DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HISPANIC ADOLESCENT MALES IN

ALTERNATIVE AND REGULAR EDUCATION PLACEMENT

A Dissertation

by

BRANDI RENEE KOCIAN

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2010

Major Subject: School Psychology

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Approved by:

Co-Chairs of Committee,	Amanda Jensen-Doss
	Cynthia Riccio
Committee Members,	Constance Fournier
	William Rupley
Head of Department,	Victor Willson

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ABSTRACT

Difference between Hispanic Adolescent Males in Alternative and Regular Education

Placement. (May 2010)

Brandi Renee Kocian, B.S., Texas A&M University

Co-Chairs of Advisory Committee: Dr. Cynthia Riccio
                                                    Dr. Amanda Jensen-Doss

   Researchers have identified numerous risk and protective factors that might provide

insight into the academic difficulties and success that Hispanic adolescents experience.

Maladjusted outcomes cannot be attributed to a single risk factor; risk factors do not act

in isolation and often have complex relationships with other risk factors. This study uses

an ecological risk factor model that suggests that there are multiple risk factors related to

adolescent being placed in an alternative education setting and that these risk factors

exist at six levels: community-based factors, school-based factors, peer-based factors,

family-based factors, child's perception factors, and acculturation-based factors.

   The purpose of this study is to examine differences in the protective and risk factors

in the area of family, community, school, peers, child's perception, and acculturation

levels between Hispanic males who have been placed in DAEP (Disciplinary Alternative

Education Placement) and their same aged Hispanic male peers who have not been

previously placed in the DAEP. The sample for this study (N=119) was collected from a

large urban school district in Texas. The participants were seventh and eighth graders

between the ages of 12 and 16 years of age. The non-DAEP group was comprised of a

majority of 7th grade students (71.7%), while the DAEP group had a larger number of 8th

grade students (62.7%).

This study addressed four research questions. The first question investigated if there

was a difference between the two groups when the ecological levels where combined to

create a cumulative risk score. The non-DAEP group had significantly lower cumulative

risk scores than the DAEP. The second research question investigated if there was a

difference in each cumulative risk index (i.e., family, school, peers, community, child's

perception, and acculturation) between the two groups. There was no significant

difference found between the non-DAEP and DAEP group for family-based risk scores

or the child's perception risk scores; however, a significant difference was found

between the two groups on the peer-based, community-based, acculturation-based, and

school-based factors. The third question examined the unique contribution school, peers,

community, family, and acculturation makes in the prediction of the child's perception

factor for Hispanic males. A hierarchical multiple regression suggested only the

community-based, family-based, and acculturation-based variables made a significant

contribution to the child's perception factor. The fourth question examined if the child's

perception factor mediated the relationship between placement in the DAEP and the

family-based, community-based, peer-based, school-based, and acculturation-based

factors. The effects of the five variables on group placement and child's perception

factors were assessed through the use of structural equation modeling using the program

AMOS. (Analysis of Movement Structures; See Figure 2).

DEDICATION

To my parents, Jerry and Brenda Kocian,

Whom I dearly love.

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To my committee members, Dr. Riccio, Dr. Jensen-Doss, Dr. Fournier, and Dr. Rupley, for taking the time to participate in my dissertation and for all your helpful comments and suggestions.

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stern words in those classes shaped the woman I am today. Thank you to all these women, without whom I would be nothing.

Thank you to my mother for working and saving just so I could get a good Catholic education. Her sacrifices provided me with so many opportunities and her love encouraged me to take them. Hers were the arms that comforted me as a child, the stern hand I need as a teenager, and now my closest confidant.

Thank you to my father, he has never taken a vacation or even a sick day and always worked so hard for me and my two sisters. He has provided me with so many opportunities and taught me so much. I remember when I was in kindergarten, I hastily colored a picture of penguins for homework and showed you my sloppy work. He took an hour to retrace the picture and showed me how to color within the lines. That night he taught me three things: 1) it is okay to mess up, 2) it is okay to fix your mistakes, and 3) always color with in the lines. He believed in me when I did not and picked me up when I fell. Thank you dad for all your sacrifice and love.

Thank you Jaimie, my little sister, you have always been my loudest cheerleader. She is my best friend and my dentist. Thank you for you daily phone calls of encouragement. I love you and thank you for all your help through this process.

To Mimi and Ivan, you have both meant so much to me through this process. Thank you for letting me cry on your shoulders and tell you all my secrets.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Hispanic population in the United States is growing at an exponential rate. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2000b, 2003, 2004), the Hispanic population is predicted to be one quarter of the U.S. population by the year 2050, given that the Hispanic growth pattern is already four times higher than that of the total U.S. population. In fact, in 2003, people of Hispanic origin accounted for nearly one half of the population growth increase. It is also interesting to note that the current Hispanic population is younger than their non-Hispanic counterparts; one-third of the nation's thirty-five million Hispanics are under the age of eighteen and one-half are under the age of twenty-six (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Currently one in every five children in American public schools is of Hispanic origin (National Council of La Raza, 2001). Not only is this population growing at an astronomical rate, so is the research suggesting that Hispanic students are struggling in school, have the highest high school drop out rate of all ethnic groups (Crosnoe, 2005; Flores, Ojeda, Gee, Lee, & Huang, 2006), and have the highest grade retention rates (U.S. Department of Education National Center for Educational Statistics, 2003). Moreover, Hispanic males are more likely to experience negative outcomes when compared to their Hispanic female counterparts (Teasley, 2004). Hispanic females are

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This dissertation follows the style of *Journal of Family Psychology*.

more likely to graduate from high school and less likely to be suspended than Hispanic males (Ginorio & Huston, 2000; Greene & Winters, 2005). The percentage of male students of Hispanic descent placed in alternative education settings is greatly disproportionate to the percentage of Hispanic male students present in the state of Texas (Intercultural Developmental Research Association, 1999). For example, 48% of all students sent to disciplinary alternative education programs are of Hispanic origin (Abramson, 2007); this is an alarming statistic considering most students who are placed in an alternative education setting experience maladaptive outcomes (Texas Appleseed, 2007). Unfortunately, these statistics suggest that the Texas education system as an entity has done a poor job in responding to the needs of their Hispanic students.

Risk and Protective Factors

Researchers have identified numerous risk factors that may provide insight into the academic difficulties Hispanic adolescents' experience. These risk factors include minority status, economic hardship/disadvantaged socioeconomic status (SES), single parent home, parental lack of knowledge of United States education system, English/language barriers, a higher probability of special education and remedial placement (Diaz, 1996; Gonzalez & Padilla, 1997; Perez & de la Rosa Salazar, 1997), and a greater likelihood of attending schools that have poor facilities and less experienced teachers (National Council of La Raza, 2001) than other ethnic groups. Research has noted that the presence of a single risk factor does not influence a child's development, but rather it is the accumulation of a multiple risk factors that can have a negative impact (Forehand, Biggar, & Kotchick, 1998; Gutman, Sameroff, & Eccles,

2002; Johnson & Waldfogel, 2003; Prelow & Loukas, 2003). The number of risk factors present has been found to be better predictor of a child's outcome than the kind of risk factor (Sameroff, 2000; Sameroff, Gutman, & Peck, 2003).

Despite a multitude of risk factors, some adolescents possess characteristics or have been exposed to environmental factors that allow them to successfully adapt in stressful situations and attain desirable outcomes. These positive characteristics or environmental factors are called protective factors (Brown, 2006; Burton & Marshall, 2005; Werner & Smith, 2002). Protective factors have been defined as those variables that have a direct positive effect on a person's behavior (Bynner, 2002; Carr & Vandiver, 2001).

Risk and protective factors consist of a person's social, emotional, economic, and academic influences. Garmezy (1985) created an ecological model that identified three categories that encompass the range of variables that may be present in an individual's environment. These categories are 1) community based, 2) family-based, and 3) dispositional attributes or child's perception factors that are unique to the individual, such as self-efficacy. These categories described by Garmezy will be used to describe risk and protective factors that will be the focus of this study; however, the category of community will be separated into three parts - community, school, and peers. A fourth category of acculturation will be included in this study.

Community-based Factors

The community-based category encompasses external support systems such as extracurricular activities, mentors, and neighborhood safety. This category of protective and risk factors is comprised of extrinsic characteristics of the child's environment that can have a direct effect on a child's development (Rak & Patterson, 1996). At the community level, environmental risk factors are considered to be those characteristics of an individual's environment that predict poor developmental outcomes, such as gang involvement (Fraser, 2004), while protective environmental factors are those aspects that promote positive outcomes (Fraser, 2004), such as involvement in appropriate extracurricular activities.

School-based Factors

The school is a specific context for students within the larger community. Schools have a very important role in an adolescent's development by providing rules and reinforcing social norms (Vazsonyi & Flannery, 1997). The social climate of a school has an effect on the student's social emotional functioning (Birch, Ladd, & Buhs, 1999; Cook, Murphy, & Hunt, 2000; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004) by providing the students with opportunities to participate in extracurricular activities (Wassef, Masson, Collins, O'Boyle, & Ingham, 1996). Further, students are often influenced by the relationships they have with their teachers (Birch & Ladd, 1996). Each school has unique characteristics that have a direct effect on students, such as school compositions, the relationships between students and faculty, and school safety (Woolley & Grogan-Kaylor, 2006).

Peer-based Factor

In the community and in schools, adolescents are influenced by their peers. During adolescence individuals are in the process of asserting their independence from their parents and often rely on their relationships with their peers to provide them with validation and support (Crosnoe, Johnson, & Elder, 2004; Furman, 1996; Moffit, Capsi, Dickson, & Silva, 1996). Children who have been rejected by their peers often are excluded from activities and given less opportunities to socially interact with peers (Brown, 2006). This exclusion, or neglect, places them at greater risk for the disliked child's behavior to be interpreted in a negative way, validates the negative opinion and results in an adverse cycle (Hymel, 1986). At the same time, the rejection by one's peers also can affect a child's sense of self; thus these children are at a greater risk to experience lower school adjustment, a negative attitude toward school, and underachievement (Ladd, 1990). Alternatively, the degree to which a child connects to his/her peers in their school is a protective factor for school success and social adjustment.

Family-based Factors

Previous research has suggested that the family is the most powerful extrinsic influence on a child's development (Perrino, Gonzalez-Soldevilla, Pantin, & Szapocznik, 2000). Family-based factors are those factors that are present within the family (Carr & Vandiver, 2001)**;** research has suggested that the family is the primary setting where the child learns behavior, develops relationships, and has various experiences that influence the development of the child's personality (Campbell, 1994). Some of these family

based factors include SES, parental involvement, living in a single-parent home, language spoke in the home, extended family involvement, and parental incarceration.

Family is important in the Hispanic culture. Hispanic families more often live near or with extended family members (Baca Zinn & Wells, 2000; Kamo, 2000). Further, Hispanic adolescents who have a strong bond with their family members are less at-risk for substance abuse (Unger et al., 2002) and externalizing behaviors (Pabon, 1998). Researchers have found that Hispanics have a tendency to place greater importance on familial support (Parke & Buriel, 1998) and their relationships with relatives (Pew Hispanic Center & Kaiser Family Foundation, 2002) than their non-Hispanic counterparts.

Child's Perception Factors

The last category described by Garmezy comprises the child's perception factors. This category encompasses an individual's unique intrinsic characteristics that can not be solely attributed to external risk or protective factors, but instead how the child perceives these factors. Previous research has shown that an individual's own subjective evaluation of his/her reality may have greater effect then objective or external variables (Keyes, Ryff, & Shmotkin, 2002). Researchers have found that children are negatively or positively affected by different aspects of their environment, family, and personal characteristics (Bynner, 2002; Carr & Vandiver, 2001); beyond these factors research has continued to find that how a child perceives these aspects is important (Birch & Ladd, 1996; Harter, 1999; Martin & Gamba, 2003). A child's perception of school, their teacher, himself/herself and their relationship with their parents can have a positive or

negative influence on the child (Birch & Ladd, 1996) and has been linked to behavioral and developmental outcomes (Harter, 1999). A number of studies have found that an individual's perception of an available support system that includes family, friends, teachers, and individuals from the community is far more important than actual availability of support or those risk factors present (Martin & Gamba, 2003; Wethington & Kessler, 1986).

Other important child's perception factors are those that are intrinsic characteristics, unique to the individual person, such as self-efficacy and life satisfaction. Self-efficacy has been viewed as an important protective factor because it describes individuals' perceptions or confidence in their ability to control events that affect their daily lives and know what actions to take in order to get their desired outcome (Muris, 2001). Overall, a generally low level of self-efficacy can be viewed as a risk factor or a determinant variable because the motivation to complete a task or behave in a certain manner is lessened when a person perceives himself/herself as unable to accomplish the task (Suldo & Shaffer, 2007). Self-efficacy not only impacts behavior, but also is essential in an individual's current and future academic, social, and emotional well-being (Bandura, 1997). A person's level of self-efficacy can deter a person from seeking opportunities to improve or increase their ability (Reich, Leonard, & Helfinger, 2004). Adolescents with low levels of self-efficacy have been found to be more likely to experience depression, have a limited number of relationships, and higher reports of stress in their daily lives (Hamill, 2003; McFarlane, Bellissimo, & Norman, 1995). In contrast, children who have a higher sense of self-efficacy have been found to be better

equipped to handle rejection, have higher tolerance for stress, and are less likely to be truant or expelled from school (Hamill, 2003; Petrides, Sangareau, Furnham, & Frederickson, 2006).

Life satisfaction is another intrinsic child's perception factor that reflects the extent to which an individual's goals are perceived as feasible and the degree to which an individual's fundamental needs are met (Bradley & Crowyn, 2004). Life satisfaction is a product of an individual's experiences and plays a significant role in the development of behavior and outcomes (Fogle, Huebner, & Laughlin, 2002; Rigby & Huebner, 2005). A low level of life satisfaction is considered a risk factor and has been related to maladaptive outcomes, while a high level of life satisfaction has been associated with high self-esteem, extraversion, an increase in locus of control, physical health, good relationships, an inhibitor of violent behavior, and educational success (Frisch, 2000; Huebner, 1991a, 1991b; MacDonald, Piquero, Valois, & Zullig, 2005; Park, 2003, 2004).

Acculturation

When considering the Hispanic population, a fourth component, acculturation, must also be considered. Acculturation has been defined as the process of change that results from continuous contact with individuals from a different culture (Berry, Trimble, & Olmedo, 1986). A core concept of acculturation is the amount of contact an individual has with two distinct cultural groups; however, previous research has consistently found language to be the central component of acculturation (Roger et al., 1991). Acculturation does not include how a person perceives the dominant or their traditional

culture, but rather examines which culture an individual primarily associates with, as well as provides information about their exposure and mastery of the both English and their traditional language (Berry, 1980). Acculturation does not occur in isolation, nor is it unique to community involvement, family, or peers, but rather cuts across all of the categories already discussed and is an individual construct that can alone be a protective or risk factor. Previous researchers suggest acculturation is a construct that should be included in research because it provides an opportunity to understand the impact acculturation has Hispanic adolescent's outcomes.

Acculturation is a complex process in that both high and low levels of acculturation have been found to produce both positive and negative effects (Berry, 1980). These findings have raised the question of whether Hispanic adolescents can identify with the majority culture while still retaining the values and beliefs associated with their Hispanic culture. This idea that an individual can communicate and navigate through two different cultures has been termed biculturalism or integration (Berry, 1980; Szapocznik, Kurtines, & Fernandez, 1980). Research has found bicultural individuals experience greater interpersonal adjustment (Fernandez-Barrillas & Morrison, 1984), less likely to drop out of school (Feliciano, 2001), experience lower levels of family conflict (Miranda, Estrada, & Firpo-Jimenez, 2000; Sullivan et al., 2007), and report lower levels of problem behaviors (Szapocznik & Kurtines, 1989).

Purpose of the Study

There is a lack of research literature regarding the differences in the risk and protective factors that some Hispanic males possess that allow them to be successful,

while other Hispanic males with similar environmental factors experience negative outcomes. Given this lack of available information, the purpose of this study is to examine differences in the protective and risk factors in the area of family, community, school, peers, self, and acculturation levels between Hispanic males who have been placed in alternative education settings and their same aged Hispanic male peers who have not been previously placed and are not currently placed in an alternative setting.

The ecological model recognizes that each person functions within a complex network of individual, family, community, and environmental contexts that impact their capacity to avoid risk. Central to this model is the concept of cumulative risk: as exposure to risk factors at multiple levels of the ecology increases, the probability of maladjustment, in this study operationalized as placement in alternative schools increases. Cumulative risk calculates a risk score for each child by summing up the number of risk factors at each ecological level. The first objective of this study is to examine if the risk factors work in a cumulative manner, such that students who are in the alternative settings have a higher cumulative risk score than those individuals who have not attended an alternative education setting.

Other researchers have argued that important information may be overlooked by only exploring only a total cumulative score (Deater-Deckard et al, 1998; Poria, Pike, & Deater-Deckard, 2004). Atzaba-Poria, Pike, and Deater-Deckard (2004) reported collecting additional information about the risk and protective factors when each ecological level was explored separately. This study also will explore if there is a difference in the separate risk indices (i.e., family, school, peers, community, self, and

acculturation level) between the students who are currently placed or have been previously place in an alternative setting and those students who have not attended an alternative education setting.

The child's perception category encompasses how the child perceives the external risk and protective factors present in his/her environment, in addition to how the child perceives him/herself. Child's perception factors are influenced by both environmental factors and social systems (Bandura, 1986). For example, individuals can be influenced by the social persuasion from those individuals around them or by observing another individual model a behavior. A number of studies have found that an individual's perception of an available support system that includes family, friends, teachers, and individuals from the community is far more important to the likelihood of positive outcomes than the actual availability of support (Martin & Gamba, 2003; Wethington & Kessler, 1986). Therefore, it is hypothesized that the child's perception factors may mediate the relationship between an individual outcome of alternative school placement and the external risk and protective factors (See Figure 1). Therefore, this study will examine the unique contribution school, peers, community, family, and level of acculturation make in the prediction of the child's perception factor, and whether the child's perception factor explains the relationship between these other risk factors and DAEP placement.

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┌─────────────────────┐
│  Community-Based    │
│      Factor         │
└─────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────┐
│   Family-Based      │
│      Factor         │
└─────────────────────┘                    ┌─────────────────────┐      ┌─────────────────────┐
                                            │ Child's Perception  │      │    Did student      │
┌─────────────────────┐                     │      Factor         │─────▶│    attend DAEP      │
│    Peer-Based       │──────────────────▶  └─────────────────────┘      └─────────────────────┘
│      Factor         │
└─────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────┐
│ Acculturation-Based │
│      Factor         │
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┌─────────────────────┐
│   School-Based      │
│      Factor         │
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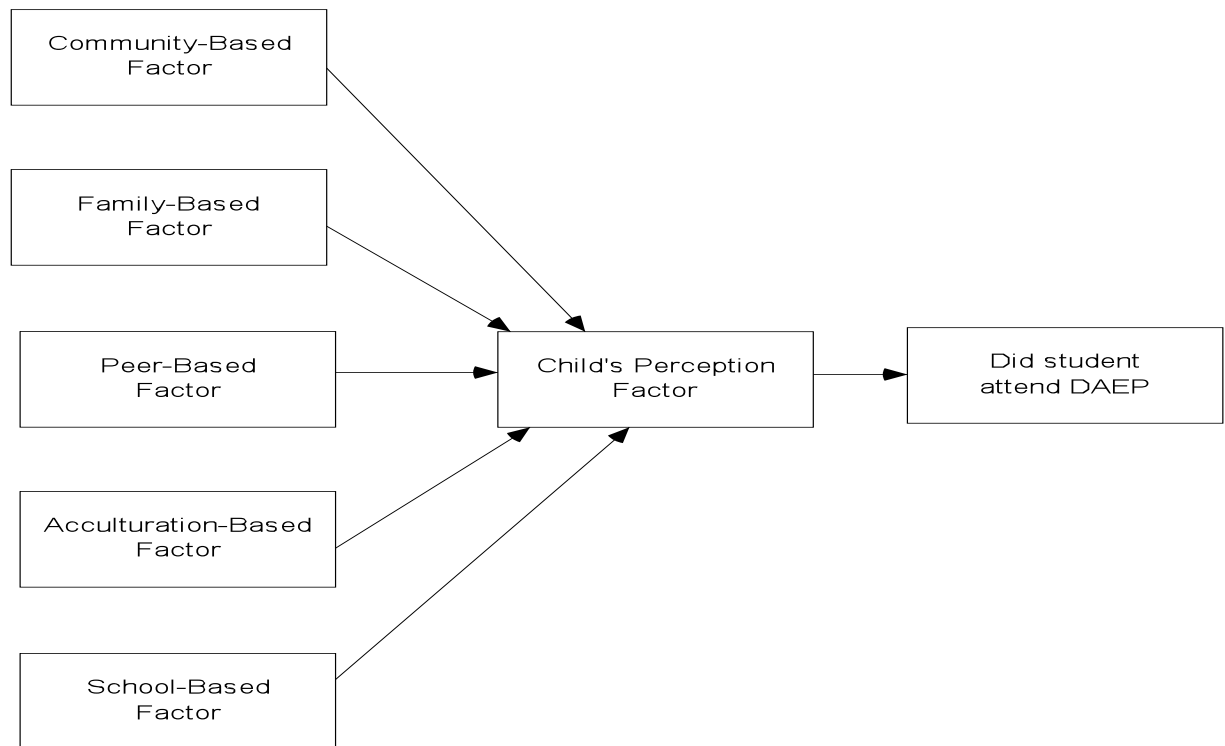
Figure 1
Conceptual Model

Research Questions

1) Do risk factors work in a cumulative manner such that Hispanic males who are in

alternative education settings, or who have previously been placed in an

alternative setting, have a higher cumulative risk score than those who have not

been placed in an alternative education setting?   This study hypothesized that

those students who are currently or have been placed in alternative schools will

have a higher cumulative risk score than those students who have not been placed

in an alternative school setting.

2) Is there a difference in each of the separate risk indices (i.e., family, school,

peers, community, and self) between Hispanic males who are currently placed or

have been previously placed in an alternative setting, and those who have not

attended an alternative education setting? This study hypothesized that there the

DAEP group would score significantly higher than the non-DAEP group on all

six factors.

3) Will school, peers, community, family factors, and level of acculturation each

make a unique contribution to the prediction of the child's perception (self)

factor? This study hypothesized that all five factors will make a unique

contribution to the prediction of the child's perception factor.

4) Do child's perception factors mediate the relations between school, peers, family,

community risk, and acculturation and alternative school placement among

Hispanic males? This study hypothesized child's perception factor will mediate

the school, peers, family, community, and acculturation based factors and the

DAEP placement (See Figure 1).

Implications of the Study

There is a limited published literature that has explored adolescent Hispanic

males' life experiences, their relationships with peers and family members, and their

environment. The purpose of this study was to examine the differences between the

cumulative and separate risk scores (comprised of family, community, school, peers,

self, and acculturation) of Hispanic males who have been placed or are currently placed

in alternative education settings and the scores of their same aged Hispanic male peers

who have not been previously placed and are not currently placed in an alternative

setting. This study will assist school psychologists and other school personnel in

obtaining a better understanding of the risk and protective factors that contribute to Hispanic male students' success in the regular education setting. This study will contribute to the literature by focusing on Hispanic adolescent males who have not been successful at school and will also supply information that may give insight into factors that contribute to some Hispanic males experiencing negative outcomes, such as being placed in alternative education settings. At the same time, increasing our understanding and knowledge of why some adolescents are able to be successful despite a multitude of risk factors can inform the development of successful prevention and intervention strategies (Garmezy & Rutter, 1983).

Implications for School Psychologists

The National Association of School Psychologist (NASP) expressed concern about the growing achievement gap and high drop out rate of students who are linguistically and culturally diverse (Wilen, 2004). The American Psychological Association (APA) not only suggests that psychologists acknowledge that culture and ethnicity impact the behavior of individuals, but also that psychologists have a responsibility to continue to strive to understand the role of culture and ethnicity plays not only in an individual's daily life, but also in the interventions and prevention measures we use with these clients (Pine et al., 1990). Similarly, NASP identified six domains to be considered when working with students who are culturally and linguistically diverse (Rogers et al., 1999). Domain II part C of these six domains indicates the school psychologist as responsible for educating individuals in the school systems about the learning, development, and well-being of children with culturally and

linguistically diverse backgrounds (Rogers et al., 1999). In sum, both APA and NASP suggested that psychologists need to be aware of the different life experiences, family issues, and attitudes toward schools the effect these variables have on students and the extent to which these factors can effect the level of an interventions of success (Wilen, 2004). This study provides school psychologists with more information about Hispanic adolescent males who have been placed in alternative education settings and provides insight into the family factors, community factors, and self perceptions that contribute to some Hispanic males experiencing negative outcomes. This information can provide important insight into the different factors that school psychologists need to take into account when devising treatment plans, developing interventions, and implementing prevention strategies for Hispanic adolescent males.

Glossary

Adolescent	In this study adolescent refers to a person whose age ranges from 10 to 18.
Aggressive	In this study aggressive is a term to describe behavior that is intentionally harmful (Abdennur, 2000).
Alternative Education Program (AEP)	This term refers to a non-conventional program in alternative education setting that has been created for students who are not successful in traditional programs.

Disciplinary Alternative Education Program (DAEP)	For the purpose of this study, a DAEP is an alternative education setting that has been created to serve students who have broke student conduct rules constructed by the school district.
Delinquent	In this study the term delinquent refers to the behavior of an adolescent that is commensurate with misconduct or deviant behavior such as stealing, fighting, or violent behavior; however, this behavior does require the adolescent be adjudicated by the juvenile court (Han, 2002).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

Many adolescents in the United States face personal and systemic challenges that interfere with their academic, as well as their social/emotional growth trajectories (Coll, Thobro, & Hass, 2004). An adolescent's trajectory in these areas is shaped through the constant interaction between the child's genetic predisposition and personality characteristics with the child's living environment, including his/her available social supports. In instances where the interaction between the adolescent's intrinsic and extrinsic factors are optimal, there is an increased probability that his or her life choices and opportunities will reflect an adequate academic and social life trajectory. In many other instances, the interaction between the child's intrinsic characteristics and his/her environment do not permit the child to follow optimal paths; children who fall in this latter category are usually perceived as being "at-risk." In other words, children who experience any number of life stressors may be considered "at-risk" independent of whether these stressors are intrinsic or extrinsic. Stressful events coupled with stressful life conditions are usually associated with more adverse developmental outcomes, including delinquent behavior (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). Adverse outcomes, such as delinquency, are a result of a number of risk factors that overlap and lead to adversity (Miller, 1995).

Disciplinary Alternative Education Placement

Delinquent behavior is considered to be any antisocial or criminal behavior engaged in by children or adolescents, including stealing, burglary, violence, vandalism,

fraud and drug use (Baldry & Farrington, 1999). In a national study, researchers reported several behaviors frequently engaged in by adolescents that could be considered delinquent (Kann et al., 1998). For example, Kann et al. (1998) reported that 50% of adolescents had consumed alcohol, 26% had used marijuana, and 37% had recently engaged in a physical confrontation. Adolescents who engage in delinquent behavior are often placed in disciplinary alternative education settings (DEAP) or in juvenile justice system settings depending on the type, severity, frequency and/or duration of the delinquent behavior, as well as the presence or absence of a previous criminal record (Kann et al., 1998). Adolescents may also be placed in disciplinary alternative education settings (DEAP) for other behaviors that include status offenses or delinquent non-violent behaviors such as truancy, breaking curfew, and profanity (Texas Appleseed, 2007)**.**

In 1995, the Texas state legislature established the Safe Schools Act (Chapter 37 of the Texas Education Code), which is a set of guidelines that requires the removal of disruptive students from their regular educational placement to an alternative behavioral management setting (Intercultural Developmental Research Association, 1999). This act established two different alternative settings - the Juvenile Justice Alternative Education Programs (JJAEP) and the Disciplinary Alternative Education Programs (DAEP). The legislature requires JJAEPs to be established in counties with over 125,000 residents and is a placement setting for juveniles who are found by a court of law to be guilty of committing an offense described in the Texas Education Code, resulting in mandatory expulsion from school; however, the school district may also place a student in a JJAEP

if the student persistently misbehaves in another disciplinary placement (Hogg

Foundation for Mental Health, 2007). Unlike the JJAEPs, the placement of a student in

DAEP is solely under a school district's discretion and is a more common placement

decision (Hogg Foundation for Mental Health, 2007). DAEPs were created for students

who were not expelled from school, but who were guilty of committing one of the three

offenses: (a) the student commits a crime that is considered a felony outside of school,

(b) the student commits a series of serious offenses while on school property or while

attending a school-sponsored activity, or (c) the student violates the code of conduct that

was developed and implemented by the individual school district (Intercultural

Developmental Research Association, 1999). Students in DAEPs are required to be

separated from students in the regular education setting; however, they must also be

given access to resources needed to complete coursework. Many of the students who

have been placed in DAEPs also have been removed from instruction for discipline

actions or suspensions, which may explain why a majority of these students have

academic difficulties (Scott, Nelson, & Liaupsin, 2001).

Texas Education Agency (TEA) reports every year that over 100,000 Texas

students are placed in a DAEP (Chen, 2007). A current trend observed by researchers

both nationally and statewide is that the overwhelming number of students who are sent

to alternative settings are male and of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds

(Abramson, 2007). In the state of Texas, the percentage of Hispanic students being

placed in DAEPs rose from 41% in 1999 (Intercultural Developmental Research

Association, 1999) to 48% in 2006, while Hispanic student enrollment in schools rose

from 39% to 43% (Abraham, 2007; Cortez & Cortez , 2009) The Texas Youth
Commission (TYC) in 2006 reported similar findings with 44% of those students sent to
TYC are of Hispanic descent (Chen, 2007). This is alarming since students placed in
DAEPs are at greater risk of negative outcomes, such as dropping out of school (Chen,
2007).

Gender Differences

There appears to be consistent evidence that boys are more likely to be placed in
alternative education settings (Abramson, 2007). In the state of Texas, approximately
74% of all students placed in the DAEP are male (Reyes, 2007). Male students are more
than four times as likely as females to be referred to the office; they also are more likely
to be suspended (Bain & MacPherson, 1990; Gregory, 1996; Imich, 1994). Male
students are retained more often in early grades then their female peers, and on average
males receive lower grades on their report cards (Sadker, Sadker, & Klien, 1991). The
gender gap continues to widen as students progress with age. For example, as boys
progress in grade level they are more likely to be persistently truant from school
(Teasley, 2004) and appear to be more influenced by their peer group when compared to
their same age female peers (Landsheer & van Dijkum, 2005). Nationally, females are
more likely to graduate from high school than their male counterparts (Greene &
Winters, 2005). This trend has also been observed in the Hispanic community, with 58%
of Hispanic females graduating from high school in contrast to the 49% graduation rate
for Hispanic males (Greene & Winters, 2005).

National Trends

It is without question that the Hispanic population is growing at an unprecedented rate. The U.S. Census Bureau (2000b; 2003; 2004) confirmed this phenomenon and has projected the Hispanic population to be one quarter of the U.S. population by the year 2050, given that the growth pattern for this group is already four times higher than that of the total U.S. population. By estimates of the U.S. Census Bureau (2003), the number of Hispanics had risen from about twenty-two million in 1990 to thirty-five million in 2000. This reflects a growth rate increase of an estimated 58% within a single decade. Within one year, between 2003 and 2004, the U.S. population growth was estimated at three million and Hispanics alone accounted for nearly one half of that increase (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004).

The percentage of U.S. student population that is Hispanic doubled from 1980 to 1999 and nearly tripled within the last thirty years (i.e. 5.7% in 1973; 8.6% in 1980; to 16.2% in 1999; National Council of La Raza, 2001). It is also interesting to note that demographic trends indicate that, as a whole, the Hispanic population is younger than their non-Hispanic counterparts, in fact one-third of the nation's thirty-five million Hispanics are under the age of eighteen and one-half are under the age of twenty-six (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). It is clear that this age group ultimately may represent either 1) Hispanic children/adolescents currently in the U.S. school system and/or 2) the parents of present or future children/adolescents in the U.S. educational system. Thus, the Hispanic population is currently both the fastest growing ethnic group in the United States and a large growing segment of the U.S. student population with one in every five

children in American public schools being of Hispanic origin (National Council of La Raza, 2001). Moreover, it has been projected that by the year 2020, at least one of every five American children in the United States would be of some Hispanic origin (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1999).

Unfortunately, it is common knowledge that as a whole, and relative to other American ethnic groups, the Hispanic community has low educational attainment (Crosnoe, 2005). These statistics suggest that the U.S. educational system as an entity has done a poor job in responding to the needs of these students and has done so for several decades. Not only is this population growing at an astronomical rate, but so is the research that suggests Hispanic students are currently struggling in school and have the highest high school dropout rate of all ethnic groups (Crosnoe, 2005; Flores et al., 2006). There is a large amount of research literature to support these claims, but more importantly, there is also an emerging literature that identifies the protective and risk factors that these students face.

Risk Factors for Hispanic Youths

It is important to note that although the "at-risk" label may vary slightly based on an operational definition and purpose, it is both a relatively new and known phenomenon that is clearly defined in the research literature. The National Commission on Excellence in Education published a study in 1983 titled "*A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Education Reform";* this document brought attention to a population of children with similar characteristics and gave birth to a new label that characterized these similarities as "at risk" (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). The term "at-risk" has more

recently been associated with and applied to any individual who is of from a culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) background (Catterall, 1998). There is a tendency to also apply this term to a groups of CLD individuals and/or to any group of individuals with elevated probabilities of less than optimal life outcomes (Catterall, 1998; Masten, 1994). A risk factor has been defined as those conditions or variables that could be biological and/or psychosocial in nature and may increase the likelihood of an individual's negative developmental outcome; a risk factor ultimately may compromise that individual's health, well-being, or social performance (Jessor, Ven Don Bos, Vanderryn, Costa, & Turbin, 1995; Werner, 1990). Specific events that are of a stressful nature also have been shown to or been in association with adverse behaviors (Carr & Vandiver, 2001).

Researchers have identified numerous risk factors that might be associated with academic difficulties in Hispanic adolescents. These include minority status, economic hardship/disadvantaged socioeconomic status (SES), single parent home, parental lack of knowledge of United States (U.S.) educational system, understanding English/language barriers, and a higher probability of being placed in special education (Diaz, 1996; Gonzalez & Padilla, 1997; Perez & de la Rosa Salazar, 1997). The National Center for Educational Statistics defined several characteristics that place students at risk for school failure: 1) students from single-parent families, 2) students whose parents were not actively involved in student's school or held low expectations for their child's future educational attainment, 3) students who have repeated a grade or are over-age for their peer groups, 4) students who frequently cut class, are tardy, or absent from school, and

5) students whose teachers thought they were passive, frequently disruptive, inattentive, or students whose teachers thought they were underachievers (Kaufman, Bradby, & Owings, 1992). These factors are discussed in more detail below.

Protective Factors for Hispanic Youths

Despite these risk factors, some individuals are able to successfully adapt in stressful situations and attain deserved outcomes. In effect, research has found that some individuals possess characteristics or have been exposed to environmental factors that may compensate for conditions that otherwise may have placed these individuals at risk. These positive characteristics or environmental factors are called protective factors (Brown, 2006; Burton & Marshall, 2005; Werner & Smith, 2002). Protective factors have been defined as those variables that have a direct effect on a person's behavior, but these protective factors also moderate an individual's risk for a negative outcome (Jessor et al., 1995). The relationship between risk and behavior is positive when the individual possesses a low number of protective factors; however, when the individual possesses a large number of protective factors the opposite is then true. Protective factors are often considered "stabilizing" factors that help a child be successful in relationships, school, and home regardless of the levels of risk (Luthar & Goldstein, 2004).

One construct that has been connected to protective risk factors in the literature is resiliency. Resiliency is an internal construct that aids a person in how they react, understand, and cope with those risk and protective factors that are present in their environment (Taylor, Karcher, Kelly, & Valescu, 2003). Previous research has found that children who are resilient often have multiple protective factors that decrease the

possibility of engaging in troubled behaviors and endorse successful development throughout adolescence (Carr & Vandiver, 2001; Werner & Smith, 2002)**.** Gordon (1996) found that Hispanic high school students who were more resilient were able to more often ignore the opinions of their peers and avoid peer pressure than those who were less resilient. Previous research has found that children who were considered to have a multitude of risk factors were able to successfully adapt because of a variety of protective factors (Gordon, 1996). For example, a child who is biologically at-risk for alcoholism may never engage in this behavior or suffer from alcoholism due to certain protective factors being present in their environment or because of a resiliency process that is unique to that child (Pellegrini, 1990; as cited in Taylor et al., 2003). Thus, the construct of resiliency represents an individual's ability to successfully adapt or spring back when exposed to risk factors as a result of protective factors (Brown, 2006; Carr & Vandiver, 2001).

Cumulative Risk Model

Since a child's development is affected by a complex matrix of individual and external factors that cannot be viewed as separate aspects (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), the cumulative risk model proposes a method to investigate how risk factors function in relation to one another to impact a child's development (Appleyard, Egeland, van Dulmen, & Sroufe, 2005). Although some risk factors may be more associated with negative outcomes when compared to other risk factors, the cumulative risk model is based on the concept that risk and protective factors are intertwined in complex relationships with each other (Sameroff, Seifer, Zax, & Barocas, 1987). Research has

noted that the presence of a single risk factor does not influence a child's development, but rather it is the accumulation of multiple risk factors that can have a negative impact (Johnson & Waldfogel, 2003)**.** Furthermore, the cumulative risk model is based upon research that suggests that the number of risk factors present is a better predictor of a child's outcome than the kind of risk factor (Rutter, 1979; Sameroff, 2000; Sameroff et al., 2003). For example, the cumulative risk model would place a child who has four risk factors at a greater risk for negative outcomes then a child who has one or two risk factors. The cumulative risk model calculates a risk score for each child by summing up the number of risk factors present in the child's life. For example, a child who is low SES, whose mother did not graduate from high school, and who has been retained would have a total risk score of 3; the model suggests a child with a high risk score would be at a great risk for maladaptive outcomes.

Categories of Risk and Protective Factors

Risk and protective factors consist of a person's social, emotional, economic, and academic influences. Researchers have found that children   are negatively or positively affected by different aspects of their environment, including school and the child's relationships (Bynner, 2002). For example familial factors, such as the quality of the parent child relationship, have been shown to have a connection to problem behaviors as well as positive outcomes, such as successful adolescent development (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). In addition, personal factors that are unique to the child, such as self-regulation and self-esteem, have been associated with a child's level of resiliency (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). As a result, researchers who have identified protective factors that

have buffered the effects of risk factors, have also been able to place these factors into categories (Carr & Vandiver, 2001).

Garmezy (1985) identified three categories that encompass the variety of variables that may be present in an individual's environment and a source of both risk and protective factors. These categories are 1) community based, or those factors that include external support systems such as peers, school, and religious affiliations; 2) family-based, which are connected with relationships inside the family; and 3) dispositional attributes or child's perception factors that are unique to the individual, such as self-efficacy (Garmezy, 1985). This is very similar to Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological model, in which a child is not only affected by his or her individual traits, but also by their direct environment (microsystem level), the interrelationships with those individuals present in their immediate environment (mesosystem level), as well as a broader social setting including (exosystem and macrosystem level). Both the ecological model and Garmezy's three category systems acknowledge that, when examining the risks factors present in a child's development, the entire context where the development occurs must be examined; however, Garmezy's (1985) model differs from other ecological models because it accounts for protective factors. This resiliency ecological model recognizes that each individual exists within a complicated network of individual, family, community, and environmental contexts that impacts their capacity to avoid risk. The categories described by Garmezy will be used to further describe risk and protective factors that will be the focus of this study; however, the community category encompasses such a broad area and will be split into three parts -school, peers, and

community. The risk of overlooking the important risk or protective factors increases when school, peers, and community is incorporated into one category, but by separating the community category into three separate factors it will provide more detailed information about the significant role each of these areas of risk factors have on student outcomes.

Because of the focus on Hispanic males, the current study also included a fourth category to capture the acculturation level of the student. Acculturation has been defined as the process of change that results from continuous contact with individuals from a different culture (Berry, Trimble, & Olmedo, 1986). Acculturation occurs across several domains: psychological, language, personality, identity, and stress (Marin & Marin, 1991). Since the degree of acculturation is reflected in attitudes of individuals and effects their beliefs, research that includes Hispanic individuals is more robust when acculturation is assessed (Bauman, 2005). The acculturation levels factor in this study will be used to investigate the level at which the individual relates to the white Anglo culture, as well as his native culture.

Community-based Factors

The community-based category encompasses external support systems including school, teachers, peers, and supportive members in the community. This category of protective and risk factors is comprised of characteristics of the child's environment, as that environment can enhance or impede a child's development (Rak & Patterson, 1996). Fraser (2004) defined environmental risk factors as those characteristics of an individual's environment that predict poor developmental outcomes, such as schools and

neighborhoods with limited resources. In contrast, protective environmental factors are those characteristics that promote positive outcomes (Fraser, 2004). For example, research has found that having support systems that include adults of no relation, such as a teacher or mentor, is a strong protective factor (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). Other community factors include gang membership, school, peers, and neighborhood characteristics.

Role Model/Mentor. The presence of an emotionally supportive person outside the child's family, such as a clergy person, a teacher, or a neighbor, with whom the child can bond with has been shown to be a protective factor against anti-social behavior (Beam, Gil-Rivas, Greenberger, & Chen, 2002; Demaray & Malecki, 2002), as well as negative outcomes such as identifying with delinquent peers or joining a gang (Thornberry, 1998). In addition, non-parental adults are very important because they provide an adolescent with positive adult role models (Burton & Marshall, 2005). Further, a general sense of social support can moderate the effects of exposure to community disarray and crime (Hammack, Richards, Luo, Edlynn, & Roy, 2004). Conversely, the presence of a non-related adult in an adolescent's life has also been shown to be a potential risk factor. Research has found that adolescent males were more likely to engage in delinquent acts when they believed their non-related, very important adult was involved in illegal behavior (Greenberg, Lengua, Coie, & Pinderhughes, 1999). In contrast, an individual is less likely to commit crimes against their own community when he/she feels connected to different individuals within the community (Burton & Marshall, 2005).

Neighborhood Characteristics. Research has found a strong correlation between types of risk and/or protective factors and characteristics of an adolescent's neighborhood (Sampson, Raudenbush, & Earls, 1997; Wandersman & Nation, 1998). For example, neighborhoods with high crime rates, gangs, and of low SES have been linked to higher rates of juvenile delinquent acts, anti-social behavior, lack of positive role models, lower levels of school climate, and an overall lack of resources (Bowen, Bowen, & Ware, 2002; Cook et al., 2000; Farrington & West, 1993; Pinderhughes et al., 2001; Sampson et al., 1997; Seidman et al., 1998; Wilson, 1996). A neighborhood has been found to be protective when those living in the area perceive it as safe and a good place to live, regardless of the poverty level or other maladaptive variables (Burton & Jarrett, 2000).

Children living in urban or inner-city neighborhoods have been found to be at-great risk for maladaptive outcomes. For example, previous studies have found that children living in poor urban settings are more likely to have witnessed a violent crime than children in a rural or suburban area (Buka, Stichick, Birdthistle, & Earls, 2001; Gorman-Smith & Tolan, 1998; Margolin & Gordis, 2000; Miller, Wasserman, Neugebauer, Gorman-Smith, & Kamboukos, 1999). When these violent events are observed or happen to a child, they force that child to adjust and accept these events as part of their development (Pearlin, 1999). Research has found that boys who were exposed to violence were more likely to become victims, get into fights, be disciplined at school, and carry weapons (Jenkins & Bell, 1994). Thus, exposure to community violence is a strong predictor of delinquent outcomes and at-risk behaviors (Berenson,

Wiemann, & McCombs, 2001; Peacock, McClure, & Agars, 2003). According to the US Census Bureau (2000), a large majority of Hispanic families live in urban area and previous research has found that adolescents who live in urban areas and are between the ages of 12 and 24 are four times more likely to experience violent victimization than other age groups (Catalano, 2003).

Extracurricular Activities. Participation in structured extracurricular activities, such as sports, youth groups, or scouts, provides adolescents with opportunities to create positive relationships with individuals outside their families and typical groups of friends (Brown & Evans, 2002; Burton & Marshall, 2005; Rak & Patterson, 1996), as well as the opportunity to build skills needed for adulthood (Nation Research Council and Institute of Medicine, 2002). Students who participate in extracurricular activities after school are more likely to have fewer behavior problems (Rumberger, 1995), are less likely to drop out of school (Burton & Marshall, 2005), and are more likely to enroll in college, volunteer, and vote when eligible (Zaff, Moore, Papillo, & Williams, 2001). Further, adolescents who are involved in structured extracurricular activities may be taught such skills as time management, goal setting, and responsibility (Dworkin, Larson, & Hansen, 2003).

Some research has found that activities that are more pro-social, such as volunteering, scouts, and church groups, were associated with lower levels of at-risk behaviors; conversely, participation in sports teams has been linked to higher levels of substance abuse (Eccles & Barber, 1999) and aggressive behavior (Burton & Marshall, 2005). Other researchers have reported athletic groups as a positive extracurricular

activity because they expose the adolescent to academically-oriented peers and encourage the adolescent to make future educational plans (Braddock, 1981; Davalos, Chavez, & Guardiola, 1999). It has been suggested that extracurricular activities, including sports, provide some adolescents with a venue where they can compete and feel successful in a way that the classroom may never have allowed (Issacs & Duffus, 1995).

Despite the debate on the importance of the type of extracurricular activity an adolescent participates in, it still seems that any adult supervised structured activity limits a child's risk for delinquent behaviors (Yin, Katims, & Zapata, 1999). The Department of Health and Human Services (Zill, 1995) reported that students who did not participate in after school activities were 57% more likely to drop out of school, 27% more likely to commit a delinquent act, and 49% more likely to abuse substances. Overall, research has suggested that participation in extracurricular activities can provide an adolescent with a sense of accomplishment, a group to belong to, and foster their interest in school (Oliver, 1995). Research has previously found that Hispanic adolescents who participate in extracurricular actives where less likely to drop out of school and had a higher perception of school (Davalos, Chavez, & Guardiola, 1999).

School-based Factors

Schools play a very important role in an adolescent's development by providing rules and reinforcing social norms that can buffer against risk factors (Vazsonyi & Flannery, 1997). Schools provide students with a social environment that includes peers, teachers, and administrators. The social climate of a school has been associated with

student social emotional functioning (Cook et al., 2000) and includes the opportunities to join extracurricular activities (Wassef et al., 1996). Each school has unique characteristics that have a direct effect on students, such as school compositions, the relationships between students and faculty, and school safety (Woolley & Grogan-Kaylor, 2006).

School Safety. School performance and other student outcomes have been linked to the degree to which students feel safe when they are at school (Bowen, Richman, Brewster, & Bowen, 1998). Schools that are perceived as safe and nurturing are protective factors for students and are associated with higher academic performance and higher school attendance (Bowen & Bowen, 1999). Although schools may serve as safe places for some adolescents, the school can also be a place where some students are bullied or engage in violent behaviors (Kann et al., 1998). The National Center for Educational Statistics (1999) reported that 71% of the nation's public schools experienced one or more crimes on their campus, with 20% of these schools experiencing a more violent incident on campus, such as rape, physical attack with a weapon, and robbery. When students do not feel their school is a safe environment, students are less likely to confide in teachers and more likely to get into fights (Brookmeyer, Fanti, & Henrich, 2006). Previous research has shown that Hispanic students are more likely to attend some of the most poorly funded and most segregated schools that often experience serious crime problems (DeBlassie & DeBlassie, 1996; Eamon, 2001; U.S. Department of Education, 2003).

School Composition. School composition has been associated with achievement and the number of resources available to the students (Ryabov & Van Hook, 2007). Schools that have over a 90% minority student population are 14 times more likely to have a larger low SES population of students than schools with a larger Caucasian population (Orfield, Eaton, & Jones, 1997). Research suggests that teachers who teach middle class white students tend to cover more content and teach at a more challenging level then those teachers who work with lower SES students (August & Hakuta, 1997). Children who attend schools with a lower SES population and larger minority status on average have fewer resources available to them and as a result may have less of an opportunity to learn that children who attend schools with higher SES levels (Ryabov & Van Hook, 2007). At the same time students reported a higher level of attachment to their school when both the student body and teachers were of their own ethnicity/culture. For example, Hispanic adolescents have reported feeling more comfortable at school when there is a presence of Hispanic teachers in their schools (Johnson, Crosnoe, & Elder, 2001).

Retention. Retention refers to repeating a grade after an individual has been in that grade for a full academic year (Willson & Hughes, 2006). Researchers have observed the aversive effects of retention for quite some time. Previous research has shown that children who are retained are more likely to drop out of school (Hess & Greer, 1987; Padilla, Trevino, Gonzalez, & Trevino, 1997) and have poor adjustment and attitudes toward school (Smink, 2001). Others have found that retention had a profound adverse effect on a student's emotional and social functioning (Jimerson,

2001). Grade retention has been linked to several maladaptive future outcomes such as dropping out of high school, not attending college, unemployment, and incarceration (Entwisle, Alexander, & Olson, 1997; Timlman, Guo, & Harris, 2004). Notably, in 1999, Hispanic children in Kindergarten through 12th grade were retained more often than their Caucasian counterparts; Hispanics are also estimated to comprise over half of all students who drop out of high school (National Council of La Raza, 2003).

Absence/Truancy. The National Center for Educational Center for Statistics (1996) found that 55% of teachers in inner-city school districts, 45% of teachers in suburban areas, and 28% of teachers in rural areas reported that absenteeism and truancy constitute very serious problems. Absenteeism is defined as a period of not attending school, often with parental or health care professional's permission (Strickland, 1998), while truancy is defined as an unexcused and unlawful absence from school (Bell, Rosen, & Dynlacht, 1994). Although absenteeism and truancy have different meanings, both have similar outcomes. While girls are more likely to have higher absentee rates, boys are more likely to be persistently truant from school as they progress in grade levels (Loeber & Farrington, 2000; Teasley, 2004). Poor school attendance has been linked to delinquent behavior, academically falling behind, and school avoidance (McCluskey, 2004; Teasley, 2004), as well as having serious implications for future criminal activity (Huizinga & Jalob-Chen, 1998). School attendance has been identified as a protective factor for youth who are at-risk for dropping out of school or committing delinquent acts (Henry, Caspi, Moffitt, Harrington, & Silva, 1999). An analysis of Hispanic students' dropout rates revealed that in a

sample of 453 Hispanic students who had dropped out of school, 53% reported having

skipped class often, while only 16% of 374 students who had graduated from high

school reported skipping class often (Egemba, 2003).

Suspensions and Expulsions An alarming current trend found in many schools is

the use of suspension, expulsions, or off campus alternative education settings as a

disciplinary practice; these practices result in the child being absent and unable to

participate in the classroom, which can confound the difficulties students with academic

or behavior problems are already experiencing (Scott et al., 2001; Wolfgang, 1999).

Previous research has found that students who missed school instruction 15% or more of

the time were more likely to drop out of school (Rumberger, 1995). Research also

suggested that time out of the classroom due to expulsions increases the chance an

adolescent will be exposed to negative or criminal activity in the community (Skiba &

Peterson, 2002). The negative attention from these forms of punishment leaves the

student feeling unimportant and leaves them more at risk for feeling alienated, frustrated

and even bored, which can result in more misconduct, lower motivation, lower academic

success, and dropping out of school (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). The consequences of

these forms of punishment are unfortunate when considering Hispanic adolescents have

the highest drop out rate when compared to other ethnic groups (National Center for

Educational Statistics, 2006).

Relationship with Teachers. Most school age children spend a significant amount

of their time interacting with teachers (Pianta, Nimetz, & Bennett, 1997) and they are

influenced by the relationships they have with these adults (Birch & Ladd, 1996).

Relationships with teachers can contribute not only to the child's school adjustment, but also to social-emotional outcomes (Birch et al., 1999; Ladd, Kochenderfer, & Coleman, 1997; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004), as well as motivational levels (Wentzel, 2004). The quality of teacher relationships is also associated with academic success (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Pianta et al., 1997; Pianta & Steinberg, 1992) and peer relations (Hughes, Cavell, & Willson, 2001; Taylor, 1989). Children who feel they have a close relationship with their teacher presumably feel they are supported in the classroom by the teacher; this empowers them to interact with their environment and peers. Literature suggests that for some children the teacher is a secure figure who can offer support and help in managing challenges they face in school (Ladd et al., 1997). For example, Hispanic students, whose parents do not speak English or are immigrants, may turn to teachers as a vital source of information regarding the education system (Crosnoe et al., 2004). Adolescents who believe they have a close and secure relationship with a teacher are more likely to actively participate in class, have positive attitudes toward school (Birch & Ladd, 1998; Pianta & Steinberg, 1992), and report being more involved and engaged in classroom activities, which reciprocates into an increase in the child's motivation to succeed in the classroom (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Moreover, teacher expectations and behaviors are related to student outcomes (Wentzel, 2004).

Teacher-student relationships are linked to the child's behavior in the classroom. Students are less likely to get in trouble when they have positive views of their teachers (Crosnoe et al., 2004). Relationships that teachers have reported as negative are

characterized by conflict and overdependence (Pianta et al., 1997) and have negative

effects on the child's behavior (Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004). Children who are more

aggressive, who display antisocial behaviors, who are hyperactive, and who are defiant

are also more likely to be less close and have highly conflictual relationships with

teachers (Birch & Ladd, 1998; Murray & Murray, 2004). A longitudinal study found

that a conflictual teacher-student relationship was associated with aggressive and less

well-adjusted behaviors over time (Ladd & Burgess, 2001). Teacher-student

relationships that are conflictual have been linked to externalizing behaviors (Silver,

Measelle, Armstrong, & Essex, 2005) and low academic achievement because these

children do not receive the emotional support that they need. The effect of a negative

teacher-student relationship a child has with one teacher in early childhood may continue

to affect a child later in life. These conflictual teacher-student relationships could lead

children to feel unwelcome and choose not to participate in classroom activities, while

also limiting the individual instruction time that is offered to the child from the teacher

(Ladd, Birch, & Buhs, 1999). Children determine how likable a child is by referencing

the quality of the relationship that child has with the teacher as observed in the

classroom (Hughes et al., 2001).

Throughout the teacher-student relationship literature, gender differences in the

quality of the relationship have been found. Males on average demonstrate

characteristics that are more associated with externalizing and antisocial behaviors

(Sadker et al., 1991; Silver et al., 2005) that are not acceptable in most classrooms.

Teachers more often rate their own relationships with boys as conflictual and less close

then the relationships they have with girls (Birch & Ladd, 1998; Hughes et al., 2001).

The conflictual relationships teachers report with boys has been associated with males'

lower academic performance in school (Sadker et al., 1991). Therefore teacher-student

relationships with male students are more likely to be conflictual, placing male students

at risk for peer rejection.

Peer-based Factors

Extensive research has continued to focus on the possible outcomes associated

with adolescents' relationships with peers who have committed delinquent acts or anti-

social behaviors. This research has found that an affiliation with peers who have

committed delinquent acts is in fact a stronger indicator of an adolescent's future

delinquent behavior than other variables such as school, neighborhood, or family

(Gifford-Smith, Dodge, Dishion, & McCord, 2005). Peer influence has been shown to be

the strongest predictor of substance abuse among high school students (Almodovar,

Tomaka, Thompson, McKinnon, & O'Rourke, 2006).

During adolescence, individuals are in the process of asserting their independence

from their parents and often rely on their relationships with their peers to provide them

with validation and support (Furman, 1996; Moffit et al., 1996). Males appear to be

more influenced by their peer group during adolescence when compared to adolescent

females (Landsheer & van Dijkum, 2005); as such, this influence is congruent with the

positive relations that was found between boys who commit delinquent acts and their

involvement with deviant peers (Toro & Heinze, 2004). Previous research found that for

boys ages 13-14 years, being friends with individuals who had committed some

delinquent acts was predictive of the level of their delinquent offenses two years later (Dishion, Spracklen, Andrews, & Patterson, 1996).

As with teacher relationships, males have been found to have more conflictual relationships with peers; they are often more likely to be disliked by their peers because of their aggressive behaviors (Murray & Murray, 2004), which places males student at risk for peer rejection. Children who have been rejected by their peers often look toward deviant peers for acceptance and support, which results in an increase in hostile behaviors (Coie & Miller-Johnson, 2001). Adolescents who are liked less by their peers and/or are socially rejected are often excluded from activities and given fewer opportunities to socially interact with peers (Brown, 2006). When a classroom of children is asked to rank which of their peers have the best behavior in the class, the same children who are voted most liked are also selected as the best behaved; when the same peers are asked to select which child behaves the worst, these are often the same children ranked the most disliked (Hymel, 1986). This could result in the disliked child's behavior being interpreted in a negative way, validating the negative opinion and resulting in an adverse cycle (Hymel, 1986). This is a double-edged sword in that rejection by one's peers can affect a child's sense of self; thus, these children are at a greater risk to experience poorer school adjustment, a negative attitude toward school, and underachievement (Ladd, 1990). Alternatively, the degree to which a child connects to his/her peers in their school is a protective factor for school success and social adjustment (McNeely, Nonnemaker, & Blum, 2002).

Gang Membership. One particular aspect of peer relationships that is of concern is gang affiliation. Law enforcement has defined a gang as a group of individuals who gather together to commit anti-social or delinquent behaviors (Malec, 2004). Some individuals who have been victimized or witnessed a crime may see a gang as way to cope with these injustices (Van Dorn & Williams, 2003). Others have suggested that gang membership may be a child's "surrogate family" that provides the child with structure and a sense of belonging (Eitle, Gunkel, & Van Gundy, 2004; Thornberry, Huizinga, & Loeber, 2004). Hispanic adolescents may find acceptance in gangs due to a feeling of disconnect with their traditional Hispanic parents and the main stream culture (Malec, 2004). Furthermore, Thornberry (1998) found that Hispanics were more likely to join a gang because their parents were members of the same gang, rather than because of peer pressure.

Regardless of an individual's reason for joining a gang, research has continued to show gang membership as a risk factor for a variety of negative outcomes. Previous studies have found that individuals who were members of a gang committed more offenses after entering the gang and were guilty of such offenses as illegal gun ownership, fighting, and drug sales (Battin, Hill, Abbott, Catalano, & Hawkins, 1998; Thornberry et al., 2004; Thornberry, Krohn, Lizotte, Smith, & Tobin, 2003). Male gang members have been found to be more likely to drop out of high school, become teenage fathers, and continue to commit delinquent acts through adolescence and into adulthood (Sherman et al., 1997; Thornberry et al., 2004). A survey of 1,527 children, found that individuals who joined gangs were more involved with delinquent peers, committed

more group crimes, and committed more crimes alone both before and after they joined a gang when compared to their same age peers who were not gang members (Thornberry et al., 2004); however, previous research has suggested Hispanics have associated gang membership with personal goals or acceptance rather than delinquent acts (Curry & Spergel, 1992; Malec, 2004). Thus for Hispanics, gang membership may not be as great of a risk factor as for their non-Hispanic peers (Henry, Tolan, & Gorman-Smith, 2001).

Family-based Factors

Family-based factors are those factors that are present within the family (Carr & Vandiver, 2001)**;** research has suggested that family is the most powerful social influence on adolescent development (Perrino et al., 2000). The family is the primary setting where the child learns behavior and develops their personality; the family provides a climate that influences the child's personality development (Campbell, 1994). Some of the family-based risk factors include living below the poverty level, low parent level of education , having meager parent involvement, and living in single-parent homes (McLoyd, 1998).

Parent Level of Education. Often family structure and SES are risk factors that are indirectly related to a parent's level of education. A positive relationship has been found between a mother's level of education, her age at the birth of her first child, and SES (Couseur, Rivara, Barnoski, & Emanuel, 1997). It should be noted that those Hispanic mothers who delayed having children until a later age had higher English proficiency and had children who were more successful in school (Eamon, 2005). Conversely, research has found that lower parent education has been linked to children

experiencing psychosocial adjustment difficulties, poor cognitive development (Gutman, Sameroff, & Eccles, 2002; Jackson, 2003; Prelow & Loukas, 2003), a major variable in a child's well-being (Chen, Matthews, & Boyce, 2002), and low parental expectations in the area of academic achievement (Alexander, Entwisle, & Bedinger, 1994; Halle, Kurtz-Costes, & Mahoney, 1997). It should be noted that Hispanics are less likely to graduate from high school or attend college when compared to their African American, Asian, and Caucasian peers (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000); furthermore, only 40 % of Hispanics over the age of 25 have graduated from high school (U.S. Census Bureau, 2003). Following from this, it is likely that a large number of Hispanic parents have not completed high school and live in poverty settings.

SES. Children with stressful economic levels more often live in poverty stricken neighborhoods that are characterized by higher rates of crime, violence, unemployment, and low social support (Eamon, 2005). Previous research has shown that there is a strong indirect relationship between household income, ethnicity, and externalizing behaviors that predicts negative outcomes in adolescents (Barrera et al., 2002; Guerra, Huesmann, Tolan, Van Acker, & Eron, 1995; Rumberger, 1995). Hispanic children are three times more at an economic disadvantage than their European American counterparts and attend some of the most underfunded schools in the nation (Eamon, 2001). Both children and adolescents of CLD backgrounds are over-represented among those living below the national poverty level (Prelow & Loukas, 2003). These children also have the tendency in adulthood to be affected by both lower status jobs and jobs

with lower wages that may adversely affect following generations (Hauser & Sweeney, 1997; Prelow & Loukas, 2003).

Generation. A risk factor that is often discussed in conjunction with the Hispanic population is generation, which refers to the amount of time an individual and/or his/her family has lived in the United States. Research has found that these generational differences often are associated with different negative outcomes. Children who are in the first generation to migrate to the United States, as well as those in the second generation, tend to associate more with their family members and are less likely to be influenced by peers (Crosnoe, 2005; Hirschman, 2001; Kao & Tienda, 1995). The third generation of individuals are those children born to parents who themselves were born in the United States. These third generation children will be less likely to be as successful in academics, have a tendency to associate more with their peers than family members, and are often the most at risk (Kao & Tienda, 1995; Zhou, 1997). For example, the third generation is more likely to be influenced by peers, linked to delinquent acts, and associates more with the dominant culture than previous generations (Crosnoe, 2005; Cuarati-Burgio, 2000). The first and second generation are often at a higher risk of retention in middle and high school, and are at-risk of school dropout due to low levels of English proficiency (Tillman, Guo, & Harris, 2004). It should be noted that while 43% of the foreign born first generation drop out of school before graduating, this is often a result of language barriers (Hess, 2000).

Parent Involvement. Parental involvement has been defined as "the dedication of resources by the parent to the child within a given domain" (Grolnick & Slowiaczek,

1994 p.237). Parent involvement has been highly correlated with a reduction of anti-social behaviors, good grades, and going to college after high school graduation (Federal Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistics, 2000). Parental emotional support can decrease an adolescent's risk of delinquent behavior and serve as a protective factor against external stress, such as peers, school, and teachers (Gauze et al., 1996). Research has also found that children who are better adjusted and successful in school tend to come from homes where the parent has high expectations for the child, high levels of parental monitoring (Diaz, 1996; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Klein & Forehand, 2000) and the parent is very involved in the child's school (Gutman, Sameroff, & Eccles, 2002)**.**

Parental academic involvement has been described as a parent's work with school and with their children to benefit their children's educational outcomes and future success (Hill et al., 2004). The National Center for Educational Statistics (1998) stated that those students whose parents were not actively involved in their school, whose parents never talked to them about school related matters, or whose parents held low expectations for the student's future educational attainment were at risk for negative school outcomes and possibly dropping out. Previous research has suggested that Hispanic parent have high education aspiration for their children (Goldenberg & Gallimore, 1995), yet the extent to which Hispanic parents are involved in their child's school is often directly related to their cultural knowledge. Parent involvement has had a positive effect on rate of absenteeism, (Gutman Sameroff, & Eccles, 2002), greater involvement and persistence in cognitive problem solving activities in school settings,

which in turn leads to academic achievement (Sroufe, Carlson, & Shulman, 1993), related to pro-social interactions (Hetherington & Parke, 1993), decreased likelihood of externalizing adaptation to new situations, including transition to school (Bretherton, 1985).

Family Structure. Previous research has concluded that a child's home environment and, more importantly, the members of the family create an atmosphere that shapes the child's personality and cognitive development (Johnson, 1992). One risk factor associated with family structure is family size, which is frequently used as a predictor of poverty, due to the greater amount of resources needed by larger families (Lewin & Maurin, 2005). Children in families with more than four children are at a greater risk for neglect due to the lack of time the parents are available to spend with their children. In addition, typically these parents also have a lower level of education (Aquilino, 1996; Moore, Vandivere, & Redd, 2006)**.**

Family structure, such as single parent homes and parental divorce, has also been identified as risk factors with possible negative outcomes. Nearly 20 million children in the United States live in single family homes (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2001)**.** Children who are raised in a single parent home are more likely to engage in externalizing behaviors and substance abuse (Amato, 2000; Amato & Keith, 1991), participate in delinquent activities with peers (Pan & Farrell, 2006)**,** and exhibit antisocial behaviors (Judy & Farrington, 2001) when compared to children who live in a two-parent home. Research has also found that children born to unmarried mothers or who were raised in a family with step-parents were also more at risk for not graduating

from high school when compared to children who were adopted and raised in a two

parent home (Aquilino, 1996). Judy and Farrington (2001) found that children who

experience parental separation or divorce were more likely to commit delinquent acts

than children whose parents were deceased. The U.S. Bureau of Census (2005) found

34% of Hispanic children under the age of 18 living in single parent homes (U.S. Bureau

of the Census, 2005) and children who experience the loss or separation from a parent

are more likely to experience both short and long term adjustment difficulties (Bowlby,

1973).

Extended Family. A supportive relationship with at least one parent has been

found to provide a child with support and serve as a protective factor for children who

are at-risk (Ferguson & Lynskey, 1996); however, children without a supportive

nurturing parent may find a similar protective relationship with an alternative care giver,

such as a grandparent (Hatchett & Jackson, 1993; Werner, 1993)**.** Support from

extended family has been linked to a student's academic success regardless of the parent

level of education (Werner, 1993). Extended family members can provide critical

support to an adolescent during the absence of a parent or during transition periods (Hill,

1999). In fact, the presence of an extended family member living in the home tends to

offset the risk factors present in a single parent home where the biological father is not

present, such that these children have been found to be as well adjusted as those children

from two-parent homes (DeLeire & Kalil, 2002; U.S. Department of Health and Human

Services, 2004).

The existing literature suggests that Hispanic and African American families tend to have larger family networks and may benefit more from their extended family than Caucasian families (Wilson & Hughes, 2006). Moreover, researchers have found that Hispanics have stronger tendencies to place importance on familial support than their non-Hispanic counterparts (Parke & Buriel, 1998). The term *familismo* is used in the Hispanic community to describe the attachment Hispanics have towards their extended family members, as well as to express the importance that is placed on the extended family (Triandis, Marin, Bentacourt, Lisansky, & Chang, 1982). The "close knit, extended family network" may serve as a protective factor for Hispanics (Escobar, 1998, pp.782) regardless of the individual's length of time or generation in the United States (Vazquez-Garcia, Garcia-Coll, Erkut, Alarcon, & Tropp, 2000). One study found that 89% of Hispanics reported their relationships with relatives were of greater importance than friendships (Pew Hispanic Center & Kaiser Family Foundation, 2002). Hispanic families more often live near or with extended family members and stay in close contact with those family members (Baca Zinn & Wells, 2000; Kamo, 2000). Extended family members in the Hispanic community provide a support system to young parents by providing child care (Sarkisian, Gerena, & Gerstel, 2006; Uttal, 1999), helping with household chores (Sarkisian et al., 2006), and attending church service together (Hunt, 2000). Hispanic adolescents who have a strong bond with an extended family member are less at-risk for substance abuse (Unger et al., 2002) and externalizing behaviors (Pabon, 1998).

Family Member Incarceration. One particular instance of lack of parental

involvement, may be due to parental incarceration, with compounding effects on the

child. A child's first encounter with acceptable and unacceptable behavior is often in the

home; home is frequently where a child is first introduced to violent and deviant

behavior (Sharpe & Litzelfelner, 2004). Research has found that children who are

exposed to violent events are more likely to develop externalizing behaviors (Guerra,

Huesmann, Spindler, & 2003; Salzinger, Feldman, Stockhammer, & Hood, 2002);

however, witnessing a violent event is not as important as an individual's perception of

observing a violent incident (Hill & Madhere, 1996). Further, adolescent males were

more likely to engage in delinquent behaviors if the adolescent believed a significant

person in their lives was also involved in unlawful behaviors (Greenberg & Kusché,

1998). Similarly, individuals whose family members partake in deviant behaviors are

more likely to adopt those same deviant attitudes (Curry & Decker, 1998; Hill, Howell,

Hawkins, & Battin-Pearson, 1999; Sharpe & Litzelfelner, 2004), share similar

delinquent patterns and commit comparable illegal acts (Gorman-Smith, Tolan, &

Henry, 2000; Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1986); when parents abuse drugs or express

positive attitudes toward drugs, adolescent drug use is higher (Denton & Kampfe, 1994).

Furthermore, parents who model deviant behavior are more likely to avoid punishing

deviant behavior, defend their children's action to law enforcement or the judicial

system, and actively teach their children more aggressive behaviors(Stouthamer-Loeber

& Loeber, 1988). Children whose family members have been incarcerated are more

likely to form friendships with peers who have committed delinquent acts (Hill et al.,

1999; Loeber & Farrington, 1998; Sharpe & Litzelfelner, 2004), exhibit antisocial

behaviors during adolescents, and possibly experience a range of psychosocial problems,

including truancy, depression, and aggressive behaviors (Murray & Farrington, 2005).

Child's Perception Factors

Child's perception factors are those factors that are inherent characteristics that

are unique to the individual child, such as self-efficacy, self-determination, self-

regulation, and life satisfaction. This category encompasses an individual's unique

intrinsic characteristics that cannot be solely attributed to external risk or protective

factors, but instead how the child perceives these external risk and protective factors. A

child's perception of school, their teacher, himself/herself, and their relationship with

their parents can have a positive or negative influence on the child (Birch & Ladd, 1996)

and has been linked to behavioral and developmental outcomes (Harper, 1999). A

number of studies have found that an individual's perception of an available support

system that includes family, friends, teachers, and individuals from the community is far

more important than the actual availability of support (Martin & Gamba, 2003;

Wethington & Kessler, 1986). Additional studies have also found that a positive self-

concept or self-perception of oneself is a protective factors for adolescents (Crocker &

Major, 1989; Phinney, 2003). This study will focus on two internal characteristics - self-

efficacy and life-satisfaction.

Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy has been defined as "beliefs in one's capacity to

organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situation"

(Bandura, 1977, p. 171). Self-efficacy has been viewed as an important protective factor

because it describes an individual's perception or confidence in their ability to control events that affect their daily lives and know what actions to take in order to get their desired outcome (Muris, 2001). Research has shown that high levels of self-efficacious beliefs are associated with the ability to cope and endure strenuous situations (Hamill, 2003), attract support from others (Bandura, 1997), as well as a greater sense of personal competence (Pajares, 1997), lower levels of stress and depression (Chin & Kameoka, 2002; Jenkins, Goodness, & Buhrmester, 2002; Tillema, Cervone, & Scott, 2001), and lower levels of substance abuse (Baker, 1996) when compared to individuals with lower self-efficacious beliefs. A person's level of self-efficacy can affect not only their belief in their current ability, but it can deter a person from seeking opportunities to improve or increase their ability (Reich et al., 2004).

An individual's perception of their ability is not constant, but instead the level of a person's sense of competence is related to the demands of a particular situation or domain (Bandura, 1997). For example, a child may feel they are able to initiate and maintain social relationships, but perceives himself/herself with less ability in academic areas. Academic self-efficacy has continually been shown to be an important variable in a child's academic achievement (Pajares & Schunk, 2005). Academic self-efficacy is a student's belief in their ability to be able to solve problems and succeed at academic tasks (Usher & Pajares, 2006). It should be noted that the literature in this area describes a decrease in a majority of adolescents academic self-efficacy during the middle school grades and transition to high school (Oyserman, Harrison, & Bybee, 2001; Seidman & French, 1997). Bassi, Steca, Fave, and Caprara (2007) found that students with an

elevated sense of academic self-efficacy in junior high school received higher grades and their teacher's gave these students higher evaluations; students with lower academic self-efficacy spent less time on their homework, reported liking tasks when the student was allowed to select the task, and were offered less of an opportunity during the school day to build skills with more demanding tasks. Previous research has found that males are often less impacted by the messages they receive from teachers and other adults around them, but their self-efficacy is more associated with their accomplishments and failures (Anderson & Betz, 2001; Usher & Pajares, 2006). Locke and Newcomb (2005) found that Hispanic males who had a high sense of self-efficacy in the area of problem-solving also had higher levels of self worth, while Salazar (2005) found that Hispanic students who attended night school to receive high school credits were more likely to have a higher success rate when learning English when compared to other individuals with lower self-efficacy.

Another area of self-efficacy research of importance is in the area of social self-efficacy. Social self-efficacy is a person's belief in how effectively he/she can deal with social tasks or develop relationships (Ehrenberg, Cox, & Koopman, 1991; Suldo & Shaffer, 2007). A higher sense of social self-efficacy has been associated with having more satisfying and supportive relationships than individuals with lower social self-efficacy (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996); however, this can equate to forming relationships with individuals who display anti-social behavior or commit delinquent acts (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 2001). Lower levels of

social self-efficacy have been linked to depression, limited number of peer relationships, and higher reports of stress in their daily lives (McFarlane et al., 1995).

Emotional self-efficacy is another domain that is considered in the literature and is often considered a part of the self-regulation construct (Suldo & Shaffer, 2007). Related to self-regulation, emotional self-efficacy is belief in one's ability to regulate one's emotions and ability to control negative emotions (Hamill, 2003; Suldo & Shaffer, 2007). Emotional self-efficacy has been considered to be one of the elements of social intelligence and is thought to encompass such domains as empathy, impulsivity, and assertiveness (Petrides et al., 2006). Children who have higher emotional self-efficacy have been found to be better equipped to handle peer rejection, have higher tolerance for stress, commit fewer delinquent acts, and are less likely to be truant or expelled from school. Petrides et al. (2006) hypothesized that lower levels of emotional self-efficacy may place a child at risk for peer rejection, which has been shown to be associated with anti-social behavior or delinquent acts.

Overall a general low level of self-efficacy can be viewed as a risk factor or a determinant variable because the motivation to complete a task or behave in a certain manner is lessened when a person perceives himself/herself as unable to accomplish the tasks (Suldo & Shaffer, 2007). Individuals with lower self-efficacy have been shown to avoid difficult tasks, dwell on their own inadequacies when they are unable to succeed at a task (Bandura, 1997) and are likely to engage in healthy behaviors (Luszczynska, Scholz, & Schwarzer, 2005). Due to this, Bandura (1997) suggested that self-efficacy

not only impacts behavior, but also is essential to an individual's current and future well-being.

Life Satisfaction. Well-being is a construct that is often referred to as an individual's perceived control over positive feelings or an ability to find enjoyment from different positive experiences (Cafasso, 1998). Well-being has been operationalized into two components 1) subjective or a cognitive perception or judgment of one's happiness and 2) objective perspective that focuses on external variables such as SES or parent education (Valois, Zullig, Heubner, & Drane, 2004). Previous research has shown that an individual's own subjective evaluation of his/her reality may have greater effect then objective or external variables (Keyes et al., 2002). Huebner (1991b) stated

> "These strong associations between satisfaction and internal personality variables (e.g. self-esteem, locus of control) and the weak associations with demographic variables, suggest that objective circumstances (e.g., parents' occupation, status, SES) may have only an indirect effect on children's well being, and this effect may be mediated by individual personality differences. In other words, children's life satisfaction may be determined more by how they perceive their lives than the objective circumstance they encounter." (p.109)

Subjective well-being has been defined as an individual's subjective appraisal of his/her life (Diener, 2000; Suldo, Riley, & Shaffer, 2006). A high subjective well-being has been associated with coping strategies (Ratzlaff, Matsumoto, Koutnetsova, Raroque, & Ray, 1999), sense of self determination (Triandis, 2000), and reflection of positive thoughts (Chen, Cheung, Bond, & Leung, 2006). Subjective well-being is comprised of the presence of positive affect or pleasant emotions or moods (e.g., joy, elation), the lack of negative affect or troublesome emotions (e.g., guilt, anger, sadness), and life satisfaction (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Suldo et al., 2006) . The affective

components of subjective well-being have been defined as "happiness" in some studies

(Diener, 2000; Shmotkin, 1998); alternatively, life satisfaction has been viewed as the

cognitive part of subjective well-being (Diener, 2000). Although the affective

components of subjective well-being and the cognitive component, life satisfaction, have

been found to be related, they are very distinct and individual elements (Diener, 1994;

Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996). Past research has suggested that the affective components

have a tendency to be influenced by how a person physically feels (Diener, 1994) or a

spontaneous reflection of an individual's immediate experiences (Shmotkin, 1998);

however, life satisfaction is an appraisal of both current and past experiences (Diener et

al., 1999), as well as future possibilities (Keyes et al., 2002). Thus, life satisfaction is

often considered to be a more stable component and indicator of subjective well-being

then the affective components (Suldo et al., 2006).

Life satisfaction is not only included more often in studies of subjective well-

being as an indicator of an adolescent's perceived well-being (Suldo et al., 2006), but

also has been used to examine how an individual perceives their well-being in regards to

stress that may be the result of risk factors (Bradley & Crowyn, 2004). After comparing

a child's actual social competence as reported by the teacher and the child's perceived

social competence, Fogle, Huebener, and Laughlin (2002) found that the child's

perception was more important to life satisfaction than reality. Life satisfaction reflects

the extent to which an individual's goals are perceived as feasible and the degree to

which an individual's fundamental needs are met (Bradley & Crowyn, 2004). This may

be especially true for adolescents who are considered to be in a very stressful time period

where they are more likely to be experiencing a struggle for independence, advancing in cognitive abilities, considering future ideas and goals, and evaluating the way in which those goals can be achieved (Bradley & Crowyn, 2004). An adolescent's self report of life satisfaction has been associated with the decisions he/she makes in regards to education, employment, and relationships (Bradley & Crowyn, 2004; Romero & Roberts, 2003). In adolescence, the level of an individual's reported life satisfaction has been found to moderate the relationship between externalizing behaviors and stressful events; for example, adolescents with high life satisfaction are less likely to exhibit an increase in anti-social behaviors, while the opposite holds true for individuals with low life satisfaction (Suldo & Huebner, 2004). Therefore, it has been concluded that life satisfaction is a product of life experiences and plays a significant function in the development of behavior and social outcomes (Fogle et al., 2002; Rigby & Huebner, 2005).

A low level of life satisfaction is considered a risk factor that has been related to maladaptive outcomes, while a high level of life satisfaction has been associated with high self-esteem, extraversion, an increase in internal locus of control, physical health, good relationships, an inhibitor of violent behavior, and educational success (Frisch, 2000; Huebner, 1991a, 1991b; MacDonald et al., 2005; Park, 2003, 2004). Research has been unable to link life satisfaction to many demographic variables, such as age, grade in school, parent's marital status, or parent's occupation (Huebner, 1991a). For example, research has not found a difference between Caucasian, African-American, and Hispanic adolescents (Bromley, 2000) or academic achievement in relation to overall life

satisfaction (Huebner, 1991a; Huebner & Alderman, 1993; McCullough & Huebner, 2003); however, it should be noted, that past literature has reported that life satisfaction may be negatively related to SES (Ash & Huebner, 1998). Life satisfaction was also found to correlate more with daily events than acute events, such as a death of a friend (McCullough, Huebner, & Laughlin, 2000). In addition, previous researchers have examined the relationship between life satisfaction and such constructs as depression and internalizing behaviors. It was concluded that although a negative relationship exists between these constructs, life satisfaction is not the opposite of depression or internalizing behaviors (Lewinsohn, Redner, & Seeley, 1991).

The life satisfaction construct has been used to identify unique relationships between variables in different aspects in a person's life that contribute to their self-reported well being (Edwards, 2003). Previous studies of life satisfaction have continued to reveal that an adolescent's report of life satisfaction may vary depending on a range of domains, such as family, peers, school, living environment, and self (Gilman & Huebner, 2006). A study comparing gifted and non-gifted middle school students found that gifted students' strongest contributor to life satisfaction was satisfaction with their home environment and school, while non-gifted students' life satisfaction was more related to satisfaction with himself/herself and family (Ash & Huebner, 1998). Although overall life satisfaction has not been found to differ in individuals with mild mental retardation, serious emotional disturbances, or learning disabilities, differences were found in their satisfaction with family, school, peers, home environment and themselves (Brantley, Huebner, & Nagle, 2002; McCullough & Huebner, 2003).

Life satisfaction has been consistently linked to family variables, such as family structure, parent-child relationship, and parental involvement (Suldo & Huebner, 2004; Zullig, Valois, Huebner, & Drane, 2005). Previous research has found that children who were not living with their parents, living in homes where the parents where divorced, living with relatives, or living with a guardian may be at greater risk for low life satisfaction (Demo & Acock, 1996; Sastre & Ferriere, 2000; Young, Miller, Norton, & Hill, 1995; Zullig et al., 2005). Life satisfaction has also been found to mediate the effects of parenting styles and an adolescent's internalizing and externalizing behaviors ((Nickerson & Nagle, 2004; Suldo & Huebner, 2004). For example, previous studies found that Hispanic adolescents view family support and identifying with both nuclear and extended family members as the most important variable that contributed to their life satisfaction (Edwards, 2003; Martin & Gamba, 2003; Martin & Marin, 1991)**.**

Life satisfaction has also been linked to school satisfaction. There is a decrease in school satisfaction as student age increases (Huebner et al., 2000). Nickerson and Nagle (2004) noticed that students in the sixth grade had a higher sense of school satisfaction then students in the eight grade. In a study of 2,502 adolescent students 15% of them reported dissatisfaction with school (Huebner, Valois, Paxton, & Drane, 2005). Adolescents reported being most satisfied with friends and the least satisfied with school (Huebner, 1994; Nickerson & Nagle, 2004); however, boys on average reported having a lower satisfaction with school than girls (Huebner, 1994; Huebner, Drane, & Valois, 2000; Nickerson & Nagle, 2004). It also appears that as a child progresses through school, their satisfaction and interest in school decreases (Huebner et al., 2000;

Nickerson & Nagle, 2004). This trend is very alarming considering low satisfaction with school has been associated with school dropout (Ainley, 1991).

School is the primary context for adolescents' social development and past research has found social support from peers has both a present and future implication for their well-being (Neilsen, 1991). Adolescents who are rejected or ostracized by fellow peers more often reported low satisfaction with friends (Nickerson & Nagle, 2004)**.** This is a double-edged sword in that rejection by one's peers can affect a child's sense of life satisfaction; these children are at a greater risk of experiencing lower school adjustment and having negative perceptions of school (Ladd, 1990). Peer delinquency or negative peer behavior has been found to also have a negative relationship with an adolescent's life satisfaction (Voydanoff & Donnelly, 1999). Life satisfaction has been found to partially mediate the relation between peer stressors and social relationships with peers (Griffin, 2002); it has also been found to be an indicator of the quality of future peer relationships (Huebner, Funk, & Gilman, 2000).

Studies in the area of life satisfaction allow researchers to examine where or when an adolescent develops a feeling of disconnection from school, home or in their relationships. Research has often focused on children's deficits or pathology; however, the study of life satisfaction has taken a different approach by placing attention on examining the strengths and resiliency in children (Suldo et al., 2006). The information gathered from an adolescent's reported life satisfaction can be used to create interventions to enhance subjective well being in a given area, which can serve as a protective factor (Durlak & Wells, 1997).

Acculturation-level Factor

Acculturation has been defined as the process of change that results from continuous contact with individuals from a different culture (Berry, Trimble, & Olmedo, 1986). These changes can occur in six different areas of psychological functioning: (a) language of choice, whether it is only the language of origin, bilingualism or a complete shift to the dominant language; (b) cognitive style including intellectual abilities and cognitive styles that result from exposure to new systems and occupational changes that immigration often brings; (c) personality traits characteristic of either or both the dominant and native cultures; (d) identity or sense of group membership; (e) attitudes toward acculturation modes; and (f) acculturative stress (Berry, 1980). A core concept of acculturation is the amount of contact an individual has with two distinct cultural groups; however, previous research has consistently found language to be the central component of acculturation (Roger et al., 1991). Acculturation does not include how a person perceives the dominant or their traditional culture, but rather examines which culture an individual primarily associates with, as well as provides information about their exposure and mastery of the both English and their traditional language (Berry, 1980). Language has been used in previous research as a tool to measure an individual's acculturation level or the level in which an individual from a diverse culture can adapt to the demands of the dominant culture (Berry, 1980; Rogler, Cortes, & Malgady, 1991). Research has shown that children who speak a language that differs at home from that spoken at school are at risk for not completing high school (Hess, 2000; Lango, 1995; Ruiz, 2002). Students who are English language learners are often at a higher risk for

falling below the poverty line, which may be the result of a lack in their capability to function in mainstream society (Gauze, Bukowski, Aquan-Assee, & Sippola, 1996). In contrast, other researchers have found that bilingual children who are language brokers, or responsible for translating for their parents, have higher levels of academic and social self-efficacy because they are often involved in daily cross-cultural transactions (Buriela, Perez, De Ment, Chavez, & Moran, 1998).

Research in the area of acculturation has suggested acculturation is a complex process in that both high and low levels of acculturation have been found to produce both positive and negative effects. Several studies have found that Hispanic adolescents who relate more to the majority culture are at a greater risk for negative outcomes (Rogler, Cortes, and Malgady,1991; Roosa, Dumka, et. al., 2002); however, other studies have reported Hispanic students who relate more to the majority culture or have higher acculturation scores were more likely to complete college, as well as report lower levels of anxiety and depression symptoms (Rogers et al., 1991; Shibazaki, & Kashubeck-West, 2001). This discrepancy has influenced researchers to consider the possibility that Hispanic adolescents can identify with the majority culture while still retaining their values and beliefs associated with their Hispanic culture.

This idea that an individual can communicate and navigate through two different cultures has been termed biculturalism or integration (Berry, 1980; Szapocznik, Kurtines, & Fernandez, 1980). Adolescents who are bicultural have been able to develop flexible coping skills that they can implement according to the cultural context in which they are functioning (Rotheram-Borus, 1993; Szapocznik, Kurtines, &

Fernandez, 1980). Bicultural individuals experience greater interpersonal adjustment (Fernandez-Barrillas & Morrison, 1984), lower likelihood of school dropout (Feliciano, 2001), lower levels of family conflict (Miranda, Estrada, & Firpo-Jimenez, 2000; Sullivan et. al., 2007), and lower levels of problem behaviors (Szapocznik & Kurtines, 1989).

Summary Statement of the Problem

The Hispanic population in the United States is growing at an exponential rate. Thirty-three percent of the nation's thirty-five million Hispanics are under the age of eighteen (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000); however, Hispanic students have the highest high school dropout rate of all ethnic groups (Crosnoe, 2005; Flores et al., 2006). Hispanics continue to be the most undereducated ethic group in the U.S. (National Center for Education Statistics, 1999; Perez & de la Rosa Salazar, 1997), have the highest retention rates (U.S. Department of Education National Center for Educational Statisitcs, 2003), are more likely to live below the poverty level (Thierrien & Ramirez, 2000), and are more likely to attend schools that have poorer facilities and less experienced teachers (National Council of La Raza, 2001) than other ethnic groups. In addition, Hispanic males are over-represented in Texas DEAPs (Intercultural Developmental Research Association, 1999). In fact, 48% of all Texas students sent to disciplinary alternative education programs are of Hispanic origin (Abramson, 2007); this is a distressing statistic considering most students who are placed in an alternative education setting experience maladaptive outcomes (Texas Appleseed, 2007).

Researchers have identified numerous risk and protective factors that might provide insight into the academic difficulties and success that Hispanic adolescents' experience. This study used an ecological risk-factor model that suggests that there are multiple risk factors related to adolescent being placed in an alternative education setting and that these risk factors exist at multiple levels: community, school, peer, family, self, and acculturation-level. The community-based category encompasses external support systems such as mentors, neighbors, and religious affiliations. This category of protective and risk factors is comprised of extrinsic characteristics of the child's environment that can have a direct effect on a child's development (Rak & Patterson, 1996). The school-based factor consist of those factors found in school, such as the school composition, the relationship a child has with school faculty, and school safety. The peer-based factors are those factors that include a student's peer support group, such as gang involvement. The family-based factors are those factors that are present within the family (Carr & Vandiver, 2001) including SES, parental involvement, living in a single-parent home, language spoke in the home, generation, extended family involvement, and parental incarceration. Child's perception factors encompass an individual's unique intrinsic characteristics that are associated with how the child perceives himself/herself and the external risk and protective factors present in their life. Previous research has shown that an individual's own subjective evaluation of his/her reality may have greater effect then objective or external variables (Keyes et al., 2002). Finally, level of acculturation is considered, and may cut across the previous factors in terms of the composition of the neighborhood or school, similarity of the culture and

language of the student and his teachers, and parent involvement, as well as self-perceptions and expectations for success.

Maladjusted outcomes cannot be attributed to a single risk factor; risk factors do not act in isolation and often have complex relationships with other risk factors (Atzaba-Poria et al., 2004). The cumulative risk model proposes that as an individual's exposure to risk factors at different levels of the ecology increases, the probability of negative outcomes will also increase (Perkins & Hartless, 2002). The purpose of this study was to examine the differences in a cumulative risk score that is comprised of categories of risk and protective factors (community-based, school-based, peer-based, family-based, child's perception, acculturation) between those students who are or have been placed in an alternative education setting and those students who have never been placed in an alternative education setting. This study hypothesized that those students who are currently or have been placed in alternative schools will have a higher cumulative risk score than those students who have not been placed in an alternative school setting.

At the same time as there are indications of cumulative risk, there are some who argue that each level (community, school, home, peers, self, acculturation) makes a unique contribution in predicting behaviors (Atzaba-Poria et al., 2004; Deater-Deckard, Dodge, Bates, & Pettit, 1998; Perkins & Hartless, 2002). There is currently limited research that has examined the contribution of risk factors at different ecological levels (Atzaba-Poria et al., 2004). Thus, a second aim of this study was to investigate if there were differences in the risk generated within each ecological level (i.e., family, school, peers, community, acculturation, and self) between the students who are currently placed

or have been previously placed in an alternative setting and those students who have not attended an alternative education setting. The study hypothesis that the two groups will differ in all six areas.

Additionally, it was hypothesized that the child's perception factors may mediate the relationship between an individual outcome of alternative school placement and the external risk and protective factors. This child's perception category encompasses an individual's unique intrinsic characteristics that cannot be solely attributed to external risk or protective factors, but instead how the child perceives these external risk and protective factors. A child's perception of school, their teacher, himself/herself, the dominate and traditional culture, and their relationship with their parents has been found to be more important the characteristics of their family, school, peers, culture, and community(Martin & Gamba, 2003; Wethington & Kessler, 1986). Previous research has found that a child's perceptions can have a positive or negative influence on the child (Birch & Ladd, 1996) and has been linked to behavioral and developmental outcomes (Harper, 1999). Therefore, this study also examined the unique contribution school, peers, community, family, and acculturation in the prediction of the child's perception factor and DAEP placement for Hispanic males using SEM.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine the cumulative risk score of two groups of Hispanic males across the areas of self, family, school, peers, community, and acculturation, as well as the individual risk scores for each area. This study used a 2 group quasi-experimental design to compare specific aspects of seventh and eighth grade Hispanic males' lives. An individual's membership in one of the two groups was determined by an individual's previous or current placement in an alternative education setting. The variables of interest were the risk scores for each of the six categories of risk and protective factors (community-based, school-based, peer-based, family-based, acculturation-based and child's perception), and the cumulative risk score, which was comprised of the sum total of all six scores.

Participants

Data for this study were collected from a large urban public school district in Central Texas. According to district data, there were approximately 82,181 students in the district at the time of the study, with 61% the student population being classified as economically disadvantaged (i.e., qualifying for the federal free and reduced lunch program; Texas Education Agency, 2008). The district data also showed that 58% of students in the district were of Hispanic origin and 28% of the student population qualified for services under Limited English Proficiency (LEP). LEP status is defined as a student whose primary language is not English and whose English language skills are such that the student has difficulty completing course work in English (Texas Education

Agency, 2009). The district was chosen by the researcher based on the large Hispanic population and their willingness to participate. Data collection for the present study took place across two middle schools within the district. One school was comprised of sixth through eighth grade students in the general education setting. The second school was the Disciplinary Alternative Education Placement (DAEP) for the whole district; students from fifth grade through twelfth grade were sent there by their home campus for violation of the school rules.

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

All students who qualified for special education services under any category currently or previously were excluded from the study because these students may have additional risk factors that this study is not addressing. The remaining students fell into one of the two groups – DAEP or non DAEP. The DAEP group was selected from the male adolescents of Hispanic origin who were currently placed or had been placed in an alternative education setting within one year prior to the start of the study, regardless of the student's current placement. Those students who had been previously placed in an alternative education setting previously, but not within the one year period were excluded from the study.

The individuals in the control group (non-DAEP) were randomly selected from the Hispanic male population in the regular education setting by the seventh and eighth grade counselors. The counselors at the regular education setting were asked to suggest 7th and 8th grade teachers to aid in recruiting students to participate in the study. The students were selected at the classroom level by the teacher. In order to insure each

participant had not been enrolled in the DAEP with in the year, the school district research department used the student records to verify if the student had been in an alternative educational setting within the past year. If the records indicated the student in the non-DAEP group had been sent to alternative education settings within the year, that student was then removed from the non-DAEP group and included in the DAEP group; however, if a student had been placed in the DAEP previously but not within one year that student was not included in the study. The student's math and reading TAKS score from the sixth grade were also collected and used in this study as a tool to evaluate the academic achievement of a student and determine if the two groups differ on academic achievement. Finally, individuals who did not complete at least 80% of the survey, or for whom state basic skills testing in sixth grade (TAKS score) were omitted from the study. Initially, 64 participants in the non-DAEP group completed the questionnaires, while 63 in the DAEP group completed the questionnaires; however, 4 participants from each group were removed due to missing TAKS scores or due to missing more than 20% of the data on the questionnaire. As a result, the final study sample consisted of 119 seventh or eighth grade Hispanic male students between the ages of 12 and 16, with 60 participants in the non-DAEP group and 59 participants in the DAEP group. It should be noted that all of the participants with the exception of one student indicated they were of Mexican descent.

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the sample. The non-DAEP group was comprised of a majority of 7th grade students (71.7%), while the DAEP group had a larger number of 8th grade students (62.7%). A chi-squared test was conducted and

revealed there was a significant difference in the grade composition of the non-DAEP

group and DAEP group (X^2(1, N=119)= 14.18, p<.001). The magnitude of difference

between means of the two groups was large (eta squared= .35). The non-DAEP groups

also slightly differed in age from the DAEP group, with the non-DAEP group being on

average 4 months younger than the experimental group. A t-test was conducted and

revealed that there was a significant difference for age DAEP group and non-DAEP

group (t(1,116)= -2.96, p=.01)]. The magnitude of difference between means of the two

groups was moderate (eta square d= .07).   As a result of these analyses, both age and

grade were controlled for when conducting future analysis.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample by Experimental Condition

		Student's Age	Grade
Non-DAEP			
	N	59	59
	Mean	13.40	7.28
	Mdn	13.08	7.00
	SD	.87	.45
DAEP			
	N	59	59
	Mean	13.83	7.63
	Mdn	14.05	8.00
	SD	.72	.49

Procedures

Prior to conducting this study, the consent, assent, and student surveys were translated from English to Spanish. The forms were translated from English to Spanish by two different individuals, who then compared their translations and inculpated them. Their corrected Spanish forms were then checked by a different individual who translated the Spanish forms back into English. All three forms were written in both English and Spanish, in order to insure the parents who completed the consent form and the participants of the study were able to understand the content regardless of their native language. After the researcher attained permission to work with human participants from the Texas A&M Institutional Review Board (IRB), the researcher obtained authorization from the school district and the middle school principals for both the regular education settings and the DAEP school to participate in the study. The principal at the regular education setting suggested the seventh and eighth grade counselors aid in recruiting students to participate in the study. The counselors gave those students selected to participate in the study an envelope that contained a parental consent form written in both English (See Appendix A) and Spanish (See Appendix B), an assent form in English (See Appendix C), and the assent form in Spanish (See Appendix D) for the student. Both the consent and assent form provided the reader with a brief overview of the study and significance of their participation in the study. The principal at the alternative education setting encouraged the teachers to aid in recruitment for the study. The consent and assent forms were sent home with the

students or were placed in the orientation packet that parents and students completed upon admission to the alternative setting.

All students who had parental consent and assented to participate in the study were asked to complete a sequence of questionnaires, which were written in both English and Spanish. Each student received a packet containing a cover page (See Appendix E), Demographic Questionnaire (See Appendix F), the Brief Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (Brief ARSMA-II; Appendix G), Self-Efficacy Question for Children (See Appendix H), and Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale (See Appendix I). Each packet had a three digit number written on the top right side that was used by the researcher as an identification number to protect the identity of the students when conducting the data analyses.

At both the regular education and alternative education settings, the three questionnaires were group administered to groups of 5 to 10 students at one time in the library during school hours. Students were asked to bring a book to read in case they finished early. Participating students were given a pen that they were allowed to keep and the packet of questionnaires. The students were instructed to place their books under their chair and read the cover page of the packet, but to not begin or make any marks on the packet until instructed to do so. The instructions were read aloud to the students in both Spanish and English (See Appendix E). Once the researcher had finished reading the instructions, the researcher asked the students if they had any questions. If so, the researcher explained any information that was requested orally. The researcher informed the students that the researcher could help them with any words they did not

know or could read the questionnaire aloud if they needed help. The questionnaire took approximately 20-35 minutes to complete. After completing the tasks, the packet of questionnaires were collected and placed in a large envelope. Participants were asked to sit quietly and read until all students were finished. After all students completed the forms, the participants were thanked for their participation and allowed to return to their classroom.

Materials

The materials involved in this research included: 1) parental consent form (See Appendix A), 2) parental consent form in Spanish (See Appendix B), 3) student assent form (See Appendix C and D), 4) Cover page (Appendix E), 5) Demographic questionnaire (See Appendix F), 6) the Brief Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (Brief ARSMA-II; Appendix G), 7) the Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children (Appendix H), and 8) the Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale (See Appendix I).

Demographic Questionnaire.

A 41 item questionnaire was created to obtain detailed demographic information including birth date, grade, school, place of birth, mother education level, number of siblings, and other questions about family and school experiences (See Appendix F). In addition, students were asked to choose from the following list of ethnicities: Hispanic/Latino, White/Non-Hispanic, Native American, African American, Asian/Pacific Islander, and Other.

Questions 1-4 were used to determine if the student fell into the experimental or control group. Question 6-16 were used to compute an adolescent's cumulative risk score in the area of family, questions 14-25 was the Brief ARSMA-II and were used to obtain the adolescent's acculturation score, questions 29-32 were used to obtain the adolescent's risk score in the area of school, questions 33-36 were used to represent the adolescent's risk score in the area of community, and questions 37-41 represented the adolescent's risk score in the area of peers.

Brief Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (Brief ARSMA-II).

The Brief Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (Brief ARSMA-II) contains 12 items that encompass two domains: (1) the Anglo-Orientation Scale (AOS), and (2) the Mexican-Orientation Scale (MOS). Each item is written in both English and Spanish. The Brief ARSMA-II uses a Likert scale with each item having five answers choices with 4= almost always and 0=not at all (Bauman, 2005).

The Brief ARSMA-II was used for this study (items 14-25 of the survey). The Brief ARSMA-II has previously been used in studies to measure a child's cultural preference (Lopez, 2009) or acculturation level. The Brief ARSMA-II has been shown to have an internal consistency with .91 for the MOS scale and .79 on the AOS (Bauman, 2005). The study found the Brief ARSMA-II AOS to have an internal consistency of .78, while the MOS was shown to have an internal consistency of .92. A factor analysis revealed a two-factor structure that corresponds with the two domains of the Brief-ARSMA-II (Bauman, 2004). The Brief ARSMA-II has been used in previous studies of adolescents between the ages of 11-19 (Bauman, 2004; Lopez, 2009) and therefore

would be an appropriate measure to use with this sample. This form can be found in

Appendix G.

Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children

The Self-Efficacy Question for Children (SEQ-C; Muris, 2001) contains 21 items

that encompass three domains of self-efficacy: (1) social self-efficacy (seven items); (2)

academic self-efficacy (seven items), and; (3) emotional self-efficacy (seven items)

(Muris, 2002). The SEQ-C uses a Likert scale with each item having five answer choices

with 4 = not at all and 0 = very well (Landon, Ehrenreich, & Pincus, 2006). The SEQ-C

has been shown to have a good internal consistency with 0.88 for the total self-efficacy

score and between 0.85 and 0.88 for subscale scores (Muris, 2001). The SEQ- C was

found to have a good internal consistency for this study as well, with a Cronbach's alpha

coefficient of .91.Furthermore, a factor analysis revealed a three-factor structure that

corresponds with the three domains of self-efficacy covered by the SEQ-C (i.e. social,

academic, and emotional; Muris, 2002; Suldo & Shaffer, 2007). The SEQ-C reported

readability is at the 5.2 grade level (Suldo & Shaffer, 2007). Further, the SEQ-C has

been used in previous studies of adolescents between the ages of 12 and 19 (Suldo &

Huebner, 2004), and therefore would be an appropriate measure to use with this sample.

This form can be found in Appendix H.

Total self-efficacy and subscale scores can be computed by summing the answer

choice across items, with scores ranging from 21-105; however, for this study those

scores were converted into the equivalent stanine scores by using the z-scores that had

been identified by the author during norming procedures of the SEQ-C. Higher scores

are positively related to a higher perception of self-efficacy; however, for this study the scores were reversed so that higher scores would be related to a lower perception of self-efficacy in order to be consistent across measures.

Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale.

The Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale (MSLSS; Huebner, 2004) is a 40 item self- report measure designed to assess an individual's level of satisfaction in 5 areas of life; self, family, friends, living environment, and school (Huebner, 1994). The MSLSS uses a Lickert scale that provides the individual with five answer choices; never, rarely, sometimes, often, almost always. The readability level of the MSLSS has been estimated to fall between the 1st and 2nd grade level (Huebner, 1994). The MSLSS has been found to have an alpha coefficient of 0.92, as well as a good internal consistency for all five domains (school, family, friends, self, and living environment) at approximately 0.80 (Huebner, Brantley, Nagle, & Valois, 2002; McCullough & Huebner, 2003; Nickerson & Nagle, 2004). The MLSS was also found to have a good internal consistency for this study with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.86. Exploratory analysis revealed a five factor solution (Huebner, 1994). The MSLSS has been used in previous studies that employed samples of children in the third through twelfth grade (Gilman, Huebner, & Laughlin, 2000; McCullough & Huebner, 2003). As a result, it was determined that the MSLSS would be a suitable measure to use with this sample. A mean score is computed for each domain, with a higher score meaning a lower level of satisfaction in that domain; however, for this study each score will be

converted into an equivalent stanine scores using the z-scores. This form can be found in Appendix I.

Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills

The district's research department collected Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) scores from the sixth grade year for both groups of students' from the student's school record. The TAKS is a statewide assessment that is connected to the state mandated curriculum (Texas Education Agency, 2003). A student's performance on the TAKS has been seen as a tool to evaluate the academic achievement and progress of a student There are two categories for performance on the TAKS used by this study: met standards and did not meet standards (Texas Education Agency, 2003). These two groups were compared using these two categories and the results will be discussed in Chapter IV. Typically students get several chances to pass the TAKS test during a school year; the last score the student received that year was the scored used to compare the two groups on academic achievement in the areas of Reading and Math.

Design and Plan of Analysis

This study used a 2 group quasi-experimental design to compare specific aspects of Hispanic adolescent males' lives. There were two groups, the DAEP group consisted of male adolescents of Hispanic origin who were currently placed or had been placed in an alternative education school within a year, regardless of the student's current placement. The comparison group was comprised of Hispanic adolescent male students who have never been placed in an alternative education setting (non-DAEP group).

The variables used in this study included all of the demographic variables (e.g., age, grade, school placement, etc.) participants' cumulative risk score and the separate score in the area of family, school, peers, community, acculturation and self. The DAEP or non-DAEP variable was used to describe the student's placement and was used as an indicator of negative student outcomes. The study also used the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) scores from each student's sixth grade year. The TAKS was used in this study as a tool to evaluate the academic achievement of a student and determine if the two groups differ on academic achievement. The study also tested a model that predicted child's perception factors mediate the relationships between school, peers, family, and community and an individual's outcome.

Variables in this Study

This study used an ecological risk-factor model that suggests that there are multiple risk factors that exist at six levels: community-based factors, school-based factors, peer-based factors, family-based factors, child's perception factors, and acculturation-level factors. In order to address the research question of this study the aforementioned materials as well as information gathered by the district's research department were used to provide information and generate scores related to variables of interest (See Table 2). These are explained in more detail by factor following this table.

Table 2

The Measures Used to Examine Factors

Factor	Measure Used
Family-based Factors	Demographic Questionnaire Items 6-16
School-based Factors	Demographic Questionnaire Items 17-20 Data collected by District's Research Department on each student from student record: 1) has the child repeated a grade, 2) child been sent to alternative school, 3) what grades did the child attend alternative school, 4) how many times has the child been sent to alternative school, 5) how many times has the child been expelled or suspended, and 6) how often was the child tardy last school year.
Community-based Factors	Demographic Questionnaire Items 21-24 Data collected using the website http://malford.ci.austin.tx.us/police/zipcode to determine the amount of crime reported in that area.
Peer-based Factors	Demographic Questionnaire Items 25-29
Acculturation-based Factors	Brief Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans-II (Brief ARMSMA-II) Items 30-41
Child's perception Factors	Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children (SEQ-C) Items 42-63 Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale (MSLSS) Items 64-104

Family-based Factor. The family-based factor is comprised of questions 6-16 on the demographic questionnaire (See Table 3). These items ask about the child's birthplace, mother's birthplace, what individuals live in the home with the student,

number of siblings, mother's level of education, whether any family members have ever been incarcerated, and if there someone at home that could help the student with their homework. These items were used to compute the student's cumulative risk score in the area of family. A student's family risk score ranged from 0-26, with the lower the number indicating the adolescent has a lower risk score.

Table 3

Scoring of Family-based Questions

Question	Score
#6 Where were you born?	1= Other Country 0= United States
#7 Where was your mother born?	1= Other Country 0= United States
#8 Where was your father born?	1= Other Country 0= United States

#9
Who lives in your home?
	0= if mother present
	1= if mother absent
	
	0= if father present
	1= if father absent
	
	1= if guardian present
	
	0= extended family
	  present
	1= extended family
	  absent
	
	0= if step-parent
	  absent
	1= if step-parent
	  present

#10 How many of your brother or sisters live in the same house with you?	0= 3 or less siblings 1= 4 or more siblings

Table 3

Continued

Question	Score
#11 Mother's level of education	0= graduated from high school or received GED/ attended higher level education 1= did not graduate from high school 2= did not attend high school
#12 Mother currently employed?	0= yes 1= no
#13 Has anyone in your family ever been to jail or prison?	0= no family member has been to prison 1= a family member has been to prison 2= multiple family members have been to prison
#14 If you need help with my homework, is there someone at home to help you?	0= multiple family members 1= one family member 2= no one is at home to help
#15 Your mother makes sure you do your homework? Your father makes sure you do your homework? 16) Your mother knows how you are doing in school. Your father knows how you are doing in school.	2= Never 1= Sometimes 0= Always 2= Never 1= Sometimes 0= Always 2= Never 1= Sometimes 0= Always 2= Never 1= Sometimes 0= Always

School-based Factor. Questions 17-20 are items that were used to explore the risk and protective school-based factors (See Table 4). These items asked the individual how safe their school is, are teachers helpful, how often the student has skipped class in

the last academic school year and the school related activities the student participated in during the last school year. This factor was comprised of the 4 questions and information gathered from the student's school record, including: has ever repeated a grade, has the student been previously sent to the alternative school, how many times during the last school year the student has been tardy or late for class, and how often the student has been expelled or suspended. A student's school risk score ranged from 0-21, with the lower the number indicating the adolescent has a lower risk score.

Table 4

Scoring of School-based Questions

Question	Score
17) How often did you skip class in the last academic school year?	0= never 1= less than once a month 2= less than once a week 3= more than once a week
18) How safe do you think the school you currently attend is? b) If you attend the alternative school, how safe would you rate the school you went to before being sent to the alternative school?	0=Safe or Very safe 1=Unsafe or very unsafe 0= Have attended the alternative school 0=Safe or Very safe 1=Unsafe or very unsafe
19) Teachers are helpful. Teachers really care about their students.	0= Always or Often 1= Sometimes 2=Never 0= Always or Often 1= Sometimes 2=Never
20) How many school related activities or groups (i.e., band, school clubs) have you participated in within the last school year?	0= more than one 1= one group activity 2= no group activities

Table 4

Continued

Information Gathered by Research Department	
Question	**Score**
How many times has the individual been retained?	0= zero 1= once 2= more than once
How many times has the student been sent to an alternative school setting?	0= have never been placed in an alternative setting 1= once 2= more than once
How many time has the student been tardy (unexcused) for school last yea	0= never 1= less than 10 days 2= greater than 10 days
How many time has the student been absent (unexcused) for school last year?	0= never 1= less than 5 days 2= greater than 5 days
How many times was the student expelled or suspended?	0= Never 1= 1-2 2= 3 or more

Community-based Factor. Questions 21- 24 and the information gathered from the

Austin city connection Website were used to explore the risk and protective community

factors (See Table 5). These items included questions that explored non-school related

activities the student participated in during the last school year, and if the student has a

non-related adult that he can talk to or ask for advice. Information from the Austin city

Website was used to determine the level of crime committed in each area code

surrounding the students' home campus. A student's community-based risk score ranged

from 0-11, with the lower the number indicating the adolescent has a lower risk score.

Table 5

Scoring of Community-based Questions

Question	Score
21) Are their individuals who are members of a gang living in your neighborhood?	0=None 1= Some 2= A lot 3= Most everyone belongs to a gang.
22) What non-school related activities or groups (i.e., 4-H, Scouts) have you participated in within the last school year?	0= any group or activities 1= no groups or activities 2= gang
23) Is there a non-related adult that you could talk to or ask advice from?	0= one or more adult 1= no adult or 1= adult is a gang member
24) How safe do you feel living in your neighborhood? Where you live do you hear about or see other people committing crimes?	0= Always or Often 1= Sometimes 2= Never 0= Never 1= Sometimes 2= Always or Often
Zip Code Crime Rate	0= less than 1000 1= more than 1000

Peer-based Factor. Item 25-29 consisted of five individual questions that have

five answer choices ranging from none of my friends to all of my friends that I spend

most of you time with (See Table 6) . These five items will be used to compute the

student's risk score in the area of peers. A student's peer-based risk score can range from 0-20, with the lower the number indicating the adolescent has a lower risk score.

Table 6

Scoring of Peer-based Questions

Question	Score
25) How many of your friends do well in school?	0= all of my friends 1= most of my friends 2= half of my friends 3= a few of my friends 4= none of my friends
26) How many of your friends are in a gang?	0= none of my friends 1= a few of my friends 2= half of my friends 3= most of my friends 4= all of my friends
27) How many of your friends often skip school?	0= none of my friends 1= a few of my friends 2= half of my friends 3= most of my friends 4= all of my friends
28) How many of your friends have been in trouble with the police or arrested?	0= none of my friends 1= a few of my friends 2= half of my friends 3= most of my friends 4= all of my friends
29) How many of your friends have been sent to the alternative school?	0= none of my friends 1= a few of my friends 2= half of my friends 3= most of my friends 4= all of my friends

Acculturation-based Factors. Items 30-41 are items were used to explore the risk explore the risk and protective acculturation-based factors. The Brief ARSMA-II was used for this portion of the survey. The Brief ARSMA-II is a 12 item scale, with six items comprising the Anglo-Oriented Scale (AOS) or the extent to which individual relates to the Anglo culture. The other six items consist of the Mexican-Oriented Scale (MOS), representing how much he relates to the Hispanic culture. Items were scored from 0 (not at all) to 5 (almost always) and the authors provided three scoring algorithms (Lopez, 2009). For this study the Brief ARSMA-II was scored by subtracting the AOS from the MOS. An individual could have received a score between -24 through 24. A negative score meant the individual relates more to the Hispanic culture than the Anglo culture, while a positive score translated to the individual relating more to the Anglo culture. Scores closer to zero suggested the individual is bicultural or the individual was able to develop flexible coping skills that allow them to successfully function in either culture. Thus higher absolute scores closer to zero represent a presence of fewer risk factors, while a higher absolute score related to a higher level of risk.

Child's Perception Factors. The child's perception portion of the survey contained questions that were used to explore the individual's perceptions of their relationships with their peers, family, himself/herself, their environment, school, and their own self-efficacy. This portion of the survey was comprised of the Self-Efficacy Question for Children (SEQ-C; See Appendix F) and Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale (MSLSS; See Appendix G). The SEQ-C and MSLSS were scored using the measures' scoring directions as stated by the authors of the test. An individual

could have received a score between 0-84 on SEQ-C. The MSLSS scoring procedures asked the examiner to take the average score for each of the five sections and add up these five averages to obtain a total MSLSS score. An individual can receive a score between 0-40 on the MSLSS. In order for the child's perception score to be computed the individual's scores for both the SEQ-C and MSLSS were converted into the stanine scores (mean of 5, std of 1, with a range from 1-9) by using the z-scores supplied by the authors of each measure in order to obtain scores on the same metric scale as the other risk factors. The higher the stanine score indicated a higher the risk level.

The Cumulative Risk Score. The cumulative risk score was computed by summing up the six different cumulative scores in the area of family, peers, school, community, acculturation, and self. An individual score can range from 2- 97, with a higher score indicated the adolescent had a higher risk.

Power Analyses

A power analysis was conducted using the program GPOWER 2.0 (Faul, & Erdfelder, 1992) to determine the appropriate sample size needed to achieve the desired power the main study analyses. In order to answer questions 1 and 2 a t-test was used and as a result a sample size greater than or equal to 64 would be needed to detect a moderate effect size of .30 (Cohen, 1988) with a power = .80 using an alpha level of .05. A second power analysis was conducted in order to determine the power needed to answer questions 3 and 4 using a multiple regression. This analysis revealed that a sample size of 92 would be needed to detect a moderate effect size of .15 (Cohen, 1988) with a power=.80 using an alpha level of .05; however, in order to test for possible

mediation present in the model a larger sample size is required. Fritz and MacKinnon

(2007) found that if a total effect of the independent variable to the dependent variable is

expected to be small to moderate (B=.26), and the total effect size of indirect effects of

the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediator is expected to

be moderate (B=.39), a sample size of 125 would be needed for power=.80.

    The data set meets all the requirements and assumptions to perform the t-tests and

multiple regression analysis; however, due to the total sample size being less than 125,

the number of participants needed to test for mediation in the model was reexamined.

Fritz and MacKinnon (2007) stated that if a total effect of the independent variable to the

dependent variable is expected to be moderate (B=.14), and the total effect size of

indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the

mediator is expected to be moderate (B=.39), a sample size of 118 would be needed for

power=.80.   So, assuming a moderate effect size, the sample size of 119 would be

sufficient.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In order to address the research questions proposed in this study, several statistical

analyses were performed. In addition, data characteristics were explored to ensure that

the results could be appropriately interpreted. Initially, descriptive statistics were

computed to obtain a better understanding of the data and to ensure that the data are

adequate for conducting inferential statistics. Scores on the measures were examined for

extreme outliers and/or missing data. Initially, 64 participants in the non-DAEP group

completed the questionnaires, while 63 in the DAEP group completed the

questionnaires; however, 4 participants from each group were removed due to missing

TAKS scores or due to missing more than 20% of the data on the questionnaire. As a

result, the final study sample consisted of 119 seventh or eighth grade Hispanic male

students between the ages of 12 and 16, with 60 participants in the non-DAEP group and

59 participants in the DAEP group. An analysis was ran after the data were collected in

order to examine how much data were missing. The Mahalanobis distance (p<.001)

found that no outliers among the cases were found. No cases had missing data, N=119.

As noted previously, preliminary analyses were conducted and revealed there

was a significant difference in the grade composition $(X^2(1, N=119)= 14.18, p<.001$

and in the ages (t(116)= -2.96, p=.01) between the DAEP and non-DAEP groups. As a

result of these analyses, both age and grade were controlled for when conducting future

analyses.

Academic Achievement

Once the final groups were identified and assumptions verified, comparison of TAKS scores was conducted to determine if the two groups differed in academic level. It was hypothesized that the two groups would not differ on academic achievement (null hypothesis). The two groups were compared using the two categories for performance on the TAKS: met standards and did not meet standards (Texas Education Agency, 2003). These two groups were compared on these two categories using chi-square to compare the Math and Reading TAKS scores (See Table 7). The results indicate that there was a significant difference between the Reading TAKS scores of the non-DAEP group and the DAEP groups, χ^2 (1, N=119)=7.25, p=.02). The effect size (r=.25) is considered small to moderate . The non-DAEP group was significantly more likely to score higher on the Reading TAKS than the DAEP group. Similarly, results indicated as significant difference in the Math TAKS scores [χ^2 (1, N=119)=2.11, p=.001]. The effect size (r=.42) was found to be large. The individuals in the non-DAEP group were significantly more likely to score higher on the Math TAKS than those individuals in the DAEP group. As a result of these analyses, academic achievement in both math and reading was controlled for when conducting future analysis.

Table 7

Summary of the Comparison of the DAEP and Non-DAEP TAKS Scores

	Non-DAEP (n=60)	*DAEP (n=59)*
Math TAKS		
Met Standards	43	19
Did not Meet Standards	17	40
Reading TAKS		
Met Standards	43	28
Did not Meet Standards	17	31

Question 1

Do the risk factors work in a cumulative manner, such that students who are placed in alternative education settings have a higher cumulative risk score than those individuals who have not attended an alternative education setting? The study hypothesized that those individuals who are currently or have been previously placed in an alternative setting would have a higher cumulative risk score when compared to those individuals who in the non-DEAP group. A one-way ANCOVA was conducted to explore whether there was a difference in the mean cumulative risk score for those students in the DAEP group compared to those students in the non-DAEP group while controlling for age, grade, and TAKS scores. The non-DAEP group (M=32.19, SD=10.77) had significantly lower cumulative risk scores than the DAEP group

(M=46.44, SD=11.05; F(1,114)=-32.30, *p*<.001, partial eta squared= .32), which was consistent with the hypothesis.

Question 2

Are there differences in any of the separate risk indices (i.e., family, school, peers, community, acculturation, and self) between the students in the DAEP group and those students in the non-DAEP group? The study hypothesized that there would be a significant difference between the two groups on all six factors. A total of six ANCOVAs were conducted to explore if there were group differences in mean cumulative scores in the areas of family, school, community, peers, acculturation, and self while controlling for age, grade, and TAKS scores. Actual mean scores by group are provided below in Table 8.

There was no significant difference found between the non-DAEP and DAEP group family-based risk scores or the child's perception risk scores. The lack of significant difference in the family-based factor and the child's perception risk score did not support the studies hypothesis and indicates the non-DAEP group does not differ from the DAEP group in the way that they perceive the external risk and protective factors present in their life. There was a significant difference found between the two groups in the areas of the school-based risk score, the community-based, the peer-based, and the acculturation-based risk scores and these findings did support the initial hypothesis.

Table 8

Results for Categories of Risk/Protective Factors

		Mean	Sd	F (1,114)	p	Effect Size
Community				10.94	p< .001	.12
	Non-DAEP	2.73	1.62			
	DAEP	4.27	2.41			
Family				2.01	.18	.03
	Non-DAEP	9.41	2.88			
	DAEP	10.37	4.05			
School				73.33	p< .001	.48
	Non-DAEP	4.00	2.55			
	DAEP	9.22	3.02			
Peers				11.02	p< .001	.18
	Non-DAEP	4.98	3.61			
	DAEP	8.63	4.51			
Acculturation				8.49	.01	.08
	Non-DAEP	-.59	8.63			
	DAEP	3.51	9.77			
Child (Self)				3.23	.07	.08
	Non-DAEP	8.95	4.04			
	DAEP	10.68	3.68			

There was a difference found between the two groups total acculturation score, but further analysis was conducted in order to investigate if a difference existed between the two groups on the AOS (Anglo-Oriented Scale) and the MOS (Mexican-Oriented Scale). Two separate ANCOVAs were conducted and a significant difference was found between the two groups on the MOS scale [F(1,113)=8.85, p=.004, eta squared=.07]; however no signifance difference was found between the two group on the AOS scale [F(1, 113)= 2.31, p=.13, eta squared=.02].

Question 3

Will school, peers, community, acculturation and family factors each make a unique contribution in the prediction of the child's perception factor? The study

hypothesized that all five factors would predict the child's perception factor. Initially,

five separate bivarate regression analyses were conducted to investigate if the family-

based, community-based, school-based, acculturation-based, and peer-based composite

scores each independently predicted an individual's child's perception score. Table 9

summarizes the analysis results.

Table 9

*Summary of the Five Separate Regression Analysis of the Variables Independently
Predicting the Child's Perception Factor*

Variables	R^2	Adjusted R^2	B	SE B	ß
Family-based	.18	.17	.47	.09	.42**
School-based	.14	.13	.39	.09	.38**
Peer-based	.14	.13	.33	.08	.37**
Community-based	.20	.19	.79	.15	.44**
Continued					
Variables	R^2	Adjusted R^2	B	SE B	ß
Acculturation-based	.01	-.00	.03	.04	.08

*p<.05, **p<.01

Second, a standard multiple-regression was used to investigate how much total

variance was explained by all five variables when predicting child's perception factors.

The correlation matrix suggested the five independent variables are not correlated above

.70 and therefore multicollinearity does not exist (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Table 10 summarizes the analysis results. The multiple regression model with all five predictors produced $F(5, 113)= 11.03$, $p <.001$, $R^2=.33$ which suggests 33% of the variance in the dependent variable was explained by the five factors (school-based, peer-based, community-based, acculturation-based, and family-based). The previous analysis that suggested alone all of the variables, with the exception of acculturation significantly predicted the child's perception factor; however, in this analysis the standardized beta coefficients suggests only the community-based, family-based, and acculturation-based variables make a significant, independent contribution to the child's perception factor.

Table 10

Standard Multiple Regression of the Five Variables on the Child's Perception Factor

Variables	Child's perception	Family-based	School-based	Peer-based	Community-based	Acculturation-based	B	SE B	ß
Child's perception	1.00	.42	.38	.39	.45	.06			
Family-based	.42	1.00	.30	.32	.35	-.26	.35	.10	.33**
School-based	.38	.30	1.00	.51	.45	.09	.14	.09	.13
Peer-based	.39	.32	.51	1.00	.64	.03	.04	.09	.04
Community-based	.45	.35	.45	.64	1.00	-.07	.46	.18	.26*
Acculturation-based	.06	-.26	.09	.03	-.07	1.00	.03	.04	.17*
$R^2=.33$									
Adjusted $R^2=.30$									

*p<.05, **p<.01

A hierarchical regression was conducted in order to determine if the family-based, community-based, school-based, acculturation-based, and peer-based composite score continued to predicted an individual's child's perception score when TAKS scores, age, and grade were controlled for. The correlation matrix suggested the five independent variables, grade, TAKS scores, and age are not correlated above .7 and therefore multicollinearity does not exist (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The correlation matrix suggested the five independent variables are not correlated above .7 and therefore multicollinearity does not exist (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The Mahalanobis distance (p<.001) found that no outliers among the cases were found. Two cases were found to have missing data, N=117.

Table 11 summarizes the analysis results. Step one produced $F(4, 113)= 1.89$, p=.12, R^2=.06 which suggests 6% of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by age, grade, and TAKS scores. After step 2, with the five variables (school-based, peer-based, community-based, acculturation-based, and family-based) added to the prediction of the child's perception factor produced $F=(9, 108)= 6.46$, p=.001, R^2=.35. The standardized beta coefficients suggest only the community-based, family-based, and acculturation-based variables make a significant contribution to the child's perception factor.

Table 11

Summary of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression of the Five Variables on the Child's Perception Factor

Variables	B	SE B	ß
Step 1			
Math TAKS	-.49	.69	-.08
Reading TAKS	.86	.67	.14
Grade	1.32	.86	.17
Age	.40	.52	.08
Step 2			
Math TAKS	-.04	.62	-.01
Reading TAKS	.53	.60	.09
Grade	.43	.75	.06
Age	.45	.45	.09
Continued			
Variables	**B**	**SE B**	**ß**
Family-based	.36	.10	.32**
School-based	.13	.10	.12
Peer-based	.03	.09	.04
Community-based	.44	.19	.24*
Acculturation based	.06	.04	.14*

Note. R^2 =.06 for Step 1; ΔR^2 = .29 for Step 2 (p <.05). *p<.05, **p<.01

Question 4

Do child's perception factors mediate the relationships between school, peers, family, and community and an individual's membership in the DAEP or non-DAEP group? The mediating effects of the child's perception factor was tested using the product of coefficients model with asymmetric confidence intervals (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007; MacKinnon, Fritz, Williams, & Lockwood, 2005) To test the mediation effects, the Joint Significance (JST) test was employed. The JST has been found to be one of the best approaches to testing mediation effects it has been shown to exhibit a balance of statistical power and Type I error (MacKinnon et al., 2002). JST requires that regression results estimating the coefficients of the (a) path from the predictor to the mediator and (b) the path from the mediator to outcome be examined for significance (Kenny et al., 1998). If both a and b are found to be significant then the research can conclude that a significant indirect effect is present (Mallinckrodt, Abraham, Wei, and Russell, 2006).

To determine if (a) was significant, the previous five separate regressions used to answer question 3, were examined (see Table 11). The results showed all path coefficients were not significant with the exception of the family-based, community-based, and acculturation-based factors. In order to investigate (b) a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to determine if the child's perception factor (mediator) made a statistical significant effect on the DAEP factor when the effect of the five independent variables, age, grade, and TAKS scores was controlled for (see Table 12). The results revealed that, when the other variables were controlled for, the child's perception path

coefficient was not statistically significantly (b=-.09, *p*=.25). These results suggest that the child's perception factor does not mediate the relationship between placement in the DAEP and the family-based factors, acculturation-based factors, school-based factors, friend-based factors, community-based factors, age, grade, math TAKS scores, or the reading TAKS scores.

Table 12

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting the DAEP Factor

Variables	B	SE B	ß
Step 1			
Math TAKS	-.29	.08	-.39**
Reading TAKS	.03	.08	.04
Grade	.24	.09	.24*
Age	.03	.06	.06
Step 2			
Math TAKS	-.16	.07	-.20*
Reading TAKS	.02	.06	.02
Grade	.17	.08	.17*
Age	-.01	.05	-.00
Family-based	-.01	.01	-.01
School-based	.07	.01	.53**
Peer-based	.01	.01	.04
Community-based	.01	.02	.04
Acculturation based	.01	.00	.16*

Table 12

Continued

Variables	B	SE B	ß
Step 3			
Math TAKS	-.16	.07	-.21*
Reading TAKS	.02	.06	.03
Grade	.18	.08	.18*
Age	.01	.05	.01
Family-based	.00	.01	.02
School-based	.07	.01	.55**
Peer-based	.01	.01	.05
Community-based	.01	.02	.06
Acculturation based	.01	.00	.18*
Child's perception	-.01	.01	-.09

Note. R^2=.50 for Step 1; ; ΔR^2 = .31 for Step 2; ΔR^2 = .01 for Step 3 (p < .05). *p<.05, **p<.01

In addition to testing the mediating effects of the child's perception factor, the effects of family-based, school-based, peer-based, community-based, and acculturation-based factors on group placement and child's perception factors were assessed through the use of structural equation modeling using the program AMOS (Analysis of Movement Structures; Arbuckle, 2006). SEM was used because it allows the simultaneous test of all relationships between all variables present. The model presented earlier in Figure 1 was altered based on the results found in aforementioned analysis. A significant difference was found in the TAKS scores, age, and grade of the non-DAEP group and the DAEP group and as a result three addition variables were added in order to account for the contribution academic achievement, age, and grade has on an individual's alternative placement status. Previous analysis also suggested that the child's perception factor did not appear to mediate the relationship between the five

factors and in fact only the paths from the community-based, family-based factors, and acculturation-based factors significantly predicted the child's perception factor. Results also suggested the acculturation-based factors, school-based factors, Math TAKS, and grade predict DAEP placement (See Table 13). In this model the exogenous (independent) variables in the model are family-based, school-based, community-based, acculturation-based, peer-based factors, Math TAKS scores, Reading TAKS scores, age, and grade. The endogenous (dependent) variables are the child's perception factor and the group status (alternative placement).

In search for a better model, modification indices were examined and suggested several relationship between the variables: the community-based factor and the peer-based, the community-based factor and the family-based factor, the family-based factor and the peer-based factor, the family-based factor and the acculturation- based factor, and the community-based factor and the Reading TAKS factor. The modification indices also suggested the family-based factors, acculturation based factors and the Math TAKS variables predicted the school-based factor (See Table 13). These paths were added, the model was tested, and this resulted in an improved model fit. In this model the exogenous (independent) variables in the model are family-based, community-based, acculturation-based, peer-based factors, Math TAKS scores, Reading TAKS scores, age, and grade. The endogenous (dependent) variables are the child's perception factor, school-based factor, and the group status (alternative placement). The final model is displayed in Figure 2. The path coefficients between the factors and variables were all

significantly significant (p <.05). This model produced a $\chi^2(37)=44.10$, *p=.20*, which

indicated the model fits the data acceptably in the population from which the sample was

drawn. The correlation coefficients were provided in Table 14. The goodness-of-fit

indices for this model were CFI=.98, NFI=.90 and RMSEA= .04, which indicates this

model meets the criteria for a good fit model (Hu & Bentler, 1995).

Table 13

Fit Indices of Models

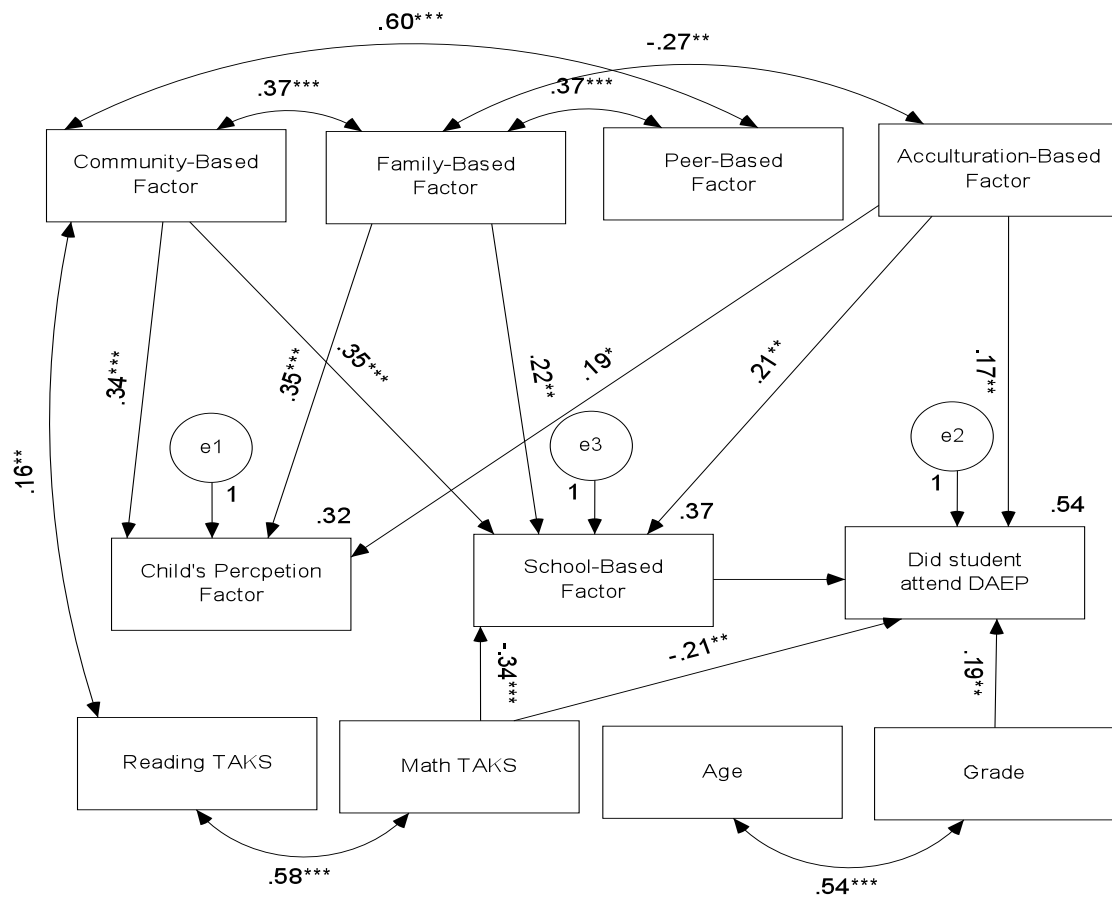| Fit Indices	χ^2	df	p	CFI	NFI	RMSEA
Model 1	189.42	46	.00	.61	.55	.16
Model 2	44.10	37	.20	.98	.90	.04

Figure 2

Risk Factors Influence on DAEP Placement

Table 14

Correlation Coefficient Table for Model 2

	Group	Reading TAKS	Math TAKS	Age	Grade	Accultrat-ion Based	Commu-nity Based	Family Based	School Based	Peer Based	Child's Perception Based
Group	1.00										
Reading TAKS	-.22*	1.00									
Math TAKS	-.42***	.58***	1.00								
Age	.27**	-.11	-.22*	1.00							
Grade	.35***	-.16	-.21*	.54***	1.00						
Acculturation Based	.22*	.14	.08	.03	.07	1.00					
Community Based	.34***	.07	-.12	.10	.13	-.05	1.00				
Family Based	.15	-.03	.02	.01	.12	-.27**	.35***	1.00			
School Based	.67***	-.22*	-.36***	.21*	.21*	.11	.45***	.29***	1.00		
Peer Based	.40***	-.12	-.21*	.18	.25**	.05	.60***	.34***	.46***	1.00	
Child's Perception Based	.23*	.06	-.05	.18	.20*	.08	.44***	.43***	.28***	.37***	1.00

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

Researchers have identified numerous risk and protective factors that give

insight into the academic difficulties Hispanic adolescents' experience. Research has

noted that the presence of a single risk or protective factor does not influence a

child's development, but rather it is the accumulation of a multiple risk and protective

factors that can have an impact (Bynner, 2002; Carr & Vandiver, 2001; Forehand,

Biggar, & Kotchick, 1998; Gutman, Sameroff, & Eccles, 2002; Johnson &

Waldfogel, 2003; Prelow & Loukas, 2003). The number of risk and protective factors

present has been found to be a better predictor of a child's outcome than the kind of

factor (Sameroff, 2000; Sameroff, Gutman, & Peck, 2003).

Summary and Discussion

The aim of this study was to establish a framework for better understanding a

variety of risk and protective factors that some Hispanic males possess that allow

them to be successful, while other Hispanic males with similar environmental factors

experience negative outcomes. The purpose of this study was to examine differences

in the protective and risk factors in the area of family, community, school, peers, self,

and acculturation levels between Hispanic males who have been placed in alternative

education settings and their same aged Hispanic male peers who have not been

previously placed and are not currently placed in an alternative setting.

This chapter will provide an overview and discussion of the findings of this

study. The first section summarizes the major findings of the study and examines the

implications based on literature. The second section addresses the limitations of the study, while the final section provides suggestions for future research.

Group Differences in Risk Factors

The ecological model recognizes that each person functions within a complex network of individual, family, community, and environmental contexts that impact their capacity to avoid risk. Central to this model is the concept of cumulative risk: as exposure to risk factors at multiple levels of the ecology increases, the probability of being paced in alternative schools increases.

The study examined whether the risk factors work in a cumulative manner, meaning that students who are in the alternative settings have a higher cumulative risk score than those individuals who have not attended an alternative education setting and results of this study found a significant difference in the cumulative score for the non-DAEP group when compared to the DAEP group. The results indicate the students in the non-DAEP had a higher number of risk factors present than those in the non-DAEP group. This, along with previous research indicates, multiple risk factors across domains can influence an individual's behavior and negative outcomes (Burchinal, Roberts, Hooper, & Zeisel, 2000; Deater-Deckard et al., 1998).

Several researchers have suggested that important information may be overlooked by only exploring only a total cumulative score (Deater-Deckard et al., 1998; Poria, Pike, & Deater-Deckard, 2004). In this study, the two groups significantly differed on the community-based, school-based, peer-based, and acculturation-based cumulative scores; however, a significant difference was not

found in the family-based or child's perception cumulative score between the two groups.

The community-based category encompasses protective and risk factors that include included items that explored non-school related activities the student participated in during the last school year, and if the student has a non-related adult that he can talk to or ask for advice, gang membership, and neighborhood safety. The results of the study indicated those students in the DAEP group on average had a larger number of risk factors present in this area when compared to the non-DAEP group. These results suggest intervention programs that focus on mentorship programs and providing adolescents an opportunity to participate in non-school activities can have a positive effect on student outcomes.

The school environment has a direct effect on each individual student. For example, those students who feel connected the school, have better relationships with faculty, and report feeling safe at school are more likely to experience positive outcomes such as higher grades and higher attendance (Woolley & Grogan-Kaylor, 2006). The school-based factor investigated teacher/student relationships, how often the student has skipped class, retention rates, and the school related activities the student participated in during the last school year. The result of this study indicated that those students in the non-DAEP had fewer school-based risk factors when compared to those in the DAEP group. Previous research has suggested that the difference in the two groups' experiences at school can best be explained by differences in the ways the students who are sent to the DAEP view their experience at

school (Scott, Nelson, & Liaupsin, 2001). For example, previous research suggests students in DAEPs have limited interactions with school faculty in their home school when compared to students in the general education placement (Scott, Nelson, & Liaupsin, 2001). These results indicate that future research needs to investigate prevention and intervention programs that focus on helping at-risk students feel connected to school in order to decreasing negative student outcomes, such as placement in the DAEP.

Peers groups are a networks through which conceptions of identity and self-esteem are resolved, they provide an adolescent with sense of belonging, and help an adolescent define what is "normal" (Erikson, 1968; Hamburg, 1992; Kaplan, 1993; Newman and Newman, 1976). The peer-based factor included questions that investigated the type of behaviors an adolescent's peer group exhibited, such as: skipping school, delinquent behavior, placement in the DAEP, and grades. This study found the DAEP group significantly differed from the non-DAEP group in the area of peers, with non-DAEP group reporting fewer risk factors present in their respective peer groups. Students are placed in DAEP as a result of inappropriate school behavior, which increases the likelihood the adolescent with affiliate with at-risk peer groups who have also been placed in the DAEP. These findings indicate that future research should focus on creating intervention programs for at-risk students that provide them with opportunities to not only interact with peers in structured positive environments, but also by provides the at-risk student a chance to forge relationships with prosocial peers.

Acculturation has been defined as the process of change that results from continuous contact with individuals from a different culture (Berry, Trimble, & Olmedo, 1986). The term bicultural suggests an individual can communicate and navigate through two different cultures and has been found to be a protective factor for Hispanic adolescents (Berry, 1980; Szapocznik, Kurtines, & Fernandez, 1980). This study's finding indicated the non-DAEP group's acculturation score was significantly different from the DAEP group. These results suggested the non-DAEP group identifies and can successfully navigate with in both the dominant and traditional culture, while the DAEP group identifies with only one culture. This study indicates the non-DAEP group has been able to develop flexible coping skills that they can implement according to the cultural context in which they are functioning (Feliciano, 2001; Fernandez-Barrillas & Morrison, 1984; Miranda et. al, 2000; Rotheram-Borus, 1993; Szapocznik, Kurtines, & Fernandez, 1980). The findings suggest future research should continue to explore biculturalism and the effects of dual language intervention programs.

Family-based factors are those factors that are present within the family (Carr & Vandiver, 2001)**.** This study found no significant difference between the two on the groups family-based factor. This study also found no difference between the two groups on the child's perception factors. Child's perception factors are those factors that are inherent characteristics that are unique to the individual child, such as self-efficacy, self-determination, self-regulation, and life satisfaction. This category encompasses how the child perceives these external risk and protective factors. These

results indicated that the two groups perceived the external risk and protective factors in a very similar way even though the DAEP group reported higher risk factors levels in the area of peers, school, community, and acculturation.

One possible explanation for the similar child's perception scores may be that placement in the DAEP setting influenced students' perceptions, making them similar to those of the non-DAEP students, even though their actual risk factors were higher in most cases. The DAEP is a very structured environment with smaller class sizes. This provides the DAEP group with an opportunity to interact with similar peers, more opportunities to interact with the faculty and staff, and a greater amount of feedback from the administration. Thus, the issues the DAEP group had previously experienced in general education may no longer apply in the DAEP setting, which may have contributed to the DAEP group having a similar perception to the non-DAEP group. These findings suggest future research should continue to explore the possibility that not only does a structured learning environment help some at-risk students to be more successful, but it may also contribute to the student's perception of those risk and protective factors present in his/her life.

The Unique Contribution of the Five Cumulative Scores to Child's Perception Factor

The child's perception category encompasses how the child perceives the external risk and protective factors present in his/her environment, in addition to how the child perceives him/herself. The study hypothesized that the protective and risk factors present in the child's environment or relationships (family, school, peers, community, and acculturation) may have an effect on the way a child perceives themselves and

their relationships with others. This study found the family-based, school-based, peer-based, and community-based variables were all individually, significantly correlated with the child's perception factor (See Table 9); however additional analysis revealed only the community-based, family-based, and acculturation-based factors significant predict the child's perception factors when these factors were examined simultaneously (See Tables 10 and 11). This suggests that the relationships between the school and peer-based factors and the child perception factor are not unique from these variables' relationships to the other risk factors.

The bivarate regression analysis also (See Table 9) revealed that acculturation did not individually predict the Child's perception factor; however the results of both the standard and hierarchical regression analysis suggested acculturation did in fact predict the child's perception factor. The difference in the bivarte results and the two other regressions reveal that family-based factor is a suppressor variable for acculturation. A suppressor variable is defined as a variable that does not predict the criterion, but does increase regression weights by virtue of correlation with other predicting variables and, thus, improves the prediction of the criterion (Cohen & Cohen, 1975). In this case, the type of suppression observed is cooperative or reciprocal suppression, which indicates both the family-based and acculturation-based factors are correlated positively with the child's perception factor, but correlated negatively with each other. This suggests that the family based variable is a suppression variable that is confounded. This indicates that acculturation does not

independently predict the child's perception factor, but becomes significant when the family-based factor is added to the equation.

Model and Implications

The aim of the model was to establish a framework for better understanding the relationships and process involved in a variety of risk and protective factors for Hispanic adolescent males. The final model (See Figure 2) differed from the hypothesized model. Causal modeling techniques were implored to explore the relationships involved in the risk and protective factors and the final model fitting was exploratory.

School-based Factor

Consistent with the more traditional regression analyses, the model also revealed the school-based factor predicted the group assignment factor. This direct path suggests the student's experiences and sense of belongingness to school predicts the likelihood the individual would be placed in the DAEP. This suggests that school faculty and teachers may be able to change a student's trajectory who have low academic achievement, exhibit inappropriate or violent behaviors, are truant, or have been retained by providing those students opportunities to feel successful, experience positive interaction with peers and teachers, and play an active role in the classroom.

Community-based, Peer-based, and Family-based Factors

Moderate correlations were also found between the family-based factor and both the community-based factor and the peer-based factor; however, a strong correlation was found between the community-based factor and the peer-based factor. These

findings indicate that community involvement is directly related to type of peer groups an individual is associated with, including gang involvement and peer delinquency. This relationship indicates that interventions and prevention programs that increase positive community involvement may have a positive impact on peer relationships.

The community-based factor and family-based factor predicted the school-based factor, which indicated the number of adult involvement and resources that are available in both the family and community are predictors of the level of an adolescent's sense of school belongingness. These findings are consistent with the age old saying "it takes a village to raise a child". Interventions that encourage parental involvement, participation in the extracurricular activities outside of school, and community involvement will have a positive direct effect on school outcomes.

Acculturation-based Factor

The acculturation-based factor was shown to predict both the school-based factor and the group assignment factor. These results suggest that those individuals who are able to relate to both cultures equally were less likely to be placed in the DAEP and had a greater sense of belongingness to school. This is consistent with previous studies that have also found that bicultural adolescents are better adapted to both cultures, which has been shown to buffer against negative outcomes and provides adolescents with experiences and problem solving skills that help them access resources at school (Buriel, et al, 1998; Rogler, Cortes, & Malgady, 1991; Tse, 1997).

Academic Achievement

The model revealed that academic achievement and age-grade factors significantly accounted for some of the variance in the group assignment factor. This indicated academic achievement and retention plays a significant role in determining the possibility an adolescent will be placed in the DAEP. These findings were not consistent with the study's initial hypothesis, but is consistent with previous research that has found those students who have lower academic achievement or been retained were more likely to exhibit inappropriate behavior, more likely to be suspended or sent to the DAEP (Agnew 1992 ; Felson & Staff; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Scott, Nelson, & Liaupsin, 2001).

Academic achievement was also shown to have a direct path to the school-based factor. This indicated academic achievement significantly predicted the level of an individual's sense of school belongingness and the types of relationship and opportunities they have experienced at school. These finds are consistent was previous research that has also found those students who have lower academic achievement more likely to have poor adjustment and attitudes toward school (Smink, 2001).

These results indicate that academic achievement significantly affects educational outcomes and suggests that school faculty and staff should consider this variable as a strong risk indicator. This model provides support for early interventions, prevention programs, and the use of early academic screening measure to aid in identifying and providing academic support to those students who display academic difficulties.

Future research needs to focus on longitudinal studies that identify students who exhibit academic difficulties in early elementary and investigate if early academic interventions decreased the likelihood of DAEP placement.

Limitations of Study

This study has several limitations. One limitation is that the population from which the sample was obtained may not be generalizable to the larger target population. The sample of Hispanic adolescent males was obtained from a single large urban school district in Central Texas. The sample on which the findings are based mostly reported Mexican ancestry; given the racial and linguistic diversity in the Hispanic population, these results can not be generalized to the entire Hispanic population in the United States. A second limitation to the study was the small sample size, which included only 119 participants. A larger sample size would make the results of this study more generalizable to the population at large and would allow for a more precise interpretation of the effect sizes. Additionally, the findings must be interpreted with caution since lower sample sizes tend to yield greater margins of sampling error. Third, this study is based on student self-report measures and, as a result, response bias may be present. All of the participants were asked about their perception of themselves, their relationships and school. Some individuals may have responded in a social appropriate manner rather than reporting their actual feelings or experiences. Fourth, the student's academic achievement was based on a single year TAKS scores. Therefore, any interpretation of the results should take into account that an adolescent's level of academic achievement may not have been fully captured.

Fifth, it is possible that the students in the non-DAEP group might not have been sent to the DAEP when the study was conducted, but were may have been sent there with in this school year after the study was conducted. Finally, the DAEP group was made up of students from four different campuses, who had been placed in the DAEP for discipline infractions of varying severity, while the non-DAEP information was collected from one middle school. This made it difficult to control for the varying curriculum employed at each school and DAEP, as well as each school's characteristics. These factors limit the generalizabilty of the study and highlight the need for further investigation. Despite these limitations, the results of this study demonstrate that protective factors within the family, peers, and community as well as academic achievement play an important role in predicting school outcomes for Hispanic adolescent males.

Implications for Practice

As the Hispanic population continues to grow, research needs to continue to investigate the risk and protective factors that contribute to Hispanic male students' success in the regular education setting. This study provided more information about Hispanic adolescent males who have been placed in alternative education settings and increased our understanding and knowledge of why some adolescents were able to be successful despite a multitude of risk factors, which would be helpful to school psychologist or other school personnel when devising treatment plans, developing interventions, and implementing prevention strategies for Hispanic adolescent males. This study contributed to the literature by focusing on Hispanic adolescent males who

have not been successful at school and examined factors that contribute to some Hispanic males experiencing negative outcomes, such as being placed in alternative education settings.

Directions for Future Research

This study is important because previous research has often focused on children's deficits or pathology; however, this study has taken a different approach by placing attention on examining the strengths and resiliency in children. Additional research in this area is vital in order to be able to more precisely pinpoint the risk factors that influence the placement of Hispanic male students into the DAEP. Replication studies that include greater sample sizes and a sample that includes Hispanic males throughout the United States will be necessary to ensure that the results found in this study are generalizable to Hispanic adolescent males nationwide. Nevertheless, this study demonstrated that some academic achievement and protective factors in the community and family promote positive school outcomes. Given that the literature on Hispanic students in the DAEP is scarce, researchers are encouraged to pursue future research projects that continue to investigate the risk and protective factors present in the environment and relationships of those individuals placed in the DAEP, as well as explore possible prevention programs that focus on academic achievement, community and parental involvement.

Future studies may also use the model that has been presented in this study to further investigate in other regions around the country the influence of community and family protective factors for all Hispanic male students. This model may also be

applied to Hispanic male students in other grades and communities of average or higher SES. Knowledge of protective and risk factors in can be further by applying this model to Hispanic students in a range of education settings, including special education and gifted and talented programs. Finally, future studies might want to consider including academic achievement measures, as well as teacher and parent report measures, in order to obtain a variety of perspectives and investigate parental involvement and school characteristics. The combination of student, parent, and teacher reports may also provide more accurate data.

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APPENDIX A

PARENTAL CONSENT FORM FOR CHILD TO PARTICIPTE IN STUDY

Project Title: Difference between Hispanic Adolescent Males in Alternative and
Regular Education Placement

Investigators: Brandi Kocian, Cyndi Riccio, and Amanda Jenson-Doss, Texas A&M
University

Your child is invited to participate in a study to help understand how Hispanic

adolescent males feel about their relationships, school, and their environment. Students

were nominated by their teacher for participation. The information gathered by the

study will help school professionals identify the needs of their Hispanic adolescent

male students.

If you agree for your child to participate, your child will be asked to complete a

questionnaire that will take approximately 15-30 minutes to complete. This

questionnaire will ask your child demographic information such as date of birth,

school, and grade. The questionnaire will also ask your child to complete several

rating scales that will be used to investigate how your child views themselves, their

relationships, school, and home. You will be also giving the researcher permission to

have access to your child's school records and TAKS scores. Your child will be asked

to complete the questionnaire during his lunch period. Your child will be provided a

healthy lunch while completing the questionnaire and a $5 gift card from McDonalds

for participating.

There are no risks to your child or you by participating in this study. Your child's

privacy is very important and all records will be kept confidential to the extent of the

law and in no way be disclosed to teachers, administrators, other parents and/or other students. You child will not be asked to put his name on the questionnaire as to protect your child's identity, but instead will be identified by a random three digit number created by the researcher. The information obtained in this program may be published in professional journals or presented at professional conferences but no identifying information linking you or your child to the study will be included. The researcher will be the only one to have access to any information that you child will provide. Any and all data that is collected if you choose to allow your child to participate will be kept in a locked file cabinet and will be immediately destroyed at the end of the study.

For the questionnaire, a time will be selected that fits your child's teacher's schedule and does not require your child to miss important information. There will be no additional instruction or intervention as part of this study. If you have questions or need more information regarding this project, please contact Brandi Kocian at Texas A&M University.

Your child is under no obligation to participate in this project. Your choice to decline or end your child's participation at any time will not affect your relationship with your child's school. If you agree to participate, your child may refuse to answer any of the test items or questions that are part of the research study.

You may direct any questions to:

Brandi Kocian. (713) 882-1737, bkocian@tamu.edu, Texas A&M University

Cindy Riccio, Ph.D. (979) 845-1831, criccio@tamu.edu, Texas A&M University.

Amanda Jensen-Doss, Ph.D. (979) 845-9250, ajensendoss@tamu.edu, Texas A&M University.

Please be sure you have read the above information, asked questions and received answers to your satisfaction. By signing this document, you give approval for your child to participate in this study.

_____   _____
Signature of Parent   Date

_____
Child's Name of Consent

APPENDIX B

FORMULARIO DE CONSIENTIMIENTO PARA PARTICIPAR

EN UN ESTUDIO

Titulo del Proyecto: Diferencia Entre Varones Adolescentes Hispanos en Educación

Regular y Educación Alternativa

Investigadores: Brandi Kocian, Cyndi Riccio, y Amanda Jenson-Doss, Universidad de

Texas A&M

Se le invita a su hijo a participar en un estudio para entender como los hispanos adolescentes varones se sienten acerca de sus relaciones, escuela y ambiente escolar. Los estudiantes fueron nominados por sus maestro/as para participar. La información colectada para el estudio ayudará a los profesionales de la escuela identificar las necesidades de los varones adolescentes hispanos.

Si esta de acuerdo en dar permiso para que su hijo participe, le pediremos a su hijo que llene un cuestionario que requiere 15 a 30 minutos de su tiempo. Esta sesión se llevara a cabo después de la escuela cuando sea conveniente para su hijo o durante la hora de lunch. El cuestionario pedirá información demográfica como fecha de nacimiento, escuela y grado. También, se le pedirá que responda a preguntas que usan escalas numéricas que se usaran para investigar como su hijo se ve a si mismo, sus relaciones, escuela y hogar. También le esta dando permiso al investigador para accesar los resultados del examen TAKS y récords escolares de su hijo. La investigación se llevara a cabo en la escuela de su hijo durante el período de comida.

Su niño va recibir una comida nutritiva mientras termina el cuestionario y también recibirá una tarjeta de McDonalds de cinco dólares por su participación.

No hay ningún riesgo asociado con participar en el estudio. La privacidad de su hijo es muy importante y toda la información colectada se mantendrá confidencial hasta que la ley lo permita. La información no será revelada a maestros, administradores, otros padres o estudiantes. No se le pedirá a su hijo que escriba su nombre en el cuestionario y en lugar de esto se le asignara dígitos creados por el investigador. La información obtenida en este estudio puede ser publicada en periódicos profesionales o presentada en conferencias profesionales. Sin embargo, no reveláramos la identidad de los participantes. El investigador será la única persona con acceso a la información proporcionada. Cualquier dato colectado será guardado en archivos seguros y serán destruidos inmediatamente al final del estudio.

El tiempo necesario para completar el cuestionario será programado para un horario conveniente para su hijo. Su hijo no perderá información educativa. No habrá instrucción adicional ni intervenciones como parte de este estudio. Si tiene preguntas o necesita mas información sobre este proyecto, por favor comunicarse con Brandi Kocian de la Universidad de Texas A&M.

La participación de su hijo es voluntaria y su decisión de rechazar o terminar su participación en cualquier momento no afectará su relación con la escuela de su hijo ni con la Universidad de Texas A&M. Si usted da permiso para la participación de su hijo, él puede negar contestar cualquiera pregunta.

Puede dirigir sus preguntas a:

Brandi Kocian (713) 882-1737, bkocian@tamu.edu, Texas A&M University

Cindy Riccio, Ph.D. (979) 845-1831, criccio@tamu.edu, Texas A&M University

Amanda Jensen-Doss, Ph.D. (979) 845-9250, ajensendoss@tamu.edu, Texas A&M University

Asegurase que haya leído la información anterior y que sus preguntas reciban respuestas a su satisfacción. Con su firma, esta dando su permiso para que su hijo participe en este estudio.

_____   _____

Firma del padre   Fecha

_____

Nombre del participante

APPENDIX C

ASSENT FORM FOR CHILD TO PARTICIPATE IN RISK AND PROTECTIVE

FACTORS

Title: Difference between Hispanic Adolescent Males in Alternative and Regular

Education Placement

Investigator: Brandi Kocian, Cindy Riccio, and Amanda Jenson-Doss, Texas A&M

University

You have been selected to take part in a research study. This study is interested in examining how you feel about your relationships, school, and yourself. To understand how boys your age feel about their environment, researchers from Texas A&M University will need to give some students questionnaires to fill out. You were selected to be one of students from your class to complete this questionnaire. The questionnaire should take you between 15-30 minutes to complete during lunch time. You will also be agreeing for the researcher to have access to your school record and TAKS scores from last year.

If you agree to be in the study, you will be asked to sign your name on this form. Please understand that you do not have to be in the study. If you do not want to be in the study, then that is okay.

If you agree to be in the study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that will ask you some questions about yourself, your friends, family, and school.

 If you do not feel comfortable answering questions that are part of the research study you can stop at any time.

SIGNATURE

I understand what _____ has told me and I want to be in the study.

_____   _____

Child's Printed Name   Child's Signature/Date

APPENDIX D

FORMULARIO DE CONSENTIMENTO PARA LA PARTICIPACON DEL

ESTUDIANTE EN UN ESTUDIO DE FACTORES DE PROTECCION Y RIESGO

Titulo: La Diferencia Entre Adolescentes Hispanos Asignados a una Educación

Alternativa o Regular

Investigadores: Brandi Kocian, Cindy Riccio, and Amanda Jenson-Doss, Texas A&M

University

Usted ha sido seleccionado para ser parte de un estudio. Este estudio esta interesado en examinar como se siente usted de su relaciones, escuela, y si mismo. Para comprender como es que jóvenes de su edad se sienten sobre su ambiente, investigadores de la Universidad de Texas A&M pidieran que estudiantes llenen un cuestionario. Usted ha sido seleccionado para ser uno de los estudiantes de su clase que llenara este cuestionario. El cuestionario tomara entre 15 y 30 minutos para llenar. Esta sesión del estudio se llevara a cabo después de escuela cuando sea conveniente para usted o durante su hora de lunch. También aceptara que los investigadores tengan acceso a los resultados del examen TAKS que tomó el año anterior.

Si acepta ser parte de este estudio, se le pedirá que firme este formulario. No es necesario que usted participe en este estudio. Si elije no participar, no habrá ningún problema.

Si acepta ser parte de este estudio, se le pedirá que llene un cuestionario sobre usted, sus amigos, familia, y escuela

Si no se siente cómodo contestando las preguntas de este estudio, puede parar en cualquier momento.

Firma

Estoy conciente de lo que _____me ha explicado y quiero ser parte de este estudio.

_____   _____

Nombre del Niño/Niña en Molde   Firma de Niño/Niña y Fecha

APPENDIX E

INSTRUCTION FOR QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions for Completing the Questionnaire/Instrucciones Para Completar el Cuestionario
DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE/NO ESCRIBA SU NOMBRE EN EL CUESTIONARIO
Hi Students,
   This questionnaire will be given to 7th and 8th grade boys. This questionnaire has 28 items and should take you less than 30 minutes to complete it. The questions ask you about yourself and your experiences at home, school, and in your community. Your answers will help us understand how students feel and help us improve school programs.
   This questionnaire will not be shared with your teachers, parents, other students, or administrators. This questionnaire will be kept confidential, which is why you are asked to not write your name on the questionnaire. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each the question as honest as possible.
   If you have a question, please raise your hand and I will come help you. I can help you read a word or explain a question to you, so please feel free to ask.
Please keep these things in mind
1)   Take your time and read each question
2)   Read the directions before the questions
3)   Be as honest as you can about how **you** feel. Do not over think the questions.
4)   Raise your hand if you have a question.
5)   Try to answer each question. Pick the answer that is closest to how you feel.

Hola Estudiantes,

Este cuestionario será dado a niños de el septimo y octavo grado. Este cuestionario tiene 28 partes y le llevara acabo menos de 30 minutos para completarlo. Las preguntas seran acabo preguntas sobre usted, sus experiencias en su hogar, escuela, y su comunidad. Sus preguntas nos ayudaran a comprender como estudiantes como usted se sienten y a la vez ayudarnos a mejorar programas escolares.
   Este cuestionario no sera visto por sus maestros, padres, estudiantes, o administracion. Este cuestionario sera confidencial, y por eso es que se le ha pedido que no escriba su nombre en el cuestionario. Este no es un examen. No hay respuestas correctas o equivocadas. Favor de contestar el cuestionario lo mas honesto posible.
      Si tiene cualquier pregunta, favor de levantar su mano y yo vendre a ayudarle. Yo podre leerle las palabra o explicarle las pregunta, asi que tenga el favor de preguntar.
Favor de estar conciente de lo siguinte
1.   Tome su tiempo y lea cada pregunta
2.   Lea las instrucciones antes de leer las preguntas
3.   Sea lo mas honesto possible de como es que se siente. No sobre piense las preguntas.
4.   Levante la mano si tiene preguntas
5.   Trate de contestar cada pregunta. Elija la respuesta mas adecuada a como se siente.

When you finish, raise your hand and I will come collect your questionnaire.
Cuando acabe, levante la mano y yo vendre a levantar su cuestionario.

Thank you for your help with this study!
Gracias por su ayuda en este estudio!

APPENDIX F

Demographic Questionnaire: Please answer the following questions on the space provided below
Cuestionario Demografico: Favor de contestar las sigientes preguntas en los espacios disponibles.

1.) What is your date of birth?   Month/Mes:_____   Day/ Dia:_____   Year/ Año:_____
 Cual es la fecha de su nacimiento?

2.) Are you? (Check one)   Male/Hombre_____   Female/ Mujer_____
   Es usted? (Marque uno)

3)   What school are you attending?
  Que escuela esta atendiendo?

  _____

   If you are currently at the alternative school, what school did you attend
   before you were placed at the alternative school?

   Si esta atendiendo una escuela alternativa, que escuela atendió antes de ser puesto
   en la escuela alternativa?

  _____

4.) What grade are you currently in?

  En que nivel/grado está al momento   ☐ 7th grade/grado   ☐ 8th grade/grado

5) What is your ethnicity?
  (Please put a check in the box that best explains your ethnicity or race.)
  Cual es su etnicidad?
  (Favor de marcar en el cuadro que mejor describa su etnicidad o raza.)

  ☐ African American   ☐ White/Non-Hispanic   ☐ Asian/ Pacific Islander
     Afro-Americano   Caucasico/No-Hispano   Asiatico/ Islas Pacificas

  ☐ Hispanic/Latino   ☐ Native American   ☐ Other
     Hispano/Latino   Indio Nativo Americano   Otro

6.) Where were you born?   ☐ United States
  Donde Nacio?   E.E. U.U.

                      ☐ Other Country (write the country where you were born on the line bellow)
                         Otro Pais (Escriba el nombre del pais donde nacio debajo en la linea)

Family-Based Questions: The following are questions about your family. Remember to raise your hand if you need help.
Preguntas sobre la familia: Las siguientes preguntas son sobre su familia. Recuerde levantar la mano si nesecita ayuda.

7.) Where was your mother born?   ☐ United States
 Donde nació su Madre?   E.E. U.U

                                                  ☐ I do not know
                                                       No lo se

                              ☐ Other Country (write the country where she was born on the line bellow)
                                 Otro pais (escriba el nombre del pais donde nacio ella en la linea de abajo)

                      _____

8.) Where was your father born?   ☐ United States
 Donde nació su Padre?   E.E. U.U

                                                  ☐ I do not know
                                                       No lo se

                              ☐ Other Country (write the country where she was born on the line bellow)
                                 Otro pais (escriba el nombre del pais donde nacio ella en la linea de abaj

                      _____

9.) Who lives in your house with you? (Please put a check in the box next to the people who live with you at your house. Please put a check next to everyone who lives with you.)
 Quien vive con usted en su hogar? (Favor de poner una marca en la caja con el nombre de la gente que vive con usted en su hogar. Favor de poner una marca sobre toda la gente que viva con usted.

☐Mother /Madre   ☐Father /Padre   ☐
Stepmother/Madrastra

☐Stepfather/Padrastro   ☐Guardian or Foster Parent/

☐Grandmother/Abuela
                                    Guardian o Padres Adoptivos

☐Grandfather/Abuelo   ☐ Sister /Hermana   ☐Brother/Hermano

☐Other/Otro : _____

10.) How many of you siblings (brothers and sisters) live with you in the same house?
Que tantos hermanos y hermanas en total contigo en el mismo hogar?

☐ 0　　☐ 1　　☐ 2　　☐ 3　　☐ 4

☐ 5　　☐ More than 5/Mas de 5

11.)

My mother attended high school Mi madre atendio escuela secundaria	☐ yes/si　　☐ I do not know/ no lo se ☐ no /no
My mother graduated from high school or received a GED Mi madre graduo escuela secundaria o recibio un GED	☐ yes/si　　☐ I do not know/ no lo se ☐ no /no
My mother attended a technical, vocational, or training school Mi madre atendio una escuela tecnica, vocacional, o de entrenamiento.	☐ yes/si　　☐ I do not know/ no lo se ☐ no /no
My mother attended college Mi madre atendio la Universidad.	☐ yes/si　　☐ I do not know/ no lo se ☐ no /no
My mother graduated from college. Mi madre graduo de la Universidad	☐ yes/si　　☐ I do not know/ no lo se ☐ no /no
My father attended high school Mi padre atendio escuela secundaria	☐ yes/si　　☐ I do not know/ no lo se ☐ no /no
My father graduated from high school or received a GED Mi madre graduo escuela secundaria o recibio un GED	☐ yes/si　　☐ I do not know/ no lo se ☐ no /no
My father attended a technical, vocational, or training school　Mi padre atendio una escuela tecnica, vocacional, o de entrenamiento	☐ yes/si　　☐ I do not know/ no lo se ☐ no /no
My father attended college Mi padre atendio la Universidad	☐ yes/si　　☐ I do not know/ no lo se ☐ no /no
My father graduated from college Mi padre graduo de la Universidad	☐ yes/si　　☐ I do not know/ no lo se ☐ no /no

12.) Is your mother currently employed?　☐ yes/si　☐ no/no　☐ I do not know/ no lo

se
Esta tu mama empleada al momento?

Is your father is currently employed?   ☐ yes/si   ☐ no/no   ☐ I do not know/ no lo se
Esta tu papá empleado al momento?

13.) Has anyone in your family ever been to jail or prison? ?   ☐ yes/si   ☐ no/no
A estado un familiar suyo en la carcel o prision?

If yes, please check all family members who have served time in jail or prison that you know of:
Si la respuesta es "Si" favor de marcar todos los miembros de la familia que usted este conciente que han servido tiempo en la carcel o prision.

☐Mother /Madre   ☐Father /Padre   ☐ Stepmother/Madrastra

☐Stepfather/Padrastro   ☐Guardian or Foster Parent/   ☐Grandmother/Abuela
                                              Guardian o Padres Adoptivos

☐Grandfather/Abuelo   ☐ Sister /Hermana   ☐Brother/Hermano

☐Cousin/ Primo   ☐Aunt /Tia   ☐ Uncle/ Tio

☐Other/Otro : _____

15.) If you need help with your homework, there is someone at home you can ask to help you.

Cuando tienes tarea hay alguien en tu hogar quien te pueda ayudar? ? ☐ yes/si ☐ no/no

b) **If yes, please check all of the people who would help you with your homework if you ask.**
Si contestaste "Si", favor de marcar todas las personas que te pueden ayudar con la tarea si acaso les reguntas

☐Mother /Madre   ☐Father /Padre   ☐ Stepmother/Madrastra

☐Stepfather/Padrastro   ☐Guardian or Foster Parent/   ☐Grandmother/Abuela
                                              Guardian o Padres Adoptivos

☐Grandfather/Abuelo   ☐ Sister /Hermana   ☐Brother/Hermano

☐Cousin/ Primo   ☐Aunt /Tia   ☐ Uncle/ Tio

☐Other/Otro : _____

16.)

My mother makes sure I do my homework. **Mi madre se asegura que hago la tarea.**	☐ Always Aveces	☐ Sometimes Siempre	☐Never Nunca
My father makes sure I do my homework. **Mi padre se asegura que hago la tarea.**	☐ Always Aveces	☐ Sometimes Siempre	☐Never Nunca
My mother knows how I am doing in school. **Mi madre sabe como es que voy en la escuela**	☐ Always Aveces	☐ Sometimes Siempre	☐Never Nunca
My father knows how I am doing in school. **Mi padre sabe como es que voy en la escuela**	☐ Always Aveces	☐ Sometimes Siempre	☐Never Nunca

School-Based Questions: These are questions about school. You are doing great!
Preguntas sobre la Escuela: Estas son preguntas sobre la escuela. Estas haciendo muy bien!

17.) Have you ever failed or had to repeat a grade?   ☐ yes/si   ☐ no/no
   Has reprovado o tener que repetir un año?

18.) a) Have you ever been sent to alternative school?   ☐ yes/si   ☐ no/no
   Alguna vez has atendido una escuela alternativa?

   b.) If you did attend alternative school, what grade were you in when you were last sent to alternative school?
Si acaso as atendido una escuela alternativa, que grado atendias cuando fuiste enviado la ultima vez a la escuela alternativa.

☐ 1st -2nd grade   ☐ 3rd through 4th grade   ☐ 5th grade
   Primer-Segundo grado   T ercer – Cuarto grado   Quinto grado

☐ 6th grade   ☐ 7th grade   ☐ 8th grade
Sexto grado   Septimo grado   Octavo grado

   c.) If yes, how many times have you been sent to an alternative school?

   Cunatas veces has sido enviado a una escuela alternativa?   ☐Never/Nunca

   ☐ 1 time/ Una vez   ☐2 times/ Dos veces   ☐3 or more times/ 3 o mas veces

19.) In an average month, how often do you think you skipped class last academic school year?
En un mes comun, cuntas veces brincaste classes el año pasado

☐ Never /Nunca

☐ Less than once a month/ Menos de una vez al me

☐ Less than one day a week/ Menos de una vez al dia por semana

☐ At least once a week/ De perdido una vez por semana

20.) During the last academic school year, how many times were you late or tardy for school?
Durante el año pasado cuantas veces llegaste tarde a clase?

☐ 0 days/dias   ☐1- 5 days/dias   ☐ 6-10 days/dias   ☐ 11-15 days/dias

☐ □ 16 or more days/dias

21.) Last academic school year how often were you expelled from school or had out-of-school suspension?

☐Never/Nunca   ☐ 1 time/1 vez   ☐ 2 times/2 veces   ☐3 or more times/3 o mas veces

22.) How often did you have in-school suspension last year?
Cuantas veces fuiste puesto en suspension dentro-escolar?

☐Never/Nunca   ☐ 1 time/1 vez   ☐ 2 times/2 veces   ☐3 or more times/3 o mas veces

23.) How safe do you think the school you currently attend is?
Que tan segura consideras tu esculea?

☐ Very Unsafe   ☐Unsafe   ☐Safe   ☐Very Safe
       Muy   Insegura   Segrua   Muy segura
       insegura

b.) If you currently attend the alternative school, how safe would you rate the school you went to before being sent to alternative school is?
Si atendiste escuela alternativa, que tan segura la consideraste?

☐ Very Unsafe   ☐Unsafe   ☐Safe   ☐Very Safe
   Muy insegura   Insegura   Segrua   Muy segura

24.)

Teachers are helpful. **Los maestros nos ayudan**	☐ Always Aveces	☐ Often/ A menudo	☐ Sometimes Siempre	☐ Never Nunca
Teachers really care about their students. **A los maestros le importan los estudiantes**	☐ Always Aveces	☐ Often/ A menudo	☐ Sometimes Siempre	☐ Never Nunca
Teachers want to help you. **Los maestros quieren a los estudiantes**	☐ Always Aveces	☐ Often/ A menudo	☐ Sometimes Siempre	☐ Never Nunca
Teachers like their students. **A los maestros le agrada los estudiantes**	☐ Always Aveces	☐ Often/ A menudo	☐ Sometimes Siempre	☐ Never Nunca

25.) Have you participated in any of these activities or groups at school with in the last academic school year?
   Has participado en cualquier de estas actividades o grupos en la escuela el año pasado escolar?

☐ drama club/club de drama   ☐ honor society /sociedad de honores

☐ student council/Concilio estudiantil   ☐ foreign language club/club de lenguas extranjeras

☐ club in a subject area (math, science, history, computer)/   ☐ debate or speech/Debate o discurso

   club de (matematicas, siencias, historia, computadoras)

☐ Sports team (Football, Basketball, Track, Baseball, etc.)   ☐ other/otro
Equipo de deportes (Football, Basketball, Correr, Baseball, etc.)

Community-Based Questions./ Cuestionario sobre la Comunidad.

26.) Have you participated in any of these non-school activities or groups within the last academic school year?
Has participado en una de estas actividades no-escolar o grupos academicos durante el año pasado escolar?

☐ religious youth groups/   ☐ non-religious youth groups
Grupo religioso para jovenes   grupo de jovenes

☐ Big Brother/Big Sister organization   ☐ a gang
 /Organisacion "Big Brother/Big Sister   Una pandilla

☐ boy's or girl's club   ☐ Scouts
   "Boy's or girl's club"   Niños exploradores

☐ Non-school team sports (football, soccer, baseball, basketball, karate, etc.)   ☐ other/otro
   Equipo deportivo no-escolar (football, soccer, baseball, basketball, karate, etc.)

27.) If you had a problem or need advice is there an adult who is not a family member that you would talk to:

Si tiene un problema y necesita consejos, hay un adulto que no sea parte de su familia con cual pueda hablar.

☐ yes /si   ☐no/no

Who would you talk to or seek advice from?

Con quien hablaria o pediria consejos?

☐Coach/Entrenador   ☐Priest/Pastor/Sacerdote   ☐Gang Member/Miembro de la pandila

☐Teacher /Principle/ Maestro/Principal   ☐ Counselor/Consejero

☐ Youth Minister/ Pastor   ☐ Neighbor /Vecino

☐other/otro:_____

28.) How many individuals who are members of a gang live in your neighborhood. Que tantos miembros de una pandilla viven en su vencindario	☐None/Ninguno ☐A few people/Varios ☐ A lot of people/Muchos ☐Everyone is a member of a gang/ Todos son miembros de las pandillas
How often do you feel safe in the neighborhood where you I live? Que tan frecunte se sinte a salvo y seguro/segura en su vecindario?	☐Never ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐Always Nunca A veces Frecuente Siempre
Where you live do you hear about or see other people committing crimes Ha visto o oido de crimenes en la area donde vive?	☐Never ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐Always Nunca A veces Frecuente Siempre

Peers-Based Questions/Preguntas sobre colegas/compañeros

Questions about your friends and peers: Pease place a check in the box that best answers the question.

Preguntas sobre sus colegas y compañeros: Favor de poner una marca en el cuadro que mejor conteste su pregunta

	None of my friends **Ninguno de mi amigos**	A few of my friends **Varios de mis amigos**	Half of my friends **La mitad de mis amigos**	Most of my friends **La mayoria de mis amigos**	All of my friends **Todos mis amigos**
29) How many of your friends who you spend most of your time with do well in school? **Que tantos amigos con los que pasa mas tiempo van con buenas calificaciones en clase?**					
30) How many of your friends who you spend most of your time with are in a gang? **Que tantos amigos con los que pasa mas tiempo son miembros de la pandilla?**					
31) How many of your friends who you spend most of your time with often skip school? **Que tantos amigos con los que pasa mas tiempo faltan a clase**					
32) How many of your friends who you spend most of your time with have been in trouble with the police or arrested? **Que tantos amigos con los que pasa mas tiempo han estado en problemas o sido arrestado por la policia?**					
33) How many of your friends who you spend most of your time with have been sent to the alternative school? **Que tantos amigos con los que pasa mas tiempo han sido puestos en escuela alternativa?**					

APPENDIX G

BRIEF ACCULTURATION RATING SCALE FOR MEXICAN AMERICAN II

14). Check the box that answers the question.

I speak Spanish. Yo hablo Español.	☐ Not at all Nada	☐ Very Little Un Poquito a Veces	☐ Moderately Moderado	☐ Very Often Mucho Frequente	☐ Almost Always Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo
I speak English. Yo hablo Inglés.	☐ Not at all Nada	☐ Very Little Un Poquito a Veces	☐ Moderately Moderado	☐ Very Often Mucho Frequente	☐ Almost Always Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo
I enjoy speaking Spanish Me gusta hablar Español.	☐ Not at all Nada	☐ Very Little Un Poquito a Veces	☐ Moderately Moderado	☐ Very Often Mucho Frequente	☐ Almost Always Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo
I associate with Anglos. Me asocio con Anglos.	☐ Not at all Nada	☐ Very Little Un Poquito a Veces	☐ Moderately Moderado	☐ Very Often Mucho Frequente	☐ Almost Always Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo
I enjoy English language movies. Me gusta ver peliculas en Inglés.	☐ Not at all Nada	☐ Very Little Un Poquito a Veces	☐ Moderately Moderado	☐ Very Often Mucho Frequente	☐ Almost Always Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo
I enjoy Spanish language TV. Me gusta ver programas en la television que sean en Español.	☐ Not at all Nada	☐ Very Little Un Poquito a Veces	☐ Moderately Moderado	☐ Very Often Mucho Frequente	☐ Almost Always Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo
I enjoy Spanish language movies. Me gusta ver peliculas en Español.	☐ Not at all Nada	☐ Very Little Un Poquito a Veces	☐ Moderately Moderado	☐ Very Often Mucho Frequente	☐ Almost Always Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo

I enjoy reading books in Spanish. **Me gusta leer en Español.**	☐ Not at all *Nada*	☐ Very Little *Un Poquito a Veces*	☐ Moderately *Moderado*	☐ Very Often *Mucho Frequente*	☐ Almost Always *Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo*
I write letters in English. **Escribo (como cartas) en Inglés.**	☐ Not at all *Nada*	☐ Very Little *Un Poquito a Veces*	☐ Moderately *Moderado*	☐ Very Often *Mucho Frequente*	☐ Almost Alway *Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo*
My thinking is done in the English language. **Mis pensamientos ocurren en el idioma Inglés.**	☐ Not at all *Nada*	☐ Very Little *Un Poquito a Veces*	☐ Moderately *Moderado*	☐ Very Often *Mucho Frequente*	☐ Almost Always *Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo*
My thinking is done in the Spanish language. **Mis pensamientos ocurren en el idioma Español.**	☐ Not at all *Nada*	☐ Very Little *Un Poquito a Veces*	☐ Moderately *Moderado*	☐ Very Often *Mucho Frequente*	☐ Almost Always *Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo*
My friends are of Anglo origin. **Mis amigos recientes son Anglo Americano.**	☐ Not at all *Nada*	☐ Very Little *Un Poquito a Veces*	☐ Moderately *Moderado*	☐ Very Often *Mucho Frequente*	☐ Almost Always *Muchismo, Casi Todo el Tiempo*

APPENDIX H

SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CHILDREN

Check the box that best answers the question./Marque el cuadro que mejor conteste su pregunta.

	Very Bad Muy Mal	Not Well Mal	Okay OK	Well Bien	Very Well Muy Bien
1) How well can you express your opinions when other classmates disagree with you? Que tan bien puede expresar sus opiniones cuando los demas de los estudiantes estan en contra?					
2) How well do you succeed in cheering yourself up when an unpleasant event has happened? Que tan bien se alegra a si mismo cuando algo malo le ha pasado?					
3) How well can you study when there are other interesting things to do? Que tan bien puede estudiar cuando hay cosas interesantes que lo distraigan pasando a la vez?					
4) How well do you succeed in becoming calm again when you are very scared? Que tan bien se puede calmar cuando esta en una situacion donde se siente atemorizado?					
5) How well can you become friends with other young people? Que tan bien puede hacer amigos nuevos con gente nueva?					
6) How well can you study a chapter for a test? Que tan bien puede estudiar un capitulo para un examen?					
7) How well can you have a chat with an unfamiliar person? Que tan bien se puede comunicar con una persona extraña?					
8) How well can you prevent yourself from becoming nervous? Que tan bien puede prevenir volverse nervioso?					
9) How well do you succeed in finishing all your homework every day? Que tan bien puede acabar la tarea diaria?					

	Very Bad Muy Mal	Not Well Mal	Okay OK	Well Bien	Very Well Muy Bien
10) How well can you get along with your classmates while working together? Que tan bien se lleva con sus colegas cunado trabajan juntos?					
11) How well can you control your feelings? Que tan bien puede contralar sus sentimientos?					
12) How well can you pay attention during every class? Que tan bien puede poner atencion durante la clase?					
13) How well can you tell other young people that they are doing something you don't like? Que tan bien le puede comunicar a otra gente joven que no le gusta lo le hacen?					
14) How well can you give yourself a peptalk when you feel low? Que tan bien se puede decir asi mismo algo para alegrarse cundo esta triste?					
15) How well do you succeed in passing all school subjects? Que tan bien hace en pasar todas sus materias en la escuela?					
16) How well can you tell a funny story to a group of young people? Que tan bien pueda contra cosas graciosas en frente de gente joven?					
17) How well do you succeed in satisfying you parents with your schoolwork? Que tan bien puede satisfaser a sus padres con el trabajo escolar?					
18) How well are you able to remain friends with other young people? Que tan bien puede mantener amistad con gente joven?					
19)How well do you succeed in holding back unpleasant thoughts? Que tan bien puede mantener pensamientos malos a si mismo?					

	Very Bad Muy Mal	Not Well Mal	Okay OK	Well Bien	Very Well Muy Bien
20) How well do you succeed in passing a test? Que tan bien puede tener exito en pasar sus examenes?					
21)How well do you succeed in not worrying about things that might happen Que tan bien puede tener exito en no mortificarse en cosas que podrian pasar?					
18) How well are you able to remain friends with other young people? Que tan bien puede mantener amistad con gente joven?					

	Very Bad Muy Mal	Not Well Mal	Okay OK	Well Bien	Very Well Muy Bien

APPENDIX I

MULTIDIMENSIONAL STUDENT LIFE STATISFACTION SURVEY

Please place a check in the box that best answers the question./Favor de marcar el cuadro que mejor conteste su pregunta

Family/Familia: Check the box that best answers the question

	Never Nunca	Rarely Raramente	Sometimes A veces	Often A menudo	Almost Always Casi siempre
1) I enjoy being at home with my family. Me agrada estar en casa con mi famila.					
2) My family gets along well together. Mi familia se lleva muy bien.					
3) I like spending time with my parents. Me gusta pasar tiempo con mis padres.					
4) My parents and I doing fun things together. Mis padres y yo hacemos cosas divertidas.					
5) My family is better than most. Mi familia es mejor que las demas					
6) Members of my family talk nicely to one another Miembros de mi famila se hablan agradable a si mismos					
7) My parents treat me fairly. Mis padres me tratan justo					

Friends: Check the box that best answers the question/Amigos: Favor de marcar el cuadro que mejor conteste su pregunta

	Never Nunca	Rarely Raramente	Sometimes A veces	Often A menudo	Almost Always Casi siempre
8) My friends treat me well. Mis amigos me tartan bien.					
9) My friends are nice to me. Mis amigos son buenos con migo.					
10) I wish I had different friends. Deseo tener amigos diferentes					
11) My friends are mean to me. Mis amigos son malos conmigo					
12) My friends are great. Mis amigos son estupendos.					
13) I have a bad time with my friends. Tengo malos tiempos con mis agmigos.					
14) I have a lot of fun with my friends. Me divierto mucho con mis amigos.					
15) I have enough friends. Tengo suficientes amigos					
16) My friends will help me if I need it. Mis amigos me ayudan cuando los nesecito.					

School: Check the box that best answers the question./Escuela: Favor de marcar el cuadro que mejor conteste su pregunta

	Never Nunca	Rarely Raramente	Sometimes A veces	Often A menudo	Almost Always Casi siempre
17) I look forward to going to school. Me agrada pensar que ire a clase.					
18) I like being in school. Me agrada estar en clase					
19) School is interesting. La escuela me parese interesante.					
20) I wish I didn't have to go to school. Deseo que no tubiera que ir a					

clase.

	Never Nunca	Rarely Raramente	Sometimes A veces	Often A menudo	Almost Always Casi siempre
21) There are many things about school I don't like. Hay muchas cosas en la escuela me no me agradan					
22) I enjoy school activities. Me agradan las actividades de la escuela.					
23) I learn a lot at school. Aprendo mucho en la escuela					
24) I feel bad at school. Me siento mal en la escuela.					

Environment: Check the box that best answers the question./Ambiente: Favor de marcar el cuadro que mejor conteste su pregunta.

	Never Nunca	Rarely Raramente	Sometimes A veces	Often A menudo	Almost Always Casi siempre
25) I like where I live. Me agrada donde vivo.					
26) I wish there were different people in my neighborhood. Deseo que huviera otra gente en mi vecindario.					
27) I wish I lived in a different house. Deseo vivir en otra casa.					
28) I wish I lived somewhere else. Deseo vivir en otro lugar					
29) I like my neighborhood. Me agrada mi vecindario.					
30) I like my neighbors. Me agradan mis vecinos					
31) This town is filled with mean people. Esta ciudad esta llena de gente mala.					
32) My family's house is nice. La casa de mi famila es agradable					
33) There are lots of fun things to do where I live. Hay muchas cosas divertidas que hacer donde vivo.					

Self: Check the box that best answers the question./**Propio: Favor de marcar el cuadro que mejor conteste su pregunta.**

	Never Nunca	Rarely Raramente	Sometimes A veces	Often A menudo	Almost Always Casi siempre
34) I think I am good looking. Creo que soy bien parecido.					
35) I am fun to be around. Soy alguien agradable para con quien pasar tiempo.					
36) I am a nice person. Soy una persona buena					
37) Most people like me. A la mayoria de la gente le paresco agradable.					
38) There are lots of things I can do well. Hay muchas cosas que puedo hacer bien					
39) I like to try new things. Me gusta hacer cosas nuevas.					
40) I like myself. Me agrado a mi mismo.					

VITA

NAME: Brandi Renee Kocian

ADDRESS: Department of Educational Psychology
College of Education & Human Development
Texas A&M University
704 Harrington Tower
 MS 4225
College Station, TX 77843-4225

EMAIL
ADDRESS: Brandikocian@tamu.edu

EDUCATION: B.S., Interdisciplanary Studies
Texas A&M University, 2001