Latinx Students' Sense of Belonging in a Comprehensive Suburban High School

Samantha Ketover
sketover@uw.edu

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Latinx Students’ Sense of Belonging in a Comprehensive Suburban High School

Samantha Elizabeth Ketover

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

University of Washington, Tacoma
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Supervisory Committee:
Rob MacGregor, Ed.D., Chair
Julia Aguirre, Ph.D., Member
Wade Barringer, Ph.D., Member

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Abstract

Sense of belonging (SOB) is of critical importance to students as it impacts multiple aspects of a student’s life (Penergast et al, 2018). The need to belong is a fundamental human need (Maslow, 1954). A student’s SOB can be measured by the foundational Psychological Sense of School Membership (PSSM) scale (Goodenow, 1993). SOB is of particular importance for students of color (SOC). When SOB is negatively impacted in SOC this can cause declines in motivation and achievement (Penergast et al, 2018).

The first three goals of this dissertation were quantitative. First, there was a calculation of the levels of the SOB in 58 Latinx student study participants enrolled at a comprehensive suburban high school in the suburban Puget Sound area of Washington State. Second, a comparison of mean measures of SOB between different Latinx student groups, such as Puerto Rican and Mexican American was completed through an analysis of variance (ANOVA). Third, a determination of the relationship between students’ SOB and academic achievement as measured by cumulative GPA was explored through a correlation analysis.

The fourth and fifth goals of this dissertation were qualitative involved exploring student-reported and school-based factors that impacted the student’s SOB and the student-reported impacts of the COVID-19 school closure on SOB. Student responses to two open-ended questions were coded for acceptance, respect, inclusion, and support factors and themes were identified within each code.

Quantitatively the average PSSM score of all participants was 3.12 on a 5-point Likert scale. The ANOVA determined that there were no statistically significant differences between the mean measures of SOB for the Latinx student groups and there was a slight positive correlation between the students’ measures of SOB and their cumulative GPA. Qualitatively,
several themes emerged within the codes for acceptance, respect, inclusion, and support factors including the importance of the teachers’ knowledge and support of students. Adverse impacts of the COVID-19 school closure included but were not limited to decreased teacher knowledge of the students, increased student workload and decreased student motivation while a positive impact identified by students was their ability to move at their own pace during remote learning. Implications for future practice related to a focus on people and relationships through strategies to be incorporated in the school’s improvement plan including staff development in culturally responsive education, restorative justice practices, and ongoing measures of student SOB.

**Keywords:** sense of belonging, Latinx students, students of color, academic achievement, student learning opportunities, culturally responsive education, restorative justice, COVID-19
Dedication

My dissertation in practice is dedicated to my Mom, Sharon Elizabeth Brunk. Mom lived her life never letting anyone or anything except herself define who she was. She overcame obstacle after obstacle with faith in God and such grace and determination. Although she died after living with a cancer diagnosis and treatment during my studies, I know that she continues to love and support me and is by my side. Mom was the first professional teacher I knew, and I also remember her graduate studies at the Universities of Oregon and Hawaii. Her strength and example continue to guide me as a human, wife, mother, daughter, and educator. I love you, Mom. Always.
Acknowledgements

The unwavering love and support of my husband for the last 28 years sustains me every day. Thank you, Keith, for being such an amazing human. You are my beloved and my beloved is mine—for always. I treasure the love, encouragement, and hugs from my sons, Joshua, and Jacob. Being your Mom teaches me daily and makes me a better educator. My whole life in every situation and through every challenge my Dad, Gunter Brunk, is staunch in his love and support. Your life’s example, Dad, helps me to continue to become who I am. I am so thankful to and for Keith, Joshua, Jacob, and Dad.

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I am grateful to my amazing committee chair, Dr. Rob MacGregor. Your empathy, your calm, your encouragement, your knowledge, and expertise were all invaluable. Thank you as well to Dr. Wade Barringer and Dr. Julia Aguirre for providing critical feedback, guidance, and support through this process.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Sense of belonging (SOB) is of critical importance to students as it impacts multiple aspects of a student’s life (Penergast et al, 2018). The need to belong is a fundamental human need (Maslow, 1954). A student’s SOB can be measured by the well-established Psychological Sense of School Membership (PSSM) scale (Goodenow, 1993). SOB is of particular importance for students of color. When SOB is negatively impacted in students of color this can cause declines in motivation and achievement (Penergast et al, 2018). The first goal of this dissertation is to determine the levels of the SOB in Latinx students enrolled at a comprehensive suburban high school in Washington State. The second goal in this dissertation is to compare measures of SOB between different Latinx student groups, for example, Cuban, Mexican, Mexican American to name a few. The third goal is to explore the relationship between their SOB and academic achievement which in turn supports students in getting to graduation. The fourth and fifth goals of this dissertation are to explore student-reported and school-based factors that impact the student’s SOB and the student-reported impacts of the COVID-19 school closure on SOB. By accomplishing the goals of this study implications for future practice will be posed to guide educators in practice to maximize both SOB and students’ achievement.

Statement of Problem

The purpose of this study is to explore Latinx students’ SOB and the relationship between their SOB and academic achievement which supports the student in academic success and eventually getting to graduation. At the school where the study is situated, Puget Sound High School (PSHS), the rates of both Latinx academic achievement and getting to graduation are disproportionately low as compared to aggregate measures of all their peers. For example, for the Classes of 2015-2020 the average general graduation rate was 87.8% while for the same classes
the average graduation rates for Hispanic/Latino students was 78.7% (Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2021). High schools are reminded through high stakes accountability measures that getting to graduation is important. The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) outlines graduation rate which is weighted 50% of a high school’s ESSA score (Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2018). Expanding the SOB research regarding people of color (POC) is critical as Mallett et al. (2011) commented, “A feeling of belonging to an academic context is a critical determinant of academic achievement and persistence, particularly for students of color” (p. 432).

Justification and Rationale

SOB is of critical importance to students as it impacts multiple aspects of a student’s life (Chiu et al. 2016; Osterman, 2000). For this study, SOB is conceptually defined as “the extent to which students feel personally accepted, respected, included, and supported by others in the school and social environment” (Goodenow, 1993, p. 80). SOB has both cognitive aspects (person’s relation to the group) and affective aspects (person’s response or behavior) (Strayhorn, 2019). Operationally, affective aspects of academic success may be defined using traditional measures.

Traditional measures of student success include a student’s grades, his/her/their grade point average (GPA), persistence towards and obtainment of a degree, satisfaction with their school or program, and credits earned (Kuh et al., 2006; Harris & Wood, 2013). For this study, the specific traditional measure used of student success will be students’ GPAs. This measure was chosen because this is a frequently used measure in the reviewed literature, and this is a study considering a cross sectional view of a student’s experience rather than a longitudinal view. The Latinx population is the fastest growing student population at the study school rising
from 7% of the school’s students in 2007-08 to 19% of the student population in 2020-21 and there are persistent disproportionalities in academic measures when considering this group of students (Puget Sound School District, 2021). For these reasons, Latinx students are the focus of this dissertation.

Researching SOB in SOC is also essential due to the impacts of low SOB. Research exploring the relationship between SOB and academic motivation in Black and Latino students (Goodenow and Grady, 1993) and exploring the relationship between SOB and academic motivation and achievement (Mallett et al., 2011) established there is a positive relationship between SOB and these academic-oriented measures. This study’s suburban setting contrasts with other SOB research in urban settings (Faircloth & Hamm, 2005; Ozer et al., 2008; Darrah, 2013; Gillen-O’Neal & Fuligni, 2013). The study school’s Pacific Northwest location contrasts with studies performed in other regions of the United States (US) (Faircloth & Hamm, 2005; Mallet et al., 2011; Wallace et al., 2012; Gillen-O’Neal & Fuligni, 2013). The exploration of levels of SOB in students and their student group identification in this study, for example Cuban versus Dominican versus Mexican or Mexican American is unique. The consideration of the SOB of these Latinx student groups and the students’ success in school is also unique. Finally, the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic cannot be ignored.

As of May 24, 2021, the Centers for Disease Control (CDC) reported 32,947,548 cases of COVID infection and 587,342 deaths due to COVID infection in the US (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2021). The Washington State Department of Health (WA DOH) reported 394,143 COVID infections and 5,702 deaths from those infections (Washington State Department of Health, 2021). The University of Washington Institute for Health Metrics and Statistics (IHME) projects that by September 1, 2021, there will be 289 infections per day, 1.4
deaths per day, and a projected 9,566 total deaths in the state of Washington (Institute for Health Metrics and Statistics, 2021). Therefore, this study explores the reported impact of COVID-19 school closures on students’ SOB.

Theoretical Frameworks

Abraham Maslow (1954) developed a hierarchy of needs starting with the basic physiological needs including food, water, and shelter to more complex needs such as love and belongingness. Aspects of this hierarchy of needs were researched over time and in multiple contexts such as the workplace (Benson & Dundis, 2003), family (Poduska, 1992), and school (Frame, 1996). For the purposes of this study, the focus is on the topic of SOB in school which is related to Maslow’s concept of belongingness. Specifically, this study measures the SOB experienced by Latinx students enrolled at a comprehensive high school in the suburban Puget Sound area. For the purposes of this dissertation, the school is called Puget Sound High School (PSHS) and the district is the Puget Sound School District (PSSD). The relationship between students’ SOB and academic success is defined along with student reported factors that impact a student’s SOB. Students also report the impact of the COVID-19 related school closure on SOB.

One theoretical framework grounding this study is the Bio-Psycho-Socio-Ecological Model (BPSEM). Allen and Kern (2017) originally developed this systems model by completing a review of quantitative studies. In the BPSEM model the student is at the center of multiple interacting systems; see Appendix A for a diagram. Each student can be considered through the lens of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and each student then interacts with multiple systems. Chiu et al. (2016) described aspects of the Allen & Kern BPSEM stating, “microsystems refer to the immediate and direct contexts, such as family and school; mesosystems that are the
interconnections between microsystems; and macrosystems that describe the culture in which [the student] lives” (p. 177).

The strength of the BPSEM model is that the framework enables school personnel to consider how and where they could intervene to influence SOB (Allen & Kern, 2017; Craggs & Kelly, 2018; Kern et al., 2021; McDermott et al., 2020). When considering the microsystem, for example, schools can consider how interventions related to parent, peer, or teacher support of a student could influence the student’s SOB. Or, when considering the mesosystem schools can consider interventions related to school practices, policies, or even staff professional development and their influence on a student’s SOB. After accomplishing the goals of this dissertation, implications for future practice will be posed to guide educators in practice to maximize both SOB and students’ achievement.

Since the focus of this study is on Latinx students, it is also critical to examine a framework for Latino learner development. García and Öztürk (2018) provide a framework for considering the assets of Latino students that affect their development and learning; see Appendix B for a diagram. Assets are identified by considering the social, community, family, and educational context of the student. An example of this approach is to explore the family’s perspective on the value of familismo, bien educado, respeto, and confianza as these are perspectives that impact a student’s learning and can be leveraged by educators and the student’s family (García & Öztürk, 2018).

**Key Terms**

As stated above, for this dissertation, SOB is defined as “the extent to which students feel personally accepted, respected, included, and supported by others in the school and social environment” (Goodenow, 1993, p. 80). SOB has both cognitive aspects (person’s relation to the
group) and affective aspects (person’s response or behavior) (Strayhorn, 2019). In general, affective aspects of academic success may be defined using traditional measures. Traditional measures of academic achievement include a student’s grades, his/her/their grade point average (GPA), persistence towards and obtainment of a degree, satisfaction with their school or program, and credits earned (Kuh et al., 2006; Harris & Wood, 2013). For this dissertation, the specific measure of student success used will be students’ GPAs.

Understanding the difference between Hispanic and Latino is germane to this study. According to the United States (US) government, race and being of Hispanic/Latino ethnicity are two different notions (United States Census Bureau, n.d.). Federal guidelines state that people must choose whether they are either of Hispanic/Latino ethnicity regardless of their race. Also, per federal guidelines, there are five races: (a) American Indian or Alaska Native, (b) Asian, (c) Black or African American, (d) Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, and/or (e) White. States and/or school districts may add more racial categories, but all categories added must fall into one of the five main racial categories listed above (Race and Ethnicity Student Data Task Force, 2017).

In the research regarding POC that will be reviewed in this dissertation, researchers refer to their subjects by ethnicity as defined by the US government (e.g. Hispanic/Latino) as opposed to discussing their race as a distinct concept. This dissertation will use the student’s information provided to the PSSD on the student’s enrollment regarding Federal/State ethnicity (Hispanic/Not Hispanic) and State Race to identify the student’s ethnicity and race. Although the term is controversial due to the gendered nature of the Spanish language and perceptions of American imperialism (Guerra & Orbea, 2015), the term Latinx is used in this dissertation as an acknowledgement that there are people who do not identify with a binary gender concept.
SOB Research

SOB research is international in scale. Studies have occurred in Iran (Abdollahi & Noltemeyer, 2018), Turkey (Altinsoy & Eryilmaz, 2017; Vural et al., 2013), Australia (Pendergast et al., 2018; Shochet et al., 2011), New Zealand (Darraugh, 2013; Sanders & Munford, 2016), the United Kingdom (Flitcroft & Kelly, 2016), and Ireland (Frehill & Dunsmuir, 2015). SOB research also happened in the United States (US) (Faircloth & Hamm, 2005; Mallett et al., 2011; Nuñez, 2009; Ozer et al., 2008; Sanchez et al., 2005; Wallace et al., 2012). A student’s SOB has a myriad of impacts that will be discussed including those impacts to academic achievement (Goodenow, 1993; Goodenow & Grady, 1993; Kuh et al., 2006) as well commitment to school (Bean, 1982; Finn, 1989; Kuh et al., 2006) and physical and mental health (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Osterman, 2000). Overviewing these studies and others will provide the context for this dissertation related to Latinx student SOB at PSHS.

Importance of SOB

Understanding SOB is important in the education field. Adolescent students in high school are faced with many challenges as they progress towards graduation. Students are thinking about who they are at present, where their energies and interests lie, and also who and where they want to be in the future (Goodenow, 1993). Yet at this critical time, Finn (1989) stated that unless students identify with school and to a minimal extent feel that they have a sense of belonging (are part of school, welcomed, respected, valued) that then the student is at increased risk for beginning the school disengagement process and eventually dropping out. High schools are reminded through high stakes accountability measures that getting to graduation is important. For example, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) outlines
graduation rate which is weighted 50% of a high school’s ESSA score (Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2018).

Promoting a student’s SOB and encouraging persistence to graduation so that students may pursue post-secondary education has profound implications for people. In Washington State, for example, the adjusted cohort graduation rate for 2016-17 was 79% (Education Research and Data Center, 2019). There is disproportionality in graduation rates by race both nationally, at the Washington State level, in PSSD, and at PSHS (Education Research and Data Center, 2019; Puget Sound School District, 2021). For the 2017-2018 school year the national graduation rate of all students was 85%, the WA State graduation rate was 80.9%, and for the PSSD the graduation rate was 82.9% (Puget Sound School District, 2021; National Center for Education Statistics, 2020; Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2021). For the same year, the Hispanic Latino national graduation rate was 81%, the graduation rate in WA State was 82.9%, and in the PSSD the graduation rate was 67.1% (Puget Sound School District, 2021; National Center for Education Statistics, 2020; Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2021). This disproportionality in graduation rates is reflected in other important measures. DiAngelo (2018) commented that race influences things such as infant mortality, the location of our home, our school success, our career choice, our income, our health and our life expectancy. Delgado & Stefancic (2012) add income disparities to this consideration of inequities. Many of these life factors are interwoven and have impact on students as they progress to graduation. Particular defined levels of academic achievement are necessary to get to graduation. This dissertation poses the question of what is the relationship between academic achievement and Latinx students’ SOB enrolled at the study school as well as explores the student-reported impact of the COVID-19 school closure on their SOB.
My Interest in Latinx Students’ SOB

PSHS’s graduation rates are reflective of the national trend (National Center for Education Statistics, 2020) and are a part of what Gándara & Contreras (2009) term the Latino education crisis. Latino students at our school represent one in five students and not all Latino students graduate (Puget Sound School District, 2021). Therefore, I will measure Latino students’ SOB and their academic achievement as measured by their GPA. I will determine the relationship, if any, between SOB and GPA; I hypothesize there is a relationship. This study is complicated by the concurrent COVID-19 crisis that has magnified inequities (Ramanarayanan, 2020; Savage Sangwan, 2020). To begin, I must acknowledge that I bring my whole self to this work.

Throughout my life, my awareness of my identity and my identity’s implications changed with experience. Connections with people outside my family and living in different places in the country challenged my thinking, broadened my perspectives, and illuminated my privilege. I will address the skills and resources I currently bring to my work, and how I work to acknowledge my complicity in the educational system and challenge deficit-based approaches in my school.

Skills and Resources

I serve as principal at PSHS, and I bring several skills and resources to my dissertation work. The first skill I bring is a commitment to teamwork and communication. From the beginning of my principalship two years ago, I grounded in the teamwork framework developed by Lencioni (2002). Based on the model, I maintain a focus on our need to be willing to be vulnerable with each other to build trust. We leverage trust to engage in healthy conflict. Healthy conflict allows us to hear perspectives and identify commitments to the results to which we hold
each other accountable. The other skill I bring considers my grounding in the BPSEM and the framework for Latino learner development as resources for this work.

As an educator I can analyze each student’s circumstances and explore how the student then interacts with various systems and explore changes to school practices, policies, or even staff professional development and teachers’ influence on a student’s SOB. I can also bring an asset-based mindset to the effort as described by García and Öztürk (2018) recognizing that Latinx learners also have assets in families valuing *familismo, bien educado, respeto,* and *confianza.* I am not alone in this analysis and action.

The most powerful resources I have are the support of my family, my K-12 colleagues in the University of Washington, Tacoma cohort, and the other three comprehensive high school principals in PSSD. All these resources give me the strength, energy, and ideas to analyze the PSHS and PSSD systems and students’ circumstances and ask questions. My engagement in this work also requires me to acknowledge my bias and continue to grow.

**Acknowledging Bias**

Reflecting on my dissertation work, I must acknowledge how I am complicit in perpetuating conditions that negatively impact students’ SOB. The primary way I am complicit in perpetuating problems is in my silence. As a high school principal, I can challenge practices within the leadership structure of PSSD. What I find is that I do not set all agendas and not all spaces are open to exploring the impact of policies, practices, and procedures on students. What I am still learning is how to navigate in these spaces to challenge perspectives without losing my seat at the table. A recent example of this is my work on our district’s bargaining team with the teachers’ union. The team set a norm of considering all proposals through an equity lens. Through supporting the acceptance of this norm and not choosing silence, we can engage in
debate about the impacts of language in the contract. I also need to keep my mindset at the forefront of my practice. A deficit-based approach is widespread in working with Latino students (García & Öztürk, 2018). This approach is congruent with a deficit-based mindset in working with students. In shifting to an asset-based mindset, I can embrace and asset-based approach with students.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review will begin with a chronological consideration of models and key contributors related to SOB. It will then proceed into an analysis of findings of studies related to SOB in general. An instrument to measure SOB will be considered as well as factors that impact SOB and the impacts of SOB. Studies related to SOB in students identifying as POC will be analyzed. Recommendations for practitioners will be shared. Lastly, there will be a consideration of Latino education in the US. This analysis will be related to the research questions based on the goals of this dissertation:

1. What is the level of SOB identified by Latinx students at PSHS?
2. Are there differences in levels of SOB when considering Latinx student group identifications?
3. What is the relationship between this level of SOB and Latinx students’ academic achievement?
4. What are the student-reported and school-based factors that impact the student’s SOB?
5. What are the student-reported impacts of the COVID-19 school closure on SOB?

Article Selection Process

For this literature review, the search focused on studies and literature reviews related to SOB. Keywords included, but were not limited to sense of belonging, high school, academic
achievement, and Hispanic/Latinx students. Scholarly journals were sources of literature reviews and articles. Non-scholarly articles were eliminated. A close read of articles and information generated by research both in the US and abroad was a focus. In order to understand the Latino student population in context, a consideration of several suggested sources occurred.

**Global Theme One – Models and Key Contributors Related to SOB**

There are several models and major contributors when examining the research on SOB.

*1954-1990*

**Maslow and the Hierarchy of Needs.** As mentioned previously, Maslow (1954) included belongingness in his hierarchy of needs referring to the interpersonal relationships that can drive behavior.

**Bean and the Student Attrition Model (see Appendix C).** Bean (1983) in his work stated that there is a relationship between a student’s beliefs, attitudes, and behavior. In Bean’s Student Attrition Model, the factors termed Integration, Participation, and Campus Organizations reflect the student’s SOB.

**Finn and the Participation-Identification Model (see Appendix D).** Finn (1989), in his model, described the importance of participation in and identification with the school. He termed this model the Participation-Identification Model. He stated that “…students who identify with school have an internalized conception of belongingness… [and] these individuals value success in school relevant goals” (p. 123). He stated that the risk of dropping out increased without a minimal amount of participation in and identification with the school.

*1990-1999*

The mid-90s marked several important contributions to the research on SOB.
Goodenow, the SOB measurement scale and other findings. Goodenow (1993) developed the Psychological Sense of School Membership (PSSM) Scale (See Appendix E). Her quantitative study resulted in the 18 item PSSM Scale as well as the findings that SOB was correlated with self-reported school motivation and students’ grades. The same year, Goodenow and Grady (1993) used the PSSM Scale in their quantitative study and found that SOB was significantly associated with (a) expectancy of success, (b) valuing schoolwork, (c) general school motivation, and (d) self-reported student effort (p. 60). Goodenow (1993) did not discuss using this tool for SOC; the tool was developed for students in general.

Deci and the ABCs of Human Motivation. Two years later, Deci’s (1995) model of the ABCs of Human Motivation called out the need for people to have autonomy, feel a sense of belonging, and have competence to be motivated to pursue and achieve their goals. Deci (1995) was a general model for all students.

Baumeister & Leary and their SOB contributions. That same year, Baumeister and Leary (1995) completed their comprehensive literature review with the goal of examining their belongingness hypothesis. There are three main findings of this study. First, they established belonging as a fundamental human motivation. Second, they identified the two factors needed for people to belong: (a) people need frequent personal interactions, (b) people need to feel a bond or relationship with people (p. 500). Third, they described the positive and negative impacts of SOB on people. For example, those individuals with a “…close, intimate friend (i.e. a “confidant”) maintain higher morale in the face of life’s stresses” (p. 510) whereas “Both psychological and physical health problems are more common among people who lack social attachments” (p. 520). Again, Baumeister & Leary (1995) did not consider the model through the lens of SOC.
**2000-present**

**Osterman and her SOB review.** At the turn of the century, Osterman (2000) in her seminal review of literature on students’ need for belonging in school named the four aspects needed for students to feel that they are a part of a community and experience SOB. The aspects are that:

“(a) [they] feel important to the group and that the group is important to them, (b) [they] feel that the group will satisfy their needs, (c) [they] feel that they will be cared for, and (d) the community has a shared and emotional connection (p. 324).

In the same literature review, Osterman found that SOB impacted student engagement and participation and those factors impacted student achievement. She found as well that students with a SOB had more “inner resources” (p. 343), a more positive attitude toward school, classwork, teachers and peers, and that SOB was important to students of all ages and all levels of schooling. Like the models above, SOC were not differentiated from the aggregate of all students (Osterman, 2000).

**Juvonen’s SOB model (see Appendix F) and related findings.** Juvonen (2006) in her model that stated that students’ relationships with their teachers and each other contributed to their SOB and were a motivator for their behavior. In this model, relationships with teachers and classmates directly affected a student’s SOB. The student’s SOB then impacted how students engaged in the classroom as well as how they behaved. Beland (2014) when writing about Deci’s ABCs of Human Motivation shared that learning is social and involves relationships that build school connectedness and a sense of belonging and this observation echoed Juvonen’s model. Beland’s writing also echoed Juvonen’s model in that SOC were not considered apart from all students (Juvonen, 2006).
Allen & Kern’s systems model (see Appendix A). As discussed previously, Greenwood & Kelly (2019) described another model SOB and it was called the Bio-Psycho-Socio-Ecological Model (BPSEM). Allen & Kern (2017) originally developed this systems model by completing a review of quantitative studies. In the BPSEM model the student was at the center of multiple interacting systems; see Appendix A for a diagram. Chiu et al. (2016) described aspects of the Allen & Kern BPSEM stating, “microsystems refer to the immediate and direct contexts, such as family and school; mesosystems that are the interconnections between microsystems; and macrosystems that describe the culture in which [the student] lives” (p. 177). Greenwood & Kelly (2019) commented on the work of Allen & Kern and stated, “teacher support had the strongest impact on a sense of belonging…when students feel their teachers care about them, are fair, and are a resource when problems occur, they feel more connected to school” (p. 12). This is a general model considering students as a whole and does not consider SOC specifically (Allen & Kern, 2017).

Strayhorn theoretical model. Finally, Strayhorn (2019) outlined what he described as a theoretical model that synthesized what was known about SOB. In his model there were seven core elements that described SOB. His elements described SOB as:

(a) a universal human need, (b) fundamental motive sufficient to drive behavior, (c) context, time and factors determine importance, (d) related to mattering, (e) influenced by one’s identities, (f) something that leads to positive outcome and success, and (g) something that must be satisfied as conditions change (p. 30).

Although Strayhorn’s work focused on SOB at the collegiate level, the model is based on a synthesis of what was known about SOB in general and therefore the model may have applications to inform this dissertation. In addition, Strayhorn’s model (2019) was developed
after Strayhorn’s consideration of SOB in Latino college students (Strayhorn, 2008), Black male college students (Strayhorn, 2009), and Native American college students (Strayhorn et al., 2018).

**Synthesis of Global Theme One Key Models and Contributors**

In synthesizing the work of the key contributors and their models seven elements emerge. First, SOB was a human need (Maslow, 1954; Osterman, 2000; Strayhorn, 2019). Second, SOB was related to mattering to people (Osterman, 2000; Strayhorn, 2019). Third, relationships mattered (Allen & Kern, 2017; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Juvonen, 2006; Osterman, 2000; Strayhorn, 2019). Fourth, student participation in school influenced student SOB (Allen & Kern, 2017; Bean, 1983; Finn, 1989; Strayhorn, 2019). Fifth, SOB influenced student motivation (Allen & Kern, 2017; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Deci, 1995; Goodenow, 1993; Strayhorn, 2019). Sixth, SOB influenced academic achievement (Bean, 1983; Finn, 1989; Goodenow, 1993; Goodenow & Grady, 1993; Osterman, 2000; Strayhorn, 2019). Seventh, none of the models are explicit in their considerations for SOC as opposed to students in general (Allen & Kern, 2017; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Juvonen, 2006; Maslow, 1954; Osterman, 2000; Strayhorn 2019).

This synthesis is relevant to the research questions of this dissertation measuring Latinx students’ SOB and that measure’s relationship to their academic achievement.

**Global Theme Two – SOB Research in the US and Abroad**

**General Research Related to SOB**

Chiu et al. (2016) conducted a quantitative study of cross-cultural variability on students’ SOB. They drew on measures of SOB collected through the 2002 Program for International Student Assessment (PISA). This data source contained information from 193,073 students in 41 countries. Through their use of multilevel analyses of the PISA data they tested four hypotheses.
The researchers were interested in the relationship between the type of country (egalitarian vs. hierarchical) and a students’ SOB. They were also interested in what factors were linked to students’ SOB. They found that SOB in students from egalitarian countries where “people generally expect equal treatment regardless of their status” (p. 177) is higher than in hierarchical countries where “less powerful members of institutions and organizations more readily accept the unequal distribution of power and their different statuses in society” (p. 177). They also found that several variables influenced a student’s SOB. What they termed power distance or the calculated hierarchical cultural value and what they termed homophily or attraction to students of similar socio-economic status (SES) were both linked to SOB at the level of the country. At the level of the family what they termed immigrant status, language spoken at home, SES, books at home, family wealth, and family communication are linked to SOB. At the level of the school the SES, family social communication, teacher-student relationship, teacher support and disciplinary climate were factors that they termed to be linked to SOB. Finally, at the level of the student what they termed reading achievement, self-efficacy and self-concept are linked to SOB.

In their mixed methods study, Ozer et al. (2008) explored which experiences were important to school connection and SOB in 12th grade students. They found that being respected by and cared for by teachers had a positive effect on SOB as did involvement in extracurricular activities. Students reported that being “singled out” (p. 454) or not being recognized for academic efforts had a negative effect on students’ SOB. In another mixed methods study, Wallace et al. (2012) found that students aged 14-20 years old reported they considered and reacted to how others saw them. They also stated that connections with teachers were particularly important and had a positive impact on students’ SOB. Pendergast et al. (2018) in their qualitative study of students aged 12-16 had similar findings to Wallace et al. (2012). They
found that relationships in school, particularly with teachers, were impactful on SOB as were the involvement of the students in activities and programs.

Research Related to a SOB Measurement Instrument

Two quantitative studies (Vural et al., 2013; You et al., 2011) and one qualitative study (Mallett et al., 2011) followed up on the landmark work of Goodenow (1993) on the PSSM Scale and further focused on the measurement of SOB. Working in Turkey, Vural et al. (2013) wanted to develop a reliable and valid scale that would help them in their research on SOB in that country. After performing explanatory and confirmatory path analyses they were able to build their tool for the Turkish context. Working in Australia, You et al. (2011) used the PSSM scale with students aged 12-14 and performed exploratory and confirmatory path analyses and determined that three factors emerged from the scale: (a) caring relationships, (b) acceptance, and (c) rejection. The authors found this significant to the field as they described the PSSM Scale being used primarily as a unidimensional instrument that measured SOB versus what they found to be a tool that could be used as a multidimensional instrument.

Working in the US and studying junior high, high school and college age students, Mallett et al. (2011) explored whether it made a difference to measures of SOB if researchers asked study participants to engage regarding their ethnicity and/or discrimination experiences before or after being asked about SOB. Mallett and her team found that when asked about ethnicity or discrimination before SOB items that SOB was indicated at a lower level than if they asked those items after SOB items. In considering Mallett et al.’s findings, this dissertation will not ask about ethnicity at the start of the questionnaire to make sure to not mask “belonging uncertainty” (Mallett et al., 2011, p. 432).

Research on Factors Impacting SOB
Studies from Turkey and Australia respectively expanded on the research about factors that impact SOB. Altinsoy & Eryilmaz (2017) in their qualitative study of 10th and 11th grade students found that the factors of attachment to peers, mother, and father as well as a student’s life goals had a significant relationship with students’ SOB. Shochet et al. (2011) performed a quantitative study that focused on students aged 12-14 years old. They used the factors established by You et al. (2011) listed above of caring relationships, acceptance and rejection. They found that the rejection factor was significant in the SOB of girls while the acceptance factor was significant with SOB in both boys and girls.

There was one study that was different in design and execution than any other study included in this review. Gillen-O’Neel & Fuligni (2013) conducted a longitudinal quantitative study of 572 students in Los Angeles and asked them about their SOB, how they valued school, and how useful school seemed from 9th through 12th grade. Not only was this study longitudinal versus cross-sectional, it was also a study that used hierarchical linear modeling. Their study had three areas of focus: (a) how did students’ SOB change across grades, (b) what was the relationship between SOB and valuing school as well as how they saw school as useful, and (c) did levels of SOB vary by gender and ethnicity. Gillen-O’Neel & Fuligni found that there were no significant differences in SOB by ethnicity in this sample of students. They also found that boys’ SOB remained stable across high school whereas girls’ SOB declined even though girls’ SOB started at a higher level. Finally, they found that higher SOB predicted students valuing school and students saw school as useful at higher levels.

Research on the Impacts of SOB

One quantitative study one in Iran examined the impacts of SOB on students. Abdollahi & Noltemeyer (2018) studied students age 15-21 years old and found through structural
modeling that those students with higher measures of SOB were more likely to have academic commitment, academic control, and engaged in academic challenges. Academic commitment was what they term the students’ ability to expend effort and make choices to achieve. Academic control was defined as the students’ ability to self-regulate emotions while striving towards academic achievement. Challenge was defined as the students viewing rigorous experiences as learning opportunities. In addition they found that these students also had higher measures of academic achievement when considering their GPAs.

In another study, Frehill & Dunsmuir (2015) explored SOB in a sample of Traveller students in Ireland and compared their quantitative measures of SOB to a sample of non-Traveller students. They found that non-Traveller students had higher SOB. They also found that Travellers were more frequently absent and in both populations that SOB and the education level of the mother predicted absenteeism.

Lastly, Darragh (2013) qualitatively researched the importance of SOB to an Australian student’s transition to mathematics study in secondary school. Through thematic and discourse analysis she found that SOB appeared to make learners more confident and contributed to students’ development of a positive math identity in secondary school. This finding echoed a statement from Goodenow (1993), “Psychological membership [SOB] is seen…neither as a purely personal intrapsychic phenomenon nor as entirely the function of the school environment, but rather as arising from the person within a particular school environment” (p. 87)

Research Related to Perspectives on SOB from Persons of Color

Faircloth & Hamm (2005) were interested in what relationships existed between belonging, academic motivation and achievement in over 5,000 9th to 12th grade students. One of the goals of their quantitative study was to see what differences possibly existed between the
four ethic groups of students that they identified: (a) African American, (b) Asian-descent, (c) Latino, and (d) European American. Through structural modeling they found support in all student groups studied that SOB explained the relationship between academic motivation and achievement. They commented that, “we have captured the critical role of belonging for motivation and achievement in a way that respects the complexity and diversity of the lives of contemporary high school students” (p. 306). A key finding was that interpersonal connections stimulate student motivation.

Sanchez et al. (2005) quantitatively studied the relationship between SOB, gender and academic outcomes in a sample of 12th grade Latinos. They considered data from students, and after they performed multiple regressions with the data, they found that SOB predicted absenteeism, expectations for academic success and academic effort. In a different study, Nuñez (2009) quantitatively examined more than 4,000 Latino college students from across the US and found that cross racial relations, diversity curriculum, and campus climate impacted Latino students’ SOB. The population of second-generation immigrants were measured to have lower levels of SOB.

Strayhorn’s consideration of SOB in Latino college students (Strayhorn, 2008), Black male college students (Strayhorn, 2009), and Native American college students (Strayhorn et al., 2018) should also be noted. Grades, time invested in studies, and interactions with diverse peers influenced collegiate Latino students’ SOB (Strayhorn, 2008). Diverse peer interactions and interactions with peers also impacted collegiate Black male students’ SOB at predominantly White institutions (Strayhorn, 2009). The same factor was also significant when considering SOB in collegiate Native American students attending predominantly White institutions
LATINX STUDENTS’ SENSE OF BELONGING

In the research for this dissertation, it will be possible to see if the findings of the study replicate some of this research.

**Research Related to Recommendations for Practitioners**

In their qualitative study of 17 and 18 year old students in New Zealand Sanders & Munford (2016) found that three things contributed to a student’s decrease in capacity to stay in school: (a) they did not “fit in,” or the school was not for them, (b) they were never “good enough” and (c) they were excluded from school. These three findings related to the students’ concepts of SOB. Further, after considering what was learned they recommended an approach for educators that they termed PARTH. This approach focused on developing the perseverance, adaptability, relationships, time, and honesty of students. Additionally, Flitcroft & Kelly (2016) qualitatively researched educators in the United Kingdom who worked with students who experienced “managed moves” to avoid expulsion from school all together. Of their four recommendations to educators one area spoke specifically to SOB. Specifically, they recommended strategies that included building relationships with key adults and peers. They also recommended using language such as “our school” (p. 311). Although the findings of Sanders & Munford (2016) and Flitcroft & Kelly (2016) were not directly related to the research questions of this dissertation, they will inform the implications for practice coming from this dissertation and therefore are included in this literature review.

**Synthesis of Global Theme Two SOB Research in the US and Abroad**

In synthesizing the research described above regarding SOB several elements emerge. First, relationships were critical and impact students’ SOB (Abdollahi & Noltemeyer, 2018; Altinsoy & Eryilmaz, 2017; Chiu et al., 2016; Faircloth & Hamm, 2005; Flitcroft & Kelly, 2016; Frehill & Dunsmuir, 2015; Nuñez, 2009; Ozer et al., 2008; Penergast et al., 2018; Sanders &
Munford, 2016; Shochet et al., 2011; Wallace et al., 2012; You et al., 2011). Second, the PSSM Scale was a frequently used measure of SOB (Abdollahi & Noltemeyer, 2018; Altinsoy & Eryilmaz, 2017; Frehill & Dunsmuir, 2015; Sanchez et al., 2005; Shochet et al., 2011; Wallace et al., 2012). Third, there were other methodologies employed by more than one researcher/group of researchers: (a) structural modeling (Abdollahi & Noltemeyer, 2018; Faircloth & Hamm, 2005; Nuñez, 2009), (b) factor analysis (Nuñez, 2009; Shochet et al., 2011; Vural et al., 2013; Wallace et al., 2012; You et al., 2011), (c) thematic analysis (Darragh, 2013; Flitcroft & Kelly, 2016), (d) ANOVA (Frehill & Dunsmuir, 2015; Mallett, et al., 2011), (e) regression (Frehill & Dunsmuir, 2015; Sanchez et al., 2005) and (f) longitudinal design with use of hierarchical linear modeling (Gillen-O’Neel & Fuligni, 2013). Fourth, types of studies included (a) quantitative (Abdollahi & Noltemeyer, 2018; Faircloth & Hamm, 2005; Frehill & Dunsmuir, 2015; Gillen-O’Neel & Fuligni, 2013, Nuñez, 2009; Sanchez et al., 2005; Shochet et al., 2011; Vural et al., 2013; You et al., 2011), (b) qualitative (Altinsoy & Eryilmaz, 2017; Darragh, 2013; Flitcroft & Kelly, 2016; Mallett, et al., 2011; Penergast et al., 2018; Sanders & Munford, 2016) and (c) mixed methods (Ozer et al., 2008; Wallace et al., 2012).

SOB was of critical importance to students as it impacts multiple aspects of a student’s life (Chiu et al. 2016; Osterman, 2000). Goodenow & Grady (1993) posed the question, “Do most students, especially urban adolescents and ethnic minority students, feel a sense of belonging” (p. 61)? Although there were some studies in this literature review, for example Ozer et al. (2008), that studied students in an urban setting, or ethnic minorities for example, Sanchez et. al (2005), none of the studies included specifically examined students of color enrolled in a suburban context. Lastly, in terms of US-based research there were no studies that were performed in the Pacific Northwest.
Global Theme Three – Latinx Education in the United States

Since Latinx students are the focus of this dissertation, it is relevant to consider these students in the context of Latinx education in the US. US demographics are rapidly changing and Latinx individuals are the largest and fastest growing group in number (Contreras, 2011; Gándara, 2015; Gándara & Contreras, 2009; Gándara & Mordechay, 2017; García & Öztürk, 2018; Yosso, 2006). Additionally, for every 100 Latinx students who enroll in kindergarten, 44 students graduate high school, 26 students enroll in college, and seven students graduate with a bachelor’s degree and two students graduate with a professional or graduate degree (Yosso, 2006). Latinx educational success must be addressed or the country and its Latinx citizens will suffer, with the Latinx people becoming what Gándara and Contreras (2009) call a permanent underclass.

Traditional Focus on Deficit Based Approaches

Historically, to explain the disparities in outcomes described above, researchers utilized deficit-based approaches. Subsequently, several researchers call out these approaches. Examples of researchers calling out deficit-based approaches that blame the learner and the community for a lack of an attribute (Yosso, 2006) and have their roots in racism and colonialism (Yosso & Burciaga, 2016) include Contreras (2011), Gándara (2015), Gándara and Mordechay (2017), García and Öztürk (2018), Yosso (2006), and Yosso and Burciaga (2016). Early forms of deficit approaches focused on cultural deprivation, genetic inferiority, and families that did not value education (Gándara, 2015). More recent examples of deficit approach include a focus on Latinx students being more likely to live in poverty, have parents with limited formal education (García & Öztürk, 2018) and language differences (Gándara, 2015). Many Latinx learners have a parent born outside of the US which indicates Spanish is likely spoken in the learner’s home (Gándara
& Mordechay, 2017). Other examples include many Latinx students have working families and learn in underperforming schools (Gándara, 2015) or drop out of school at two or more times the rate of their White peers (Contreras, 2011).

**Latinx Student Experience in Schools**

There are certain states known for their Latinx immigration such as California, Texas, and New Mexico (Gándara & Mordechay, 2017). Currently, the highest rates of Latinx immigration are to southern states such as Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, North and South Carolina, and Tennessee where school systems are not as knowledgeable and do not have as many resources to support these learners (Gándara, 2015; Gándara & Mordechay, 2017). Latinx learners have also had to fight for their education as exemplified by the *Plyer v. Doe* which granted undocumented students access to education and *Lau v. Nichols* that supports English Language Learners (ELL) access to the curriculum available to their peers. In schools, Latinx learners also face stereotype threat and other common experiences include microaggressions, curricula and class discussions that exclude or undervalue them (Yosso, 2006). Of the students who graduate high school and attend college, many are encouraged to attend vocationally oriented two-year college programs (Yosso, 2006) instead of pursuing four-year degrees and beyond.

**Shift to a Focus on Asset-Based Approaches**

There are many assets that Latinx students possess. Latinx learners are as likely to live in a two-parent household, to have two working parents supporting the family, to have a family purchase a home and are more likely to live in a multigenerational home or live with extended family (García & Öztürk, 2018; National Research Council, 2016). As discussed previously, Latinx learners also have assets in families valuing *familismo, bien educado, respeto,* and
confianza (García & Öztürk, 2018). There are frameworks that allow practitioners to build on these assets which are described below.

**Gándara and Contreras (2009) and the Schooling Context for Latinx Youth**

Gándara and Contreras (2009) encouraged educators to consider the Latinx student in context (see Appendix G). They describe the schooling context to be the relationship between the learner and school resources, school climate, and school peers.

**García and Öztürk (2018) and the Six Ps Framework**

García and Öztürk (2018) presented the Six Ps Framework for Understanding Educational Success (see Appendix H). The Latinx learner was at the center of several circumstances, opportunities, and events (p. 15) which were captured in the following categories: (a) population, (b) progress, (c) persistence, (d) participation, (e) preparation, and (f) parents. Population refers to the community and sense of belonging experienced by the student. Progress describes all efforts and accomplishments that support the learner. Persistence indicates the focus on maintaining student enrollment. Participation is everything that allows a learner to access his/her/their education inclusively. Preparation means all efforts that are needed for the student to proceed to the next educational level. Parents refers to all the relationships surrounding and supporting the student, not just immediate family.

**Contreras (2011) and the Framework for Latinx Student Supports**

Contreras (2011) presented the framework for Latinx Student Support (see Appendix I). In this framework there is dynamic interplay between four aspects surrounding the learner: (a) peer networks, (b) community networks and infrastructure, (c) access to adult human resources, and (d) access to infrastructure. To provide the maximum support to the student all these aspects would function and peak capacity and be always accessible to the student.
Yosso and Burciaga (2016) and Cultural Community Wealth

In addition to the frameworks above, Yosso and Burciaga (2016) explain that Latinx learners can access cultural community wealth (CCW) and CCW is used by students to survive environments of racism and oppression. All knowledge, skills, and interpersonal networks of the learners represent CCW. There are six forms of capital that are called out as a part of CCW: (a) aspirational capital used to maintain hopes and dreams, (b) linguistic capital which are skills acquired through use of multiple languages, (c) social capital or accessing the networks of people and resources, (d) navigational capital or knowledge of how to navigate systems and institutions, (e) familial capital or the familial cultural knowledge and history, and (f) resistant capital or the knowledge of how to resist oppression.

Implications for Practice

Potential solutions were described in the literature. Yosso (2006) suggested the use of counterspaces on campuses to provide room for Latinx students to gather and be in community with one another. Counterspaces would be an example of student access to infrastructure in the Contreras Framework (2011), would be included in the Parents category in the García and Öztürk Six Ps Framework (2018), and are school resources in the Gándara and Contreras Framework (2009). Another example is the Gándara and Mordechay (2017) suggestion of more wrap around services, counselors, and bilingual teachers. These are examples of access to adult human resources (Contreras, 2011), fall in the Parent category (García & Öztürk, 2018), and are school resources (Gándara & Contreras, 2009).

Other specific suggestions come from the research of Vega et al. (2015). Invitational Education is an approach described by them that analyzes the explicit and implicit messages stated by: (a) people, (b) policy, (c) policies, (d) programs, and (e) processes. Out of this research
there were several findings with implications. First, students described needing adults such as teachers to support their aspirations for their future. Second, students stated that school counselors need to identify all postsecondary opportunities for Latinx students. Third, students reported that school policies were unfair that needed to be examined.

**Synthesis of Global Theme Three - Latinx Education in the US**

As Latinx learners represent one in four learners in the US (Contreras, 2011; Gándara, 2015; Gándara & Contreras, 2009; Gándara & Mordechay, 2017; García & Öztürk, 2018; Yosso, 2006) and experience disparate educational outcomes (Yosso, 2006), it is a priority to address the needs of Latinx learners. Several frameworks suggest a way to analyze the context of the Latinx learner to maximize his/her/their success (Contreras, 2011, Gándara & Contreras, 2009; García & Öztürk, 2018; Yosso & Burciaga, 2016). Implications for practice guided by frameworks and research (Contreras, 2011; Gándara, 2015; Gándara & Contreras, 2009; Gándara & Mordechay, 2017; García & Öztürk, 2018; Yosso, 2006) focus on rejecting the traditional deficit-based approach with Latinx learners and support the shift to an asset-based approach.

**CHAPTER 3: METHODS**

PSHS, the site of this study, was a racially diverse school in a suburban setting within the Puget Sound region of Washington State. The goal of this study was to explore Latinx students’ SOB, the levels of SOB in students of Latinx student groups, and the relationship between their SOB and academic achievement which supports the student in eventually getting to graduation. The study also explored student reported supports or barriers to SOB in general and during the COVID 19 pandemic. This was a mixed method study to contribute to the knowledge in the education field pertaining to SOB, academic achievement in Latinx students, and student-identified factors that influence SOB including those that resulted from the COVI-19 pandemic.
Research Questions

The research questions of this dissertation were as follows:

1. What is the level of the SOB of Latinx students at PSHS?
2. Are there differences in levels of SOB when considering Latinx student group identification?
3. What is the relationship between this level of SOB and Latinx students’ academic achievement?
4. What are student-reported and school-based factors that impact the student’s SOB?
5. What are student-reported impacts of the COVID-19 school closure on SOB?

Study Design and Research Methods

This was mixed methods research as there were both quantitative and qualitative aspects to this study. In addition, this was an original research study versus a study that analyzed secondary data.

Quantitative Measures

Study participants completed the 18 item Psychological Sense of School Membership (PSSM) Scale developed by Goodenow (1993). Goodenow (1993) reported internal consistency reliability for the PSSM scale of between .77 to .88. In addition, Frehill and Dunsmuir (2015) shared in their study that Hagborg (1994) reported moderate test-retest reliability for the PSSM scale of .78. Also, Frederickson and Baxter (2007) reported high internal consistency reliability of .87 of the PSSM scale in their study. Sanchez et al. (2005) commented that Goodenow’s study published in 1993 contained the PSSM scale that also “revealed good construct validity” (p. 622). For this dissertation, the PSSM scale was administered electronically due to the school closure and remote learning stance during the COVID-19 pandemic. The researcher performed the analysis of the results.
Justification of Methods

Although other research designs were considered, a mixed methods approach was chosen considering the time and cost constraints of this study as well as critical feedback on the dissertation process. The solely quantitative survey approach has a limitation that the voices of the individual students and their experiences are not represented in the research findings. This limitation is addressed by the qualitative aspect of this study.

Independent Variable

The independent variable of the Latinx student’s SOB was conceptually defined as “the extent to which Latinx students felt personally accepted, respected, included, and supported by others in the school and social environment” (Goodenow, 1993, p. 80). A Latinx student’s SOB was operationally defined as the concept that was measured by the PSSM Scale. The general identification of Latinx contained the following student group identification areas within the PSSD: (a) Cuban, (b) Dominican, (c) Spaniard, (d) Puerto Rican, (e) Mexican/Mexican American/Chicano, (f) Central American, (g) South American, (h) Latin American, or (i) Other Hispanic/Latino. Each of the PSSD defined student groups were considered through the conceptual and operational definitions of SOB.

Dependent Variable

Conceptually and operationally, the dependent variable of the Latinx student’s traditional achievement measures could be broadly considered to include a student’s grades, his/her/their grade point average (GPA), persistence towards and obtainment of a degree, satisfaction with their school or program, and credits earned (Kuh et al., 2006; Harris & Wood, 2013). These measures also include whether a student meets standard on a test such as the Smarter Balanced Assessment (SBA). Operationally in this study the measure of student success was defined as the
student’s cumulative GPA. Cumulative GPA was the measure of student success due to the timeframe of this study and because GPAs can be used to measure performance within and among different groups (Gándara & Contreras, 2009).

**Time Constraints and Fiscal Cost**

The time constraints of this study were that data collection needed to occur during the school year between December 2020 and March 2021. The fiscal costs of this study were low since the only cost was the researcher’s time.

**Demographics of Study School**

PSHS was one of four comprehensive high schools in PSSD, a district in the suburban Puget Sound region of Washington State. In February 2021 at the time of data collection of this study, PSSD served 25,739 students (Puget Sound School District, 2021). The data sources of the following information were the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI) School Report Card (Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2021) and the Principals’ Data Dashboard (Puget Sound School District, 2021).

At the time of the study, PSHS served 1,849 students in grades 9-12. The student population was comprised of 981 males (m) and 868 females (f) ranging in age from 14 years old to 21 years old. PSHS’s students came from diverse backgrounds in all regards. In terms of their ethnicity, the student population was comprised of 657 White students (35.5% of total), 453 Asian students (24.5% of total), 347 Hispanic students (18.8% of total), 183 African American students (9.9% of total), 166 Multi-racial students (9% of total), 40 Hawaiian Pacific Islander students (2.2% of total), 3 American/Alaska Native students (0.2% of total). PSHS students spoke 49 languages in their homes. A total of 203 students (11% of total) at PSHS were served by the English Language Learner (ELL) program. A total of 163 students (8.8% of total) were
served by the Special Education (SE) program and 138 students (7.5% of total population) were served by a 504 Plan. Over 700 of the students at PSHS are served by the Free or Reduced-Price Meals Program and 41.5% of the students are classified as Low-Income.

Sampling Procedures

The sample of 58 Latinx students who participated in this study were a part of the population of 346 Hispanic students enrolled in PSHS during the study period. Convenience sampling was used to recruit participants from the school where the researcher was employed. For inclusion in this study students needed to self-identify as Hispanic/Latino and be enrolled in the school during the timeframe of the study. The only exclusion criterion was students who did not voluntarily agree to participate in the study.

Learner Profile of Latinx Students at Puget Sound High School

In February 2021 at the time of data collection for this study, there were 346 Latinx students at PSHS. The grade levels were roughly equivalent in terms of percentage of grade 9, 10, 11, and 12 students with the percentages being 26%, 25.4%, 26.9%, and 21.7% respectively. Exactly 50% of students identified as male and the other 50% identified as female. In the Latinx student population, 5.5% of the students were served by a 504 Plan and 12.4% of the students were served by an IEP. Other program data included 13.9% of the Latinx population identified as Gifted, 49.1% were College Bound Scholars, and 10.4% were part of the Class of 2024 Gear Up cohort. There were three home languages represented in the Latinx population. English was identified as the home language by 49.3% of Latinx students, Spanish by 55.5% of Latinx students, and Tigrina by 0.6% of the Latinx students. In terms of identification by Latinx student group, 4% identified as Central American, 0.3% as Cuban, 3.8% as Latin American, 66.8% as Mexican or Mexican American, 16.8% as Other Hispanic Latino, 3.5% as Puerto Rican, 3.8% as
Latinx students’ sense of belonging

South American and 1.2% as Spaniard. The average GPA of the Latinx students is 2.5 on a 4-point scale.

Learner Profile of Participants in Study

The final sample contained the responses of 58 students. Of the participants, 19.3% of students were in grade 9, 29.8% in grade 10, 33.3% in grade 11, and 17.5% in grade 12. Gender identification of the study participants was 29.8% male and 70.2% female. In the respondent group, 3.5% of the students were served by a 504 Plan and 5.2% of the students were served by an IEP. Other program data includes 8.7% of the Latinx respondents identified as Gifted, 42.1% were College Bound Scholars, and 8.8% were part of the Class of 2024 Gear Up cohort. There were two home languages represented by the Latinx participants. English was identified as the home language by 38.6% of Latinx participants and Spanish by 61.4% of Latinx participants. In terms of identification by Latinx student group, 7% identified as Central American, 5.2% as Latin American, 57.9% as Mexican or Mexican American, 17.5% as Other Hispanic Latino, 3.5% as Puerto Rican, and 8.8% as South American. There were no study participants who identified as Cuban, Dominican, or Spaniard. The average GPA of the Latinx student participants was 2.9 on a 4-point scale.

Protection of Human Subjects

As the researcher was assessing students in her own school, care needed to be taken to avoid any ethical issues such as people feeling coerced to participate due to her position within the school. The primary way this was be addressed was by providing subjects with a thorough explanation of the process and goals of the study and by ensuring that all participants were informed of the results of the study. Students were informed of the procedures and risks of study participation. Students who gave consent to participate were listed on an Excel worksheet.
Records of the student consent were retained in a OneDrive folder as data entered and verified under the Data Entry Form requirements of the General Records Retention Schedule. This is the schedule used by the School of Education at the University of Washington, Tacoma. All students including those who declined to participate will be able to attend collaboration sessions with PSHS leadership to determine possible next steps as a community based on the findings of this research.

**Changes to Methods Due to COVID-19 Pandemic**

There were several changes to the dissertation’s methodology due to the impacts of the pandemic. First, it was planned to give the PSSM survey and one open-ended question in person by two advisors known to many of our Latinx students. Due to the school closure and the decision to have remote learning for the 2020/21 school year, both the survey and short response questions were administered electronically. Second, a second open-ended question to solicit student experience during the pandemic and how it impacted their SOB to school became a part of the survey. The third modification of the methodology was that the in-person consent process was virtual. Finally, there were undoubtably various impacts from the pandemic on students.

Considering the BPSEM (Allen & Kern, 2017), these COVID impacts included many of the interactions between the student and the interconnected systems around the student changed. The teacher, parent, and peer support (microsystem) altered. Extracurricular activities and school policies on engagement and grading (mesosystem) shifted. There were differences in students’ neighborhoods and our community’s businesses (exosystem). There were changes to the social climate and culture (macrosystem). Impacts occurred on Latino learner development (García & Öztürk, 2018) as the students’ social, community, family, and educational contexts differed from
pre-closure. How exactly these factors will combine to impact students’ SOB is yet to be determined.

Quantitative Methods of Data Analysis

The primary data collection instrument for this study was the PSSM Scale developed by Goodenow (1993). This scale was described by Goodenow as measuring belongingness or the psychological sense of membership in school. The SOB data collected using the PSSM scale represented the operational independent variable in this study. The scale had 18 items total (see Appendix D) and was offered in the student’s preferred language of either English or Spanish. The software used to deploy the study also had accessibility features such as enlarged text and the option to have items read aloud. All 18 items were assessed on a 5-point Likert scale with options from “not at all true (1) to completely true (5) (Goodenow & Grady, 1993). Scores for the individual scale items were reported in Table 1. The average scale score was calculated by totaling all 18 items scores and dividing by 18. As stated above, the PSSM scale was well researched and shown to have reliability and validity (Sanchez et al., 2005).

The students’ responses were inputted by students directly into a survey tool on the students’ individual laptop computers. All raw data was downloaded from the secure survey tool and was maintained in a secure, limited access OneDrive folder for further data analysis. It was a goal of this study to compare students’ SOB from different groups of students within the Latinx identification area as defined by the PSSD. See Table 2 for the SOB measures for the six student group areas within the Latinx identification category from this study. Table 2 included descriptive statistics related to SOB. These descriptive statistics include calculated averages and standard deviations.
The operational dependent variable in this study was student GPA. Student GPAs were represented as cumulative GPAs on a 4-point scale based on the cumulative GPA at the end of the most recently completed semesters. This GPA information as well as the students’ identification within the student groups of the Latinx identification category were downloaded from the central district server and student data management program with student consent. This data download occurred at one time point at the start of data collection for this study. The data was maintained in a OneDrive folder for data analysis and was retained as described above.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was completed to test the null hypothesis that there are no statistically significant differences between the measures of SOB across Latinx student groups. An AVOVA was selected to avoid a Type 1 error which can result from performing multiple t-tests across multiple groups. Type 1 error causes a finding that there is a significance when there is none (Fraenkel et al., 2019). Third, Figure 1 is the scatterplot of student SOB (x-axis) and cumulative GPA (y-axis). A correlation analysis occurred. The first variable in the correlation analysis was the average PSSM SOB score for each student. The second variable is the cumulative GPA for each student. The correlational analysis was used to determine the relationship between SOB and cumulative GPA.

Qualitative Method of Data Analysis

Two open-ended questions completed the student survey. These questions were:

1. What things make you feel or not feel accepted, respected, included, or supported at PSHS?

2. PSHS is closed because of COVID-19. How has remote learning (classes on MS Teams and using Canvas) affected feeling or not feeling accepted, respected, included, and supported at PSHS?
The researcher utilized the qualitative analysis tool QDA Miner Lite during the analysis of the open-ended questions. The responses to the open-ended questions were imported into a project workspace. Coding of each response used the codes established by Goodenow’s (1993) definition of SOB. These codes were acceptance, respect, inclusion, and support. The data were then presented in Table 3 and 4, the code frequency tables. These codes were used to develop the summary of contextual factors bolstering or obstructing a student’s SOB in general and during the pandemic. Quotes were identified in the discussion section to illustrate the variability of the students’ open-ended responses.

**CHAPTER 4: RESULTS**

This chapter will examine the results of the mixed method study and lead to the discussion of these results and implications for research and practice in Chapter 5. The results involve the analysis of 58 student responses to the 18 item PSSM scale and two open-ended questions. Both the PSSM scale and open-ended questions were the measures used to provide data to analyze through the lens of the research questions of the dissertation.

The research questions of this dissertation were as follows:

1. What is the level of the SOB of Latinx students at PSHS?
2. Are there differences in levels of SOB when considering Latinx student group identification?
3. What is the relationship between this level of SOB and Latinx students’ academic achievement?
4. What are student-reported and school-based factors that impact the student’s SOB?
5. What are student-reported impacts of the COVID-19 school closure on SOB?

**Research Question One - Results**
To address the level of the SOB of Latinx students at PSHS, study participants answered the 18 items on the PSSM Scale (Goodenow, 1993). All 18 items were assessed on a 5-point Likert scale with options from not at all true (1) to completely true (5) (Goodenow & Grady, 1993). The average scale score was calculated by totaling the scores of all 18 items and dividing by 18, which resulted in an average scale score of 3.12 for the study group. The average of each individual PSSM scale item for the group were reported in Table 1.

**Table 1**

*PSSM Scale Averages for Study Participants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I feel like a real part of PSHS.</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>People here notice when I am good at something.</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>It is hard for people like me to be accepted here. <em>(reversed)</em></td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Other students in this school take my opinions seriously.</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Most teachers at PSHS are interested in me.</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Sometimes I feel like I don’t belong here. <em>(reversed)</em></td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>There’s at least one teacher or other adult in this school I can talk to if I have a problem.</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>People in this school are friendly to me.</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Teachers here are not interested in people like me. <em>(reversed)</em></td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I am included in lots of activities at PSHS.</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>I am treated with as much respect as other students.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>I feel very different from most other students here. <em>(reversed)</em></td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>I can really be myself at this school.</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>The teachers here respect me.</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LATINX STUDENTS’ SENSE OF BELONGING

15. People here know I can do good work. 3.80 1.04
16. I wish I were in a different school. (reversed) 2.00 1.22
17. I feel proud of belonging to PSHS. 3.70 1.15
18. Other students here like me the way I am. 3.56 1.06

Note. Scale as shared in Goodenow, 1993, p. 84.

In considering the individual items on the PSSM Scale, study participants on average scored one statement as not true at all: Teachers here are not interested in people like me (1.83). Although the average response to this statement was in the range of 1.0-1.99, a score of 1.83 indicates that this statement is closer to the score of 2 (usually not true) than it is the score of 1 (not true at all). Study participants on average scored the following statements as usually not true: (a) people here notice when I am good at something (2.99), (b) it is hard for people like me to be accepted here (2.25), (c) sometimes I feel like I don’t belong here (2.43), (d) I am included in lots of activities at PSHS (2.58), (e) I feel very different from most other students here (2.84), (f) I can really be myself at this school (2.95), (g) I wish I were in a different school (2.00).

Study participants on average scored the following PSSM statements to be occasionally true: (a) I feel like a real part of PSHS (3.26), (b) other students in this school take my opinions seriously (3.19), (c) most teachers at PSHS are interested in me (3.22), (d) there’s at least one teacher or other adult in this school I can talk to if I have a problem (3.62), (e) people in this school are friendly to me (3.86), (f) people here know I can do good work (3.80), (g) I feel proud belonging to PSHS (3.70), and (h) other students like me the way I am (3.56). Two statements were on average scored usually true: (a) I am treated with as much respect as other
students (4.00), and (b) the teachers here respect me (4.08). There were no statements on the PSSM that were scored on average as completely true (5).

**Research Question Two - Results**

To address the question regarding possible differences in levels of SOB when considering Latinx student group identification, the mean for each PSSM scale item for each student group were calculated. Table 2 contains the results of these calculations for each student group. The average PSSM scores for each Latinx student group were calculated. The average PSSM scores for the Latinx student groups were (a) Puerto Rican 4.5, (b) Mexican American 3.64, (c) Central American 3.0, (d) South American 4.0, (e) Latin American 2.33, and (f) Other Hispanic/Latino 3.77.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was completed to test the null hypothesis that there were no statistically significant differences between the measures of SOB across Latinx student groups such as Mexican American, South American, etc. The alternate hypothesis was that there were statistically significant differences between the measures of SOB between members of the Latinx student groups such as Central American, Latin American, Puerto Rican, etc. The one-way ANOVA, $F = 1.96$, MSE = 1.73, $p = .09$ indicated that the alternative hypothesis was rejected and that there was evidence to keep the null hypothesis. Therefore, these findings suggest that for these study participants there were no statistical differences between the SOB means for the different Latinx student groups.

**Table 2**

*Measures of SOB Across Different PSSD Latinx Student Groups*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Central American (N = 4)</th>
<th>Latin American (N = 3)</th>
<th>Mexican or Mexican American (N = 33)</th>
<th>Other Hispanic/ Latino (N = 10)</th>
<th>Puerto Rican (N = 2)</th>
<th>South American (N = 5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Research Question Three - Results

To begin to explore the relationship between the level of SOB and Latinx students’ academic achievement, student GPAs were represented as cumulative GPAs on a 4-point scale based on the cumulative GPA at the end of the most recently completed semester. The average cumulative GPA of the Latinx students was 2.50 and the average cumulative GPA for each Latinx student group was as follows: (a) Central American 2.39, (b) Latin American 2.13, (c) Mexican or Mexican American 2.96, (d) Other Hispanic/Latino 2.79, (e) Puerto Rican 3.39 and (f) South American 3.30. The average cumulative GPA for the study participants was 2.90. Table 3 is a table containing the PSSM averages and the cumulative GPA averages of the various participant Latinx student groups.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures of Average PSSM Score and Average Cum GPA by Participant Latinx Student Group</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.71</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>0.58</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>2.38</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
<td>2.8</td>
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<td>1.53</td>
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<td>4.31</td>
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<td>0.71</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
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<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.86</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.58</td>
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<td>1.40</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.71</td>
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<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.67</td>
<td>0.58</td>
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<td>1.25</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.95</td>
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<td>0.00</td>
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<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
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<td>0.93</td>
<td>4.08</td>
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<td>0.71</td>
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<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
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<td>1.27</td>
<td>2.08</td>
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<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.89</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
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<td>1.53</td>
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<td>Latinx Student Group</td>
<td>Average Group PSSM Score</td>
<td>Average Group Cum GPA</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican (N = 2)</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Other Hispanic/Latino (N = 10)</td>
<td>3.77</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexican American (N = 33)</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin American (N = 3)</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 is the scatterplot of individual study participant SOB (x-axis) and cumulative GPA (y-axis).

**Figure 1**

*Student Cumulative GPA as a Function of the Average PSSM SOB Score for the Student*

![Scatterplot](image-url)

Correlational analysis determined the relationship between SOB and cumulative GPA. With a calculated correlation of 0.01, there was a slight relationship between these two variables considering the data from this study’s participants. This means that there was a slight increase of cumulative GPA by student as the student’s average SOB score also increased.
Research Question Four - Results

For insight into student-reported and school-based factors that impact the student’s SOB, participants answered the open-ended question: What things make you feel or not feel accepted, respected, included, or supported at PSHS? The researcher utilized the qualitative analysis tool QDA Miner Lite during the analysis of the open-ended questions. The responses to the open-ended questions were imported into a project workspace. Coding of each response used the categories and codes established. The coding frequency table for question 1 is Table 4. These codes were used to develop the summary of contextual factors bolstering or obstructing a student’s SOB.

Table 4

*Code Frequency Table of Student Open-Ended Responses for Question 1*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes of Factors Identified by Students</th>
<th>Frequency of Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance Factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No judgment</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Club interactions</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher knowledge of student</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher has friendly or nice demeanor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect Factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers answers questions or helps</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher knowledge of student</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers keep their personal life separate</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion Factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Club involvement</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgement and Recognition</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student voice is heard</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgement and recognition</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers provided help</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive relationship with teacher</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsure or No Response</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Factor Stated in Response</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In examining acceptance factors, students reported lack of judgement to be important in acceptance. For example, one student stated, “I feel accepted at PSHS because people don’t judge me for who I am just by looking at me. They try to get to know me and then we build respect.” Another student commented, “Being able to speak my mind and not get judged for it.” This can be contrasted with the comment made by a student that underscored how detrimental judgement was to a feeling of acceptance. The student stated, “[I] don’t feel accepted when people say I’m too quiet or too different.”

Other acceptance factors included club interactions, teachers’ knowledge of the student and the teachers’ nice, friendly demeanor. For example, a student stated, “I feel accepted in clubs that I join like the latinx club” and another stated, “knowing that there are several clubs I can join.” One comment describing the importance of teachers’ knowledge of students included, “When teachers or faculty go out of their way to reach out personally to myself or my peers. It makes me feel less like an insignificant number.” And another student commented “I feel accepted when teachers are friendly to me” and another stated, “when teachers can act like a friend but still be authority.”

Investigating respect factors revealed that students felt respected when teachers answered questions and helped them. For example, one student commented, “A way that I feel respected is that whenever I have a question about something, all of my teachers are more than willing to answer my questions.” As an example of something that made a student feel disrespected, the student commented, “definitely not respected because of things i can’t control like height, skin color.” Another commented, “If i have bad grades I feel like the teachers and staff don’t have as much respect for me and sometimes don’t reach out to help me.” Teachers’ knowledge of the student was also important to students feeling respected. Although coming
from a multilingual background is an asset (García & Öztürk, 2018), one student commented that they felt respected when teachers “understand the disadvantages some students have for having bilingual parents.” This comment suggested, however, that this student adopted a deficit-based paradigm regarding coming from a bilingual home (Gándara, 2015; Yosso, 2009). The focus for this student was on the teachers’ knowledge of the student and how it related to feelings of respect which in turn relate directly to a student’s SOB.

Students reported feeling included when they were involved with clubs, felt that their voices were heard or were recognized for their work. One student commented, “Acknowledgement is nice, it helps me feel included.” and another student commented, “In general [sic] I did have two teachers that I know made me feel included and appreciated the first one helped me with their class work and also made sure I was doing good in all my other classes, if I was struggling in a class that wasn't theirs they would talk to me and see if I need help.”

One student comment that explained feeling a lack of inclusion reported, “students and teachers point of view on Latnix [sic] students is there their [sic] parents are trying to steal their jobs and that we're dumb.” This viewpoint made the student feel marginalized.

Recognition and acknowledgement along with teachers helping and having a positive relationship with a teacher were support factors for study participants. For example, one student commented, “The other teacher was a very fun teacher I could talk to them about things outside of school and they would listen and check up on their students. Me and my friend really enjoyed having them as a teacher and they made my freshman year. Though I did not really like their class they were a great teacher.”
An example of comment that relates to a lack of recognition included, “I'm trying and willing to do the work, but its [sic] like nobody sees.”

To summarize, there were three responses that were unrelated to the question and there were nine responses with either nothing reported, or the student stated they were not sure. In examining acceptance factors, students reported lack of judgement, club interactions, teachers’ knowledge of the student and the teachers’ nice, friendly demeanor as items that made them feel accepted. Investigating respect factors revealed that students felt respected when teachers answered questions and helped them, teachers had knowledge of the student, and in one case, that teachers kept their personal life private. Students reported feeling included when they were involved with clubs, felt that their voices were heard or were recognized for their work. Recognition and acknowledgement along with teachers helping and having a positive relationship with a teacher were support factors for study participants.

**Research Question Five - Results**

To explore the impact of the COVID-19 school closure on students’ SOB, students answered the question: PSHS is closed because of COVID-19. How has remote learning (classes on MS Teams and using Canvas) affected feeling or not feeling accepted, respected, included, or supported at PSHS? were coded to develop the summary of contextual factors bolstering or obstructing a student’s SOB in the pandemic reported in Table 5.

**Table 5**

*Code Frequency Table of Student Open-Ended Responses for Question 2*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes of Factors Identified by Students</th>
<th>Frequency of Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student moves at own pace</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less social interaction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More involvement</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of remote learning</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral Factors</td>
<td>Change in communication or interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverse Factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased workload</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased connection or relationship</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased knowledge of students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased motivation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased loneliness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Factor Stated in Response</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One student reported less social interaction supported SOB. Another commented on being more involved supported SOB. There were four comments that reported remote learning itself supported SOB. There were four comments that revealed that a student moving at their pace was the factor that supported SOB. For example, one student commented, “I do enjoy the more flexibility that I am able to understand what I am learning at my own pace.” The self-paced nature of remote learning was beneficial to this student.

Changes in communication and interaction were reported by 10 participants, but participants were not specific if this supported or diminished SOB. For example, one student commented, “I want to go back to school, because I feel more comfortable learning in person” and another commented “I personally don't like remote learning.” The first student did not articulate the factor that increased their comfort of learning in person and the second student did not articulate why they did not like remote learning. On the other hand, students reported that an increased workload and increased loneliness were detrimental to their SOB. Comments that reflected the student-reported increase in workload included, “I feel like because of COVID-19, teachers have been giving out more homework than usual” and “I get stressed and overwhelmed with the work.” Comments related to loneliness included when one student commented, “this school year has been extremely lonely” and another commented “i [sic] feel a little down because i [sic] barely know anyone.”
Decreased motivation, decreased teachers’ knowledge of students, and a decreased connection or relationship with people were also reported as negative impacts on SOB during the pandemic. One student commented, “I don't have any motivation and I just can't take school seriously anymore.” Another student commented,

“Motivation is very hard to find during these times. Days are on repeat I find myself doing the same tasks every day, I am in my teen years and feel I should be enjoying life. However I find myself laying in bed 7 days a week on my phone. It is sad that things have to be this way I don't talk to my friends nor teachers that I enjoyed talking to at school.”

An example of a student comment related to decreased teacher knowledge of students stated, “It made me lose so much interest in school because of how out of touch teachers are with their students.” Students commented on a lack of connection and relationships as evidenced by the comment, “if i [sic] really think about it their [sic] is no more Puget Sound High no more "high school experience" or good memories it just me in my room attending classes.”

In summary, there were 14 responses that did not have a codable response. Examples of such responses were “it’s ok” and “i [sic] don’t have an answer.” There were other comments that identified positive, neutral, and/or adverse factors related to a students’ SOB during the COVID-19 pandemic. One student reported that less social interaction supported their SOB. Another commented on being more involved supported their SOB. There were four comments that indicated that remote learning itself supported SOB. Four students stated that being able to move at their own pace was the factor that supported their SOB. Changes in communication and interaction were reported by 10 participants, but participants were not specific on if this supported or diminished SOB. On the other hand, students reported that an increased workload
and increased loneliness were detrimental to their SOB. Decreased motivation, decreased teachers’ knowledge of students, and a decreased connection or relationship with people were also reported as having negative impacts on SOB during the pandemic.

**CHAPTER 5: LIMITATIONS, DISCUSSION, AND IMPLICATIONS**

**Limitations**

There were limitations of this study that must be acknowledged. One limitation was that this study represented a limited number of student responses. Although 17% of the Latinx population of PSHS responded, the study is not able to state for a certainty that the participants are representative of either all Latinx students at PSHS, all the Latinx students in the district, the state, or the US. More research would need to be completed with a higher response rate to provide more of an assurance that the findings are statistically a representation of Latinx students in the overall population of various locations.

Another limitation is whether the participant learner profile reflected the Latinx learner profile for PSHS. There were areas where the study participants represented an overrepresentation as compared to the overall Latinx population of PSHS. Examples of areas of overrepresentation include (a) being female (70% of participants), (b) students in the 11th grade (33% of participants, and (c) having Spanish as a home language (61.4% of participants). There were also areas of underrepresentation as compared to the overall Latinx population of PSHS. These areas included (a) students served by special education (5.2% of participants), (b) students in the 12th grade (17.5% of participants), and (c) English as a home language (38.6% of participants).

An additional limitation of the study was that the student group identification within the Latinx group was limited to those defined by the PSSD: (a) Central American, (b) Cuban, (c)
Latin American, (d) Mexican or Mexican American, (e) Other Hispanic Latino, (f) Puerto Rican, (g) as South American (h) Dominican, and (i) as Spaniard. This study did not address other factors that may have impacted results, for example, whether the student was first or second generation.

Finally, one more limitation of this study was that it is cross-sectional in nature. This study measures the SOB of study participants at one specific instance in time. It did not consider their measure of SOB over an extended period. In addition to being cross-sectional, the concept SOB measured in this study did not reflect the consideration of SOB as a dynamic emergent construct like that suggested by Kern et al. (2021, p. 9). Further discussion of this idea of a dynamic emergent construct of SOB will be discussed below in the implications section.

**Discussion**

*Dissertation Goal 1 Discussion*

The first goal of this dissertation was to determine the levels of the SOB in Latinx students enrolled at a comprehensive suburban high school in Washington State. To address the level of the SOB of Latinx students at PSHS, study participants answered the 18 items on the PSSM Scale (Goodenow, 1993). All 18 items were assessed on a 5-point Likert scale with options from not at all true (1) to completely true (5) (Goodenow & Grady, 1993). The average scale score was calculated by totaling the scores of all 18 items and dividing by 18, which resulted in an average scale score of 3.12 for the study group. This means that on average the students stated that items on the PSSM were occasionally true.

In considering the statements that had average PSSM scores within the various Likert scale ranges, there was one item with an average PSSM score between 1.0-1.99 which is the not at all true range. Please note that item “Teachers here are not interested in people like me” is a
reverse item. As an educator, I would want to see the average score on this item to be as close to 1 as possible or not at all true. However, since the score of 1.83 is a score closer to 2 corresponding to usually not true, than it is to a score of 1 not at all true again, as an educator I am interested in exploring strategies that influence the measure of the students’ SOB to move more towards the 1 or not at all true end of the spectrum.

The reverse item “Teachers here are not interested in people like me” specifically refers to teachers. In the BPSEM (Kern & Allen, 2017), this statement refers to the students’ microsystem. We know that the microsystem is involved because the microsystem includes such factors as teacher, parent, and peer support. When considering Latinx learner development (García & Öztürk, 2018), this statement is part of the students’ educational context again because teachers are a central part of the educational context. Gándara and Contreras (2009) include teachers as a part of the school resources available to the Latinx student. Likewise, Contreras (2011) considers teachers to be adult human resources to which the students have access. This result implies that there needs to be a focus on strategies that impact teachers and the relationships and interactions that teachers have with students. Please see the implications for practice section for a discussion of these strategies.

There are three statements that had average PSSM scores in the usually not true range (2.0-2.99) that I would want to see trend more toward a score of 1 or not true at all as opposed to a score of 5 or completely true. These statements include (a) I wish I were in a different school (2.0), (b) It is hard for people like me to be accepted here (2.25), and (c) Sometimes I feel like I don’t belong here (2.43). There are three statements that I would want to trend more toward 5 or completely true as opposed to 1 or not true at all. These statements include (a) I am included in lots of activities at PSHS (2.58), (b) People here notice when I am good at something (2.99) and
The items scoring in the usually not true range from the perspective of the BPSEM (Allen & Kern, 2017), relate to the individual factors of the students since the items refer to the feelings and involvement of the student. These items relate to the educational and social contexts of the Latinx learners considering Latinx learner development (García & Öztürk, 2018) since the educational and social contexts can be described including student involvement and recognition. These items relate to the categories of school climate and school peers from the perspective of Gándara and Contreras (2009) and the access to infrastructure and peer networks from the perspective of Contreras (2011). Taken collectively these results suggest a need to focus on strategies related to students’ involvement in school and the students’ relationships. Please see the implications for practice section for a discussion of these strategies.

Eight items had average PSSM scores corresponding to occasionally true (3.0-3.99). These statements include (a) I feel like a real part of PSHS (3.26), (b) other students in this school take my opinions seriously (3.19), (c) most teachers at PSHS are interested in me (3.22), (d) there’s at least one teacher or other adult in this school I can talk to if I have a problem (3.62), (e) people in this school are friendly to me (3.86), (f) people here know I can do good work (3.80), (g) I feel proud belonging to PSHS (3.70), and (h) other students like me the way I am (3.56). I would want to all these items to trend more toward 5 or completely true as opposed to 1 or not true at all. Furthermore, all the items with average scores corresponding to
occasionally true relate to individual factors and the microsystem of the student (Allen & Kern 2017), the educational and social contexts of the Latinx learners (García & Öztürk, 2018), the categories of school climate and school peers (Gándara & Contreras, 2009), and peer networks (Contreras, 2011).

There were two statements with average PSSM scores in the usually not true (4.0-4.99) range: (a) I am treated with as much respect as other students (4.00), and (b) the teachers here respect me (4.08). I would want to see these scores improve to be closer to 5 or completely true. These statements refer to the microsystem of the student considering the BPSEM (Allen & Kern, 2017), the educational and social contexts of the Latinx learners (García & Öztürk, 2018), the categories of school climate and school peers (Gándara & Contreras, 2009), and peer networks (Contreras, 2011). There were no statements on the PSSM that were scored on average as completely true (5). These findings suggest that strategies that address students’ relationships with teachers and each other as well as strategies that impact school climate could impact students’ PSSM scores. Please see the implications for practice section for a discussion of these strategies.

Dissertation Goal 2 Discussion

The second goal in this dissertation was to compare measures of SOB between different Latinx student groups, for example, Cuban, Mexican, Mexican American, etc. Table 2 contains the results of these calculations for each student group. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was completed to test the null hypothesis that there are no statistically significant differences between the measures of SOB across Latinx student groups. The one-way ANOVA, $F = 1.96$, $MSE = 1.73$, $p = .09$ demonstrated that the alternate hypothesis was rejected, and the null hypothesis was maintained in that there were no statistically significant differences between the SOB means for
the various Latinx student groups of Latin American, Mexican American, Puerto Rican, Central American, etc. However, given that heterogeneity within groups is important (Gándara, 2015; García & Öztürk, 2018) and that studies often mistakenly assume that “minority students are alike and will respond in similar ways to policies and interventions” (Gándara, 2015, p. 459), the exploration of differences between Latinx student group continues to be a relevant goal of research. Looking for possible trends or differences in qualitative results could be a part of future educational research.

**Dissertation Goal 3 Discussion**

The third goal of this dissertation was to explore the relationship between students’ SOB and academic achievement which in turn supports students in getting to graduation. Correlational analysis determined the relationship between SOB and cumulative GPA. With a calculated correlation of 0.01, there was a slight relationship between these two variables considering the data from this study’s participants. This means that there was a slight increase of cumulative GPA by student as the student’s average SOB score also increased. This relationship was not as strong as those found in other studies (Bean, 1983; Finn, 1989; Goodenow, 1993; Goodenow & Grady, 1993; Osterman, 2000; Strayhorn, 2019), but continues to be important as getting to high school graduation and then succeeding in post-secondary education leads to differential outcomes in factors such as infant mortality, the location of our home, our school success, our career choice, our income, our health and our life expectancy (Delgado & Stefancic, 2012; DiAngelo, 2018).

**Dissertation Goal 4 Discussion**

The fourth goal of the dissertation was to explore student-reported and school-based factors that impact the student’s SOB. Themes were identified within the codes of acceptance,
respect, inclusion, and support. These codes were chosen due the centrality of these concepts to the definition of SOB (Goodenow, 1993). To review, there were three responses that were unrelated to the question and there were nine responses with either nothing reported, or the student stated they were not sure. In examining acceptance factors, students reported lack of judgement, club interactions, teachers’ knowledge of the student and the teachers’ nice, friendly demeanor as items that made them feel accepted. Investigating respect factors revealed that students felt respected when teachers answered questions and helped them, teachers had knowledge of the student, and in one case, that teachers kept their personal life private. Students reported feeling included when they were involved with clubs, felt that their voices were heard or were recognized for their work. Recognition and acknowledgement along with teachers helping and having a positive relationship with a teacher were support factors for study participants.

Beginning the discussion through the lens of the BPSEM (Kern & Allen, 2017), students’ comments reflected biological and individual factors. Within the code of respect an example of a comment that related to a student’s biological factors was a comment that referenced skin color and its impact on respect when the student stated, “definitely not respected because of things i can’t control like height, skin color” to explain a factor that contributed to disrespect in relationships. Comments related to students’ individual factors included those comments that referred to students’ feelings. An example representing the theme of lack of judgement and that theme’s impact on a student’s feeling of acceptance is when one student stated, “I feel accepted at PSHS because people dont [sic] judge me for who I am just by looking at me. They try to get to know me and then we build respect.” This can be contrasted with the comment made by a student that underscored how detrimental judgement was to a feeling of acceptance. The student stated, “[I] don't feel accepted when people say I'm too quiet or too different.”
Continuing the discussion through the lens of the BPSEM (Kern & Allen, 2017), students’ comments reflected elements of the students’ microsystem and mesosystem. Across multiple themes that emerged when coding for factors that influence students’ feelings of acceptance, respect, inclusion, and support the importance of teachers and their knowledge of their students and their providing help was clear. As an example, students felt respected when teachers answered questions and helped them. For example, one student commented, “A way that I feel respected is that whenever I have a question about something, all of my teachers are more than willing to answer my questions.” Another comment describing the importance of teachers’ knowledge of students included, “When teachers or faculty go out of their way to reach out personally to myself or my peers. It makes me feel less like an insignificant number.”

Relating to the students’ mesosystem, several comments related to the theme of club involvement and its impact on students’ feelings of acceptance and inclusion. For example, a student stated, “I feel accepted in clubs that I join like the latinx [sic] club” and another stated, “knowing that there are several clubs i [sic] can join.”

Alternatively discussing the Latinx learner development framework (García & Öztürk, 2018), students commented on the student characteristics, as well as the family, educational and social contexts. For example within the student’s educational and social context, acknowledgement and recognition emerged as themes related to students’ feelings of inclusion and support. One student commented, “Acknowledgement is nice, it helps me feel included.” and another student commented,

“In general /sic/ I did have two teachers that I know made me feel included and appreciated the first one helped me with their class work and also made sure I was doing
good in all my other classes, if I was struggling in a class that wasn't theirs they would talk to me and see if I need help.”

Another example of a comment related to the student’s educational and social context and a factor that contributed to feeling a lack of inclusion was when a student reported, “students and teachers point of view on Latnix [sic] students is there their [sic] parents are trying to steal their jobs and that we're dumb.” This viewpoint made the student feel marginalized within these contexts.

Pivoting to Gándara & Contreras (2009) and discussing the schooling context for Latinx youth, students’ comments reflected all three aspects of this framework: (a) school resources, (b) school climate, and (c) school peers. Teachers who are knowledgeable of their students are central to school resources. The level of students’ feelings of inclusion has a direct impact on school climate and extracurricular activities are an aspect of school peers in this framework. In considering the framework for supporting Latinx students (Contreras, 2011), students’ comments reflected three of the four aspects of this framework including access to adult human resources, access to infrastructure and peer networks. Teachers who help students are an example of access to adult human resources. Extracurricular activities are a part of access to infrastructure and family and friends are a part of the student’s peer network.

Dissertation Goal 5 Discussion

The fifth goal of this dissertation was to explore student-reported impacts of the COVID-19 school closure on SOB. Themes emerged when coding student responses using positive, neutral, and adverse factors as codes. To review, there were 14 responses that did not have a codable response. Examples of such responses were “it’s ok” and “i [sic] don’t have an answer.” There were other comments that identified positive, neutral, and/or adverse factors related to a
students’ SOB during the COVID-19 pandemic. One student reported that less social interaction supported their SOB. Another commented on being more involved supported their SOB. There were four comments that indicated that remote learning itself supported SOB. Four students stated that being able to move at their own pace was the factor that supported their SOB. Changes in communication and interaction were reported by 10 participants, but participants were not specific on if this supported or diminished SOB. On the other hand, students reported that an increased workload and increased loneliness were detrimental to their SOB. Decreased motivation, decreased teachers’ knowledge of students, and a decreased connection or relationship with people were also reported as having negative impacts on SOB during the pandemic.

For this goal of the dissertation, when analyzing students’ responses through the lens of the various theoretical frameworks, a very similar pattern emerged to the discussion of the results of research question four. Considering the lens of the BPSEM (Kern & Allen, 2017), students’ comments reflected individual factors as well as the students’ microsystem and mesosystem. Considering the Latinx learner development framework (García & Öztürk, 2018), students commented on the educational and social contexts. In considering Gándara & Contreras (2009), students’ comments reflected school resources, school climate and school peers. Finally, in studying the framework for supporting Latinx students (Contreras, 2011), students’ comments displayed aspects of this framework including access to adult human resources, access to infrastructure and peer networks.

**Implications for Research and Practice**

The results of both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of this study underscore the importance of relationships and people to the SOB of Latinx learners at PSHS. In that respect,
the findings of this study reflect one aspect of Invitational Education described by Vega et al. (2015) which is people. People are also a part of every framework we can use to analyze both the context of and success of Latinx learners (Contreras, 2011, Gándara & Contreras, 2009; García & Öztürk, 2018). In the framework to understand Latinx learner development, people are a part of the family, social, and educational contexts of the student (García & Öztürk, 2018). People are also a part of the school resources, school climate, and school peers which are aspects of the overall schooling context described by Gándara and Contreras (2009). Finally, they are a part of the access to human resources and the peer networks described by Contreras (2011) that support Latinx learners. Taken as a whole, the framework elements as well as this study’s findings suggest that a focus on people and their connections, relationships, and interactions should be a focus in future practice at PSHS.

This focus on people and their connections, relationships, and interactions will take place in the context of PSHS specifically. Our teamwork framework is a central focus and was introduced and is revisited regularly in the context of our work. The framework reflects an adaptation of Lencioni’s (2002) five dysfunctions of a team framework for use at the school (see Appendix J). The first adaptation was an addition of a foundation of communication. The second adaptation was to view the framework from a positive perspective. The framework in summary holds that appropriate professional vulnerability leads to the building of trust. As trust is established, teams can engage in healthy conflict and avoid artificial ambiguity to reach commitment. In this way, all perspectives are heard, and team members commit or dissent and commit. This practice allows for team accountability in actions and generates the improvements in teacher practice and student learning. PSHS staff pursue annual goals using this framework.
Our School Improvement Plan (SIP) outlines the results to which we will hold ourselves annually accountable. Our most important result in the context of ESSA is to have a graduation rate of 100%. Based on this study, quantitatively our most important SIP goal for future years is the measurement of Latinx student SOB and its relationship to Latinx student achievement which supports students getting to graduation. The SIP will outline a goal of measuring Latinx students’ SOB and academic achievement over an extended period thus examining SOB and academic achievement in a longitudinal versus cross-sectional way.

Ultimately, we are accountable to our students and based on the results of this study we must focus on an asset-based approach to working with our Latinx students. An intentional focus on Latinx students is needed including creating spaces for students and their families to be heard. We must listen and reflect what we hear back to our students and families. Additionally, the qualitative results of this study point to the importance of the teachers’ knowledge of the students, the quality of the teachers’ interactions with students, assistance provided to students, and acknowledgement and recognition of students. Our school is a system made of people and moves forward within the context of people’s relationships with each other. Three specific ongoing asset-based strategies that support positive school climate and outcomes are supporting staff in their understanding and implementation of culturally responsive education (CRE) and restorative justice practices (RJP). In describing CRE, Stembridge stated in an interview that, “[CRE] center[s] students—their voices, questions, experiences, their full humanity—in the effort to create meaningful learning opportunities” (Ferlazzo, 2020). Policies such as school discipline that focuses on RJP also center the student and their context will continue to be implemented. CRE and RJP will address PSHS school structures that need to be asset-based such as our school discipline approach. Lastly, continuing to develop and implement robust and
accessible extracurricular activities that are a part of an inclusive, accepting, and respectful culture are supported by this study’s qualitative findings.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

Quantitatively, the findings of the study were that the average measure of the SOB of Latinx students at PSHS was 3.12 corresponding to on average the items on the PSSM being occasionally true. The average cum GPA of study participants was 2.9. When considering the means of the measures of SOB for the various Latinx student groups and performing an ANOVA, the means of the student groups were found to be not statistically significant in their difference. Also, the correlation analysis found that there was a slight increase in GPA as a function of student measure of SOB. Quantitatively, PSHS staff have the goal to shift the responses on the positively phrased items, for example, *I feel like a real part of PSHS*. Strategies such as supporting teachers’ understanding and implementation of CRE and RJP will address the microsystem and mesosystem of the student (Kern & Allen, 2017). These strategies related to the micro- and mesosystem levels of the BPSEM relate to factors including the students’ teacher, parent, and peer support, school policies, extracurricular activities, and professional development of staff. Focus on CRE and RJP is also aligned to the family and educational context of the student (García & Öztürk, 2018) and the school peers and school climate contexts described by Gándara and Contreras (2009).

The study asked if there was a difference in SOB experienced by different Latinx student groups such as Mexican American and Puerto Rican to name two groups. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was completed and the one-way ANOVA, $F = 1.96$, $MSE = 1.73$, $p = .09$ demonstrated that there were no statistical differences between the SOB means for the Latinx student groups. The study sought to explore the relationship between a student’s SOB and
academic achievement as measured by the student’s cumulative GPA. With a calculated correlation of 0.01, there was a slight relationship between these two variables considering the data from this study’s participants. This means that there was a slight increase of cumulative GPA by student as the student’s average SOB score also increased. This relationship was not as strong as those found in other studies (Bean, 1983; Finn, 1989; Goodenow, 1993; Goodenow & Grady, 1993; Osterman, 2000; Strayhorn, 2019).

Qualitatively, this study explored student-reported and school-based factors that impacted the student’s SOB. In examining acceptance factors, students reported lack of judgement, club interactions, teachers’ knowledge of the student and the teachers’ nice, friendly demeanor as items that made them feel accepted. Investigating respect factors revealed that students felt respected when teachers answered questions and helped them, teachers had knowledge of the student, and in one case, that teachers kept their personal life private. Students reported feeling included when they were involved with clubs, felt that their voices were heard or were recognized for their work. Recognition and acknowledgement along with teachers helping and having a positive relationship with a teacher were support factors for study participants.

Finally, this study also qualitatively explored the contextual factors strengthening or hampering a student’s SOB at PSHS during the remote learning environment of the COVID 19 pandemic. One student reported less social interaction supported SOB. Another commented on being more involved supported SOB. There were four comments that reported remote learning itself supported SOB. There were four comments that revealed that a student moving at their pace was the factor that supported SOB. Changes in communication and interaction were reported by 10 participants, but participants were not specific on if this supported or diminished SOB. On the other hand, students reported that an increased workload and increased loneliness
were detrimental to their SOB. Decreased motivation, decreased teachers’ knowledge of students, and a decreased connection or relationship with people were also reported as negative impacts on SOB during the pandemic. Let us end by considering the big picture.

Latinx learners represent one in four learners in the US (Contreras, 2011; Gándara, 2015; Gándara & Contreras, 2009; Gándara & Mordechay, 2017; García & Öztürk, 2018; Yosso, 2006) and one in five learners at PSHS (Puget Sound School District, 2021). Across the nation and at PSHS, Latinx learners experience disparate educational outcomes (Puget Sound School District, 2021; National Center for Education Statistics, 2020; Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 2021). Therefore, it is a priority to address the needs of Latinx learners. Several frameworks suggest a way to analyze the context of the Latinx learner to maximize his/her/their success (Contreras, 2011, Gándara & Contreras, 2009; García & Öztürk, 2018; Yosso & Burciaga, 2016). Implications for practice can be guided by frameworks and research (Contreras, 2011; Gándara, 2015; Gándara & Contreras, 2009; Gándara & Mordechay, 2017; García & Öztürk, 2018; Yosso, 2006) focus on rejecting the traditional deficit-based approach with Latinx learners and support the shift to an asset-based approach.

Academic achievement is necessary to get to graduation. This dissertation poses the question of what is the relationship between academic achievement and Latino students’ SOB enrolled at PSHS and is particularly relevant in the time of the COVID crisis. Over the next 40 years in the United States, the Latino population will continue growing. It will nearly double in this timeframe until one in three people identify as Latino (United States Census Bureau, 2020). We must, as educators, address what Gándara & Contreras (2009) term the Latino education crisis by embracing an asset-based mindset and strategies to support Latino students to graduation. If we don’t, in 40 years, one in three of our people will be disadvantaged in
education, health, and life. The annual measurement of Latinx students’ SOB and academic achievement paired with the continued implementation of CRE, RJP, and robust extracurricular activities will address the importance of people and their relationships ultimately positively impacting PSHS structures and systems. The end goal will always be to increase the level of the Latinx student’s SOB, academic achievement, and getting to graduation.
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Appendix A

Bio-Psycho-Socio-Ecological Model Allen and Kern (2017)

Note: BPSEM by Allen & Kern (2017) as described by Greenwood & Kelly (2019)
Appendix B


Note: As part of an asset-based approach to Latino education, García & Öztürk (2018) ground in a framework that explores the impact of the social, community, family, and educational contexts on the development of the Latino student.
Note. Bean’s Student Attrition model is known for exploring the different variables that contribute to the student’s satisfaction with school, intent to leave or the student dropping out. (Bean, 1983, p. 132).
Appendix D

Participation-Identification Model Finn (1989)

Note: Finn’s model is significant in that it posed the possibility that dropping out is a process that may begin early in a student’s education. Belonging is tied to a student’s identification with school (Finn, 1989, p.130).
## Appendix E

**The Psychological Sense of School Membership (PSSM) Scale**

*Items in the PSSM Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>I feel like a real part of (name of school).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>People here notice when I am good at something.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>It is hard for people like me to be accepted here. <em>(reversed)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Other students in this school take my opinions seriously.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Most teachers at (name of school) are interested in me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Sometimes I feel like I don’t belong here. <em>(reversed)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>There’s at least one teacher or other adult in this school I can talk to if I have a problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>People in this school are friendly to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Teachers here are not interested in people like me. <em>(reversed)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>I am included in lots of activities at (name of school).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>I am treated with as much respect as other students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>I feel very different from most other students here. <em>(reversed)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>I can really be myself at this school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>The teachers here respect me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>People here know I can do good work,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>I wish I were in a different school. <em>(reversed)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>I feel proud of belonging to (name of school).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Other students here like me the way I am.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* Scale as shared in Goodenow, 1993, p. 84.
Appendix F

Juvonen Model (2006)

Note: Juvonen’s model involving SOB as described by Wallace et al., 2012, p. 123.
Gándara and Contreras (2009) and the Schooling Context for Latinx Youth

Note: In considering the learning of a Latinx student, Gándara and Contreras (2009, p. 87) describe the schooling context to be the relationship between the learner and school resources, school climate, and school peers.
Appendix H

Gándara and Öztürk (2018) and The Six Ps Framework for Educational Success

Note: To understand the educational success of a Latinx learner, García and Öztürk (2018, p. 16) encourage consideration of the student at the center of several circumstances and events.
Appendix I

Contreras (2011) and the Framework for Supporting Latinx Students

Note: To the supports of a Latinx learner, Contreras (2011, p. 46) encouraged consideration of the student at the center of several interconnected elements.
Appendix J

PSHS Teamwork Framework Adapted from Lencioni (2002)

Note: Samantha Ketover adapted Lencioni’s (2002) five dysfunctions of a team framework for use at PSHS.
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