both high-performing and diverse, as is the case at Somerset High School and McIvester High School. I found it commendable that the administration at Somerset High School (South Carolina), by their own volition and with what little funding they have, are already instituting many of the same strategies employed (and in some instances required by state law) at McIvester High School (California). A case study that looks deeply at the values held by, the practices of, and the decision-making processes used by school leaders like the ones at Somerset High School may offer valuable insights for other school leaders who, within broader societal and political contexts that may not place a high value on the contributions of immigrant families, must be adaptive, resourceful, and innovative in order to meet the needs of their students.
Recommendations for Practice

This research adds to a growing body of literature that supports bilingual instructional programs in K-12 education. Based on this study’s findings, being bilingual in English and Spanish is believed to increase teachers’ self-efficacy and their readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. In order to create the next generation of teachers who are fluent in both English and Spanish, immersive language study should begin as early as possible in a student’s educational career. Perfunctory attempts at language study have not been shown to influence efficacy beliefs in teachers; therefore, it is recommended that K-12 schools begin instilling a lifelong commitment to learning a language other than English at an early age and that institutions of higher learning continue to engage preservice teachers in becoming bilingual (Quach, Heining-Boynton, & Wang, 2007). For South Carolina, this would require a change in state law. South Carolina lawmakers are, therefore, urged to end the era of English-only instruction and to expand opportunities for bilingual education in South Carolina’s schools. Expanding access to bilingual programs and services in K-12 education would be among the highest recommendations resulting from this study.

Second, institutions of higher learning and teacher preparation programs should make discussions of race and culture a core component to the preparation of aspiring teachers across the board. While select faculty have likely made great strides, a shared commitment must be more widely spread among all teaching faculty, all courses, and all institutions of higher learning. Teacher candidates should understand the complex dynamics of a multicultural classroom and be attuned to how they can create inclusive learning environments. Teachers should be aware of and sensitive to the unique
challenges and opportunities that exist when educating bicultural students and partnering with their parents. Teachers also need to be able to recognize institutional racism and to take appropriate actions to mitigate or eliminate instances of it. The U.S. needs empathetic teachers who respect differences and can understand their students and families. Raising awareness and engendering empathy in the teaching workforce are central to the eradication of injustice and oppression in U.S. schools. Such a feat cannot be accomplished through a single stand-alone course; it must be interwoven throughout a candidate’s entire preparation program.

Finally, school leaders and district administrators must adopt a model of parent and family engagement that is critically conscious. Although a step in the right direction, hiring a bilingual liaison is simply not enough. While it may, in the short term, open up the lines of communication between English-speaking teachers and Spanish-speaking parents on an as-needed basis, it does little to cultivate empathy, increase cultural knowledge, or nurture authentic home-school partnerships. Rather than implementing isolated strategies and disconnected initiatives, school leaders must educate themselves and their teachers on the broader definition of engagement and how partnerships can work with parents from all backgrounds. Despite time constraints and competing priorities, school leaders must make race and culture a part of the larger conversation in their schools. Sufficient time should be devoted to researching, designing, implementing, and evaluating a model of family and parent engagement that does not impose a script for parents to adhere to based on White, middle-class values and ideals (López, 2001).
Summary and Conclusion

This study examined the readiness of teachers to partner with immigrant Latinx parents in a California high school and a South Carolina high school. This study investigated (a) the political attitudes conveyed through each state’s education code of laws and (b) teachers’ sense of self-efficacy (perception of capability) and level of preparation (knowledge of best practices and acquisition of related skills) to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. A comparative case study research design was used to identify the specific laws and practices that contribute to different levels of readiness of California and South Carolina teachers to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. This work provided recommendations for lawmakers, institutions of higher learning, and school and district leaders to enhance the readiness of teachers to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

This study has both expanded and complicated my understandings of teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents. My hope is that these findings will help to enlighten others who also recognize the need to be more inclusive and culturally responsive as U.S. schools become increasingly multicultural.
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APPENDIX A:

INTERVIEW PROTOCOLS

Form A: Teachers

Script Prior to Interview

I’d like to thank you for participating in the interview aspect of my study. My research seeks to understand how teachers have been prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx families and their feelings of self-efficacy. Our interview today should last about 30 minutes, but certainly no longer than 45 minutes. I’d now like to review a few important points relating to your participation in the study:

- You are under no obligation to participate, and there will be no negative consequences if you decide to withdraw from the study at a later date.
- You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer.
- Participation is confidential. To ensure confidentiality, you will be asked to provide a pseudonym for yourself. I may also provide one for you, if you wish. Which would you prefer?
- The notes, recording, and transcript of this interview will be kept in a vetted and security hardened online tool available through the University of South Carolina.
- After the interview, you will have the opportunity to review and edit the transcript (or notes). Once the amended transcript is returned to me, the digital recording and my notes will be destroyed.
• The results of the study may be published or presented at professional meetings, but your identity and the school’s identity will never be revealed.

• Are you ok with me recording our conversation today?  ___Yes ___No

**If yes:** Thank you. Please let me know if at any point you want me to turn the recorder or keep something you said off the record.

**If no:** Thank you for letting me know. I will only take notes of our conversation.

Before we begin the interview, do you have any questions? [Discuss questions] If questions arise during this interview, please feel free to ask them at any time.

**Interview Questions and Probes**

1. Considering all the factors that contribute to student success, where do you rank parent engagement?
   a. Why is that?

2. When you think about partnering with immigrant Latinx parents, what barriers or obstacles come to mind?
   a. Why do you think that is?

3. When it comes to partnering with immigrant Latinx parents, overall, how well do you feel your teacher preparation program prepared you?
   a. Specifically, what did it do well? or
   b. Specifically, what do you feel was missing?

4. Which classes or experiences during your teacher preparation program prepared you the most for partnering with immigrant Latinx parents?
   a. How so? or
   b. Why not?
5. When you were in your teacher preparation program, did your instructors or mentor teachers, at any time, ever tell you what to expect with regard to partnering with immigrant Latinx parents?
   a. Did they ever say convey a belief in your capabilities to effectively partner with immigrant Latinx parents?
   b. If so, what did they tell you? And to what extent have you found it to be true?

6. As a teacher at Somerset/McIvester High School, what kinds of training or professional development have you had that has helped you to better partner with immigrant Latinx parents?
   a. What has been good about it?
   b. What has been missing?

7. What kind of training or professional development do you want that you think would be helpful?
   a. How do you think that would help you?

8. Can you recall a particular time when you felt successful in partnering with immigrant Latinx parents?
   a. What made it a successful experience?
   b. How did your interaction with the parent(s) benefit the student?

9. Can you recall a time when you felt unprepared or otherwise unable to partner with immigrant Latinx parents?
   a. Why not?
   b. Why do you think that was?
c. What could have changed the outcome?

d. How did the student fare in your class?

10. In general, how well are other teachers in your school able to partner with immigrant Latinx parents?

   a. Why do you think they are able to do this? or

   b. What prevents them from being able to do this?

11. Do you imagine that teachers in other parts of the state are better able or less able to partner with immigrant Latinx parents than the teachers here at Somerset/McIvester High School?

   a. How do you imagine your school’s teachers compare to teachers across the U.S., in California/South Carolina?

   b. Explain why you think that.

12. What messages have you received from your school and district leadership about the importance of partnering with immigrant Latinx parents or your ability to do so?

13. When you think about partnering with immigrant Latinx parents, how do you feel?

   a. Do you have any emotional/physiological reactions when you are meeting with or talking to them?

   b. If so, what are they?

   c. Why do you think this is?

14. Before we conclude this interview, is there anything else you’d like to share that we have not yet had a chance to discuss?
Form B: School Leaders and District Administrators

Script Prior to Interview

I’d like to thank you for participating in the interview aspect of my study. My research seeks to understand how teachers have been prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx families and their feelings of self-efficacy, as well as what statutes exist that influence the context in which home-school partnerships take place with immigrant Latinx parents. Our interview today should last about 30 minutes, but certainly no longer than 45 minutes. I’d now like to review a few important points relating to your participation in the study:

- You are under no obligation to participate, and there will be no negative consequences if you decide to withdraw from the study at a later date.
- You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer.
- Participation is confidential. To ensure confidentiality, you will be asked to provide a pseudonym for yourself. I may also provide one for you, if you wish. Which would you prefer?
- The notes, recording, and transcript of this interview will be kept in a vetted and security hardened online tool available through the University of South Carolina.
- After the interview, you will have the opportunity to review and edit the transcript (or notes). Once the amended transcript is returned to me, the digital recording and my notes will be destroyed.
- The results of the study may be published or presented at professional meetings, but your identity and the school’s identity will never be revealed.
- Are you ok with me recording our conversation today?  ____Yes  ____No
If yes: Thank you. Please let me know if at any point you want me to turn the recorder or keep something you said off the record.

If no: Thank you for letting me know. I will only take notes of our conversation.

Before we begin the interview, do you have any questions? [Discuss questions] If questions arise during this interview, please feel free to ask them at any time.

**Interview Questions and Probes**

1. Including this year, how many years have you worked in this school/district?
2. How many years have you worked in this particular role?
3. How would you describe Somerset/McIvester High School? The students? The faculty? The community?
4. Approximately what percentage of the teaching faculty are people of color?
5. Approximately what percentage of the teaching faculty speak Spanish?
6. In all the factors that impact student achievement, where do you rank parent engagement?
   a. Why is that?
7. What is your overall assessment of teachers’ ability to partner with immigrant Latinx parents at Somerset/McIvester High School?
   a. How do you make sense of that?
8. When you think of those teachers who are best at developing partnerships with immigrant Latinx parents, what is it that they have that other teachers may not?
   a. What allows them to be successful in this area?
9. To what degree have you found teachers to be ready and prepared to partner with immigrant Latinx parents upon entering the profession?
a. Please explain.

10. What, if anything, do you think is missing from teachers' preservice training?
   a. Would could colleges/universities do differently to better prepare teachers?

11. What professional development opportunities are there for teachers at Somerset/McIvester High School to help them more effectively partner with immigrant Latinx parents?
   a. Who planned it?
   b. Who paid for it?

12. Is there a need for more/different professional development to help teachers partner with immigrant Latinx parents?
   a. Why? or Why not?

13. What state laws currently exist that either allow for or inhibit the development of strong home-school partnerships between immigrant Latinx parents and teachers?
   a. Are there any constraints imposed by state law that you wish were not there?

14. What responsibility does the state have?

15. If you could propose a new state legislation that would improve home-school partnerships between immigrant Latinx parents and teachers, what would it be?
   a. How would that make a difference?

16. Before we conclude this interview, is there anything else you’d like to share that we have not yet had a chance to discuss?
APPENDIX B:
INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE LETTERS

Form A: Teachers

November 12, 2019

Dear ________________.

My name is Sarah Longshore. I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policies at the University of South Carolina. I am conducting a research study as part of the requirements for a PhD in Educational Administration, and I would like to invite you to participate.

I am studying teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents in both a South Carolina high school and a California high school. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to respond to a questionnaire and to meet with me for a one-on-one interview.

You are under no obligation to participate, and there will be no negative consequences if you decide to withdraw from the study at a later date. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer. The questionnaire will be self-administered online and should take approximately 3-6 minutes to complete. The interview will take place at a mutually agreed upon time and place and will take 30-45 minutes.
With your permission, the interview will be digitally recorded so that I can accurately transcribe what is discussed. If you prefer, I will take notes. Once completed, you will receive a copy of the transcript (or notes) to review and edit. Once the amended transcript is returned to me, the digital recording and my notes will be destroyed.

Participation is confidential. To ensure confidentiality, you will be asked to provide a pseudonym for yourself. If you prefer, I can provide one for you. Schools and districts will also be assigned pseudonyms. The notes, recording, transcript, and questionnaire will be kept in a vetted and security hardened online tool available through the University of South Carolina called OneDrive for Business. The results of the study may be published or presented at professional meetings, but your identity will never be revealed.

We will be happy to answer any questions you have about the study. You may contact me at (803) 960-xxxx or colemasa@mailbox.sc.edu or my faculty advisor, Dr. Ed Cox at (803) 777-3089 or coxep@mailbox.sc.edu. You may also contact the University of South Carolina’s Office of Research Compliance at (803) 777-6670 if you have any questions about your rights as a research subject.

Thank you for your consideration.

Kind regards,

Sarah Longshore
Form B: School Leaders and District Administrators

September 30, 2019

Dear ________________.

My name is Sarah Longshore. I am a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policies at the University of South Carolina. I am conducting a research study as part of the requirements for a PhD in Educational Administration, and I would like to invite you to participate.

I am studying teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents in both a South Carolina high school and a California high school. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to meet with me for a one-on-one interview.

You are under no obligation to participate, and there will be no negative consequences if you decide to withdraw from the study at a later date. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer. The interview will take place at a mutually agreed upon time and place and will take less than an hour.

With your permission, the interview will be digitally recorded. If you prefer, I will just take notes of the meeting. You will receive a copy of the transcript (or notes) to review and edit. Once the amended transcript is returned to me, the digital recording will be destroyed.

Participation is confidential. To ensure confidentiality, you will be asked to provide a pseudonym for yourself. If you prefer, I can provide one for you. Schools and districts will also be assigned pseudonyms. The notes, recording, transcript, and questionnaire will be kept in a vetted and security hardened online tool available through the University of South Carolina called OneDrive for Business. The results of the study
may be published or presented at professional meetings, but your identity will never be revealed.

We will be happy to answer any questions you have about the study. You may contact me at (803) 960-xxxx or colemasa@mailbox.sc.edu or my faculty advisor, Dr. Ed Cox at (803) 777-3089 or coxep@mailbox.sc.edu. You may also contact the University of South Carolina’s Office of Research Compliance at (803) 777-6670 if you have any questions about your rights as a research subject.

Thank you for your consideration. Your positive reply will serve as your permission to communicate with you directly regarding this research.

Kind regards,

Sarah Longshore
APPENDIX C:
DATA ORGANIZATION CHARTS

**South Carolina**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>South Carolina</th>
<th>Intent/Aim/Focus</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Key Quotes</th>
<th>Relationship between education and immigration (positive/negative; inclusive/non-inclusive)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>§ 1-1-698. Exceptions to prohibition against use of language other than English</td>
<td>Allows a language other than English to be used only for the purpose of either (a) making students who use a language other than English proficient in English or (b) making students proficient in a language in addition to English.</td>
<td>The legislature believes it has a responsibility to preserve, protect, and strengthen the English language.</td>
<td>Non-inclusive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>§ 59-18-310. Development or adoption of statewide assessment program to promote student learning and measure student performance</td>
<td>Requires that all statewide assessments be administered in English.</td>
<td>Because English is the official language of South Carolina, the use of language other than English is prohibited (except as noted in § 1-1-698).</td>
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<td>§ 59-28-140. Design of parental involvement and best practices training programs; incorporation into teacher and principal preparation programs</td>
<td>Directs the superintendent to work with institutions of higher learning to ensure that best practices in parental involvement are incorporated into teacher and principal preparation programs and that these practices be culturally responsive.</td>
<td>When parents and schools work as partners, a child's academic success can best be assured.</td>
<td>“The State Superintendent of Education shall: (1) design parental involvement and best practices training programs in conjunction with higher education institutions and the pre-K through grade 12 education community, including parental program coordinators, which shall include: (a) practices that are responsive to racial, ethnic, and socio-economic diversity, and are appropriate to various grade-level needs …”</td>
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<td>§ 59-63-40. Discrimination on account of race, creed, color, or national origin prohibited</td>
<td>Affirms the right of every student, regardless of race, creed, color, or national origin, to attend public school in South Carolina.</td>
<td>All students have the right to attend public school.</td>
<td>“No person shall be refused admission into or be excluded from any public school in the State on account of race, creed, color or national origin.”</td>
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<td>§ 59-101-430. Unlawful aliens; eligibility to attend public institution of higher learning; development of process for verifying lawful presence; eligibility for public benefits on basis of residence</td>
<td>Prohibits undocumented students from attending an institution of higher learning and receiving scholarships, financial aid, grants, and resident tuition.</td>
<td>Eligibility to attend a public institution of higher learning is based on residence.</td>
<td>“An alien unlawfully present in the United States is not eligible to attend a public institution of higher learning in this State, as defined in Section 59-103-5. The trustees of a public institution of higher learning in this State shall develop and institute a process by which lawful presence in the United States is verified.”</td>
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<td>§ 59-103-160. English Fluency in Higher Learning Act</td>
<td>Requires colleges and universities to develop policies which will ensure that teaching faculty are proficient in English, as well as to provide students with a grievance procedure when the instructor is not proficient in English.</td>
<td>Students should be protected from instructional faculty who are not adequately proficient in English.</td>
<td>“Each public institution of higher learning shall establish policies to: (1) ensure that the instructional faculty whose second language is English possess adequate proficiency in both the written and spoken English language. Student and faculty input is required in establishing these policies. (2) provide students with a grievance procedure regarding an instructor who is not able to write or speak the English language.”</td>
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<td>California Statute</td>
<td>Intent/Aim/Focus</td>
<td>Rationale</td>
<td>Key Quotes</td>
<td>Relationship between education and immigration (positive/negative; inclusive/non-inclusive)</td>
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<td>Language of Instruction, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 30-30.5</td>
<td>Establishes English as the basic language of instruction in California, but allows bilingual instruction when it is advantageous to students and when it does not interfere with the regular instruction of all students.</td>
<td>Districts should have the flexibility to make the best decisions for all students.</td>
<td>“The governing board of a school district … may determine when and under what circumstances instruction may be given bilingually.” “It is the policy of the state to ensure the mastery of English by all pupils in the schools, provided that bilingual instruction may be offered in those situations when such instruction is educationally advantageous to the pupils.”</td>
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<td>Declaration of Purpose, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 200-201</td>
<td>Establishes that all persons in California have equal rights and will be provided equal opportunities.</td>
<td>All persons have the right to participate fully in the educational process and to expect educational equity, regardless of social circumstances.</td>
<td>“It is the policy of the State of California to afford all persons in public schools, regardless of their disability, gender, gender identity, gender expression, nationality, race or ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, or any other characteristic that is contained in the definition of hate crimes set forth in Section 422.55 of the Penal Code, including immigration status, equal rights, and opportunities in the educational institutions of the state.”</td>
<td>“California’s public schools have an affirmative obligation to combat racism, sexism, and other forms of bias, and a responsibility to Inclusive</td>
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<td>Prohibition of Discrimination, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 220-221.1</td>
<td>Ensures that students do not experience discrimination on any basis in school.</td>
<td>All students who attend an educational institution that receives or benefits from state financial assistance have equal rights.</td>
<td>“No person shall be subjected to discrimination on the basis of disability, gender, gender identity, gender expression, nationality, etc.”</td>
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<td>Safe Place to Learn Act, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 234-234.5</td>
<td>Directs the superintendent to post and annually update a list of statewide resources that provide support to youth and their families who have been subjected to discrimination, harassment,</td>
<td>Schools have an obligation to create a safe learning environment for all children. This legislation promotes awareness and accountability among school officials, as well as to provide</td>
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<td>race or ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, or any other characteristic that is contained in the definition of hate crimes set forth in Section 422.55 of the Penal Code, including immigration status, in any program or activity conducted by an educational institution that receives, or benefits from, state financial assistance, or enrolls pupils who receive state student financial aid.”</td>
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<td><strong>Intimidation, or bullying at school on the basis of actual or perceived religious affiliation, nationality, race, or ethnicity.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Support to children who have experienced physical or psychological harm while at school.</strong></td>
<td><strong>English Learner and Immigrant Pupil Federal Conformity Act, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 430-446</strong></td>
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<td>Ensures that instructional services are provided to students with limited English proficiency and that all students have reasonable access to educational opportunities.</td>
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<td>Requires that each parent/guardian receives notice of the assessment of his or her child’s English language proficiency that includes the reason for the child’s classification as limited English proficient, the level of English proficiency, a description of the Districts must conform to federal requirements. All students should have reasonable access to educational opportunities that are necessary in order for them to achieve in English and in other core curriculum areas. Districts have a responsibility to understand requirements and funding formulas.</td>
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program for the
English language
development
instruction,
information regarding
a parent’s option to
decline, and
information designed
to assist a parent in
selecting among
available programs.

Requires a district that
fails to make progress
on the annual pupil
achievement objectives
in any fiscal year to
inform parents of the
failure.

Requires districts that
receive a federal
subgrant to include in
its plan a certification
that all teachers in any
language instruction
education program for
limited-English-
proficient students are
| Migrant Child Care and Development Programs, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 8230 - 8233 | Requires (1) a bilingual liaison between migrant parents and the child care center or development program and (2) bilingual health personnel available to each program site of a migrant child care and development agency. | While not all migrant families are from countries outside of the United States, many are and speak languages other than English. Bilingual migrant parents should be able to communicate effectively with the staff at their children’s child care centers. | Inclusive |
| Pathways to Success Grant Program, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 33440 - 33447 | Establishes the Pathways to Success Grant Program, a three-year grant program that awards a minimum of 10 one-time grants of up to $300,000 per grant. Program is designed to grow capacity for high-quality dual language learning in the state. | Students should have access to inclusive dual language immersion programs, developmental bilingual programs, and early learning dual language learners programs. | Inclusive |
The grant may be used to recruit bilingual teachers and paraeducators, provide professional development for teachers, provide ongoing outreach to families of students (including strategies for family engagement), and establish/support language learning professional learning communities for teachers.


Gives school districts the authority to hire “sojourn certificated employees” (i.e., foreign teachers) for the purposes of providing bilingual instruction, world language instruction, or cultural enrichment.

The legislature deems it more important to hire a qualified foreign teacher, if even for only a few years, to support bilingual instruction, than to have no qualified teacher at all.

When school districts have unsuccessfully attempted to secure the employment of a certificated California teacher qualified to fill the position, districts may “conclude arrangements with the proper authorities of a
| Bilingual Office Employees, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 45400-45403 | When at least 15 percent of the students enrolled in a public school speak a single primary language other than English, the school district must hire a bilingual person for the administrative office. School districts are directed to remove barriers and to improve communication with families whose single primary language is not English. | Students and their families are disadvantaged when a language barrier exists. | “The Legislature hereby finds that when a public school … does not have in its employ one or more bilingual employees fluent in both English and the primary language of such pupils and their parents or guardians, a serious educational disadvantage results for the pupils … It is, therefore, the intent of the Legislature in enacting this article to remove some of the barriers that face pupils who, together with... | Inclusive |
| Bilingual-Bicultural Education Act of 1976, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 52160-52178 | Directs school districts to provide programs that qualify teachers and administrators in bilingual and crosscultural skills. Allows for several | A lack of English language communication skills presents an obstacle to students’ rights. There is value in parent engagement and | “The Legislature finds that there are more than 288,000 school age children who are limited English proficient and who do not have the English language skills | Positive and Inclusive |
bilingual program options.

Requires each district to ascertain “census of pupils of limited English proficiency.” Each school district is required to reassess students at the request of a parent or guardian, teacher, or school administrator.

Ensure funds supplement, and not supplant, funds from other local or state sources in meeting the needs of students of limited English proficiency.

Requires that parents be provided the opportunity for consultation about the placement of their child and that the written notice be in participation.

Teachers of students of limited-English proficiency should be properly credentialed.

Teachers’ training programs should include instruction in language, culture, and methodology.

necessary to benefit from instruction only in English at a level substantially equivalent to pupils whose primary language is English. Their lack of English language communication skills presents an obstacle to such pupils’ right to an equal educational opportunity which can be removed by instruction and training in the pupils’ primary languages while such pupils are learning English. The Legislature recognizes that the school dropout rate is excessive among pupils of limited English proficiency. This represents a tremendous loss in human resources and in potential personal
| Requires each school district with more than 50 students of limited English proficiency to establish a districtwide advisory committee on bilingual education, in which parents of students of limited English proficiency must constitute a majority of the committee. |
| Requires that teachers of bilingual classes be bilingual in English and the primary language of the students and hold an internship credential or a bilingual-crosscultural credential. |
| English and in the primary language of the student. |
| income and tax revenues. Furthermore, high rates of joblessness among these dropouts contribute to the unemployment burden of the state. The Legislature recognizes that a critical need exists for teaching and administrative personnel qualified in the bilingual and crosscultural skills necessary to the instruction of the limited-English-proficient population in the state’s school districts. Therefore, the Legislature directs school districts to provide for in-service programs to qualify existing and future personnel in the bilingual and crosscultural skills necessary to serve the |
pupils of limited English proficiency of this state. Furthermore, the Legislature intends that the public institutions of higher education establish programs to qualify teachers and administrators in the bilingual and crosscultural skills necessary to serve these pupils. The Legislature finds and declares that the primary goal of all programs under this article is, as effectively and efficiently as possible, to develop in each child fluency in English. The programs shall also provide positive reinforcement of the self-image of participating pupils, promote crosscultural understanding, and provide equal
| Opportunity for academic achievement, including academic instruction through the primary language | The purpose of this article to require California school districts to offer bilingual learning opportunities to each pupil of limited English proficiency enrolled in the public schools, and to provide adequate supplemental financial support to achieve such purpose.

**Bilingual Teacher Training Assistance Program**

Establishes the State Bilingual Teacher Training Assistance Program for teachers who have been granted waivers. Directs the Department of Education to establish standards and criteria for the program and to conduct appropriate training programs, or provide financial support to achieve such purpose.

The Department of Education should demonstrate a commitment to bilingual education and bilingual teacher training. The Department of Education has the authority to establish minimum standards and criteria for the State Bilingual Teacher Training Assistance Program, and shall conduct appropriate training programs, or provide financial support to achieve such purpose.
conduct appropriate training programs and services.

responsibility of administering and maintaining the integrity of the State Bilingual Teacher Training Assistance Program and to provide ongoing technical assistance and support for districts.

for training services by allocation to existing state staff development resource centers, county offices of education, public or private four-year institutions of postsecondary education, bilingual programs consortia, or cooperatives formed among two or more of these groups.”

“... The department shall adopt evaluative criteria demonstrating the agency’s ability to provide appropriate training services. The adopted criteria shall include, but need not be limited to, all of the following:

(1) Demonstrated commitment to bilingual education and bilingual teacher training.
| Bilingual Teacher Professional Development Program, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 52200-52202 | Establishes the Bilingual Teacher Professional Development Program for teachers  
Directs the Department of Education, in consultation with the Commission on Teacher Credentialing, to administer the program and to issue grants through a competitive process. | Professional development should be made available to teachers seeking to provide instruction in bilingual and multilingual school settings.  
Increasing the number of teachers who are able to teach in bilingual and multilingual schools is a priority for the state. | “The purpose … is to ensure that California can meet the demand for bilingual teachers necessary for the implementation of dual language and other bilingual education programs … and to ensure California is able to meet the demand in preparing bilingual education teachers.” | Positive |
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<td>Immigrant Workforce Preparation Act, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 52651-</td>
<td>Requires that students be provided with information written in “School districts that receive funding pursuant to Section</td>
<td>It is important for immigrant students to have the opportunity to</td>
<td>“School districts that receive funding pursuant to Section</td>
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<td>52656</td>
<td>a language they understand. Directs the superintendent to develop a course of instruction that leads to a Certificate of Proficiency in English as a Second Language and a Certificate of Proficiency in Basic Skills. continue their education and training and to develop communication, computational, problem solving, and interpersonal skills needed to succeed in the workplace. School districts must provide instruction to prepare immigrants for the workplace. 52656 shall provide … services that enable immigrants to access educational services and economic development services available to all Californians.”</td>
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<td>Implementation, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 56360-56369</td>
<td>Requires the Commission on Teacher Credentialing to develop a bilingual-crosscultural certificate of assessment competence for those professionals who may participate in assessments for placements in special education programs. Students of limited English proficiency must have access to special education services. Therefore, professionals who participate in assessments for placements in special education programs should be competent in the oral and written skills of a language other than English and “The Legislature recognizes the need for specially trained professionals to assess and serve pupils of limited English proficiency. This is particularly true of pupils with exceptional needs or pupils with suspected disabilities.”</td>
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<td>Access to Higher Education for Every Student, Cal. Ed. Code §§ 66093-66093.4</td>
<td>have the knowledge and understanding of the cultural and historical heritage of the limited-English-proficient individuals.</td>
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<td>Affirms the ability of California’s colleges and universities to provide services, benefits, and assistance to all students enrolled at the University of California, regardless of immigration status. Requests institutions of higher learning to: refrain from disclosing personal information, advise that an immigration officer is expected to enter or has entered the campus, notify a student’s emergency contact if it is believed he/she may have been taken into custody,</td>
<td>All students should feel safe and protected while attending an institution of higher learning in California. All students are entitled to the same opportunities, resources, and services made available to all Californians. “With great risks presented by changes to immigration policies and enforcement at the federal level, it is more important than ever to work to protect the students, faculty, staff, and the public, and ensure that, regardless of their immigration status, they can continue to take advantage of the education to which they are entitled, and are free from intimidation or loss of access to resources and programs that other students enjoy. It is imperative that California put</td>
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<td>refer an immigration officer to the office of the chancellor or president, maintain and make available a contact list of legal services providers who provide legal immigration representation, etc.</td>
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Directs institutions of higher learning to make all reasonable efforts to assist undocumented students who have been detained or deported with retaining eligibility for financial aid, fellowship stipends, exemption from nonresident tuition fees, funding for research or other educational projects, housing stipends or services, or other benefits he or she has been awarded or

| necessary protections in place, and show it will take the necessary steps to ensure that the state’s students, faculty, staff, and the public have every opportunity to continue their education without fear or undue risk. In doing so, California reaffirms the principles that the attainment of education for the betterment of the individual and the community is paramount, regardless of one’s immigration status. It is in the country’s best interests, as a nation of immigrants, which has benefited greatly from immigrants of all walks and backgrounds, to ensure that those who pursue educational and academic growth may |
received. Directs colleges and universities to permit the student to be reenrolled if and when the student is able to return following detainment or deportation.

| further contribute to the productivity of this great state and nation. Therefore, it is the intent of the Legislature to enact legislation to enact the policies set forth in Section 66093.3 to ensure that California’s public and private institutions of higher education strive to foster a campus community that is safe, welcoming for all, and provides access to services and supports for all students, faculty, and staff regardless of their immigration status.” |
APPENDIX D:

QUESTIONNAIRE

Examining Teachers' Readiness to Partner with Immigrant Latinx Parents

The purpose of this research is to examine the contextual factors that contribute to teachers’ readiness to partner with immigrant Latinx parents.

It will take you about 3-6 minutes to complete the questionnaire for this study.

Your responses will be treated as confidential information and will be kept in a vetted and security-hardened online tool available through the University of South Carolina. Your responses will not be shared with anyone.

You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer.

Thank you for your time and participation.

1) First Name

2) Preservice and Inservice Training
What preservice and/or inservice training have you received as it relates to partnering with immigrant Latinx parents (e.g., in-depth language study, racial/cultural diversity training, training in English as a Second Language approaches, etc.)?

3) Education Background
To what extent has your preservice and/or inservice training (if any) prepared you to partner with immigrant Latinx parents?

4) From what college or university did you earn your undergraduate degree that led to teacher certification?

5) What undergraduate degree did you earn that led to teacher certification (e.g., Bachelor of Arts)?

6) What was the major, minor, or special emphasis of your undergraduate degree that led to teacher certification?

7) Do you have a graduate degree?
   - Yes
   - No

8) If applicable, what graduate degree(s) do you have?
   (If not applicable, skip this question.)
9) If applicable, what was your major, minor, or special emphasis as part of your graduate coursework? (If not applicable, skip this question.)

10) Do you have any add-on certifications/endorsements?  
   ☐ Yes  
   ☐ No

11) If applicable, what add-on certifications/endorsements do you have? (If not applicable, skip this question.)

Other Relevant Experiences

12) Have you ever participated in a study abroad program?  
   ☐ Yes  
   ☐ No

13) Have you ever lived in a country, other than the United States of America, for a period of six months or longer?  
   ☐ Yes  
   ☐ No

14) Do you know a language other than English?  
   ☐ Yes  
   ☐ No

15) If you know a language other than English, what language is it? And what is your level of proficiency? (If not applicable, skip this question.)

16) Have you ever participated in racial/cultural diversity training?  
   ☐ Yes  
   ☐ No

Work Experience

17) Counting this school year, how many years have you been a school teacher, including part-time teaching?

18) Counting this school year, how many years have you taught in your current school, including part-time teaching?

19) What subject(s) or in what content area(s) do you currently teach?

Demographic Information

20) Are you of Hispanic or Latino origin?  
   ☐ Yes  
   ☐ No

21) Which best describes your race? Mark those that apply.  
   ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native  
   ☐ Asian  
   ☐ Black or African American  
   ☐ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander  
   ☐ White
22. What is your gender?
- Female
- Male
- Non-binary/third gender
- Prefer to self-describe
- Prefer not to say