11-7-2012

A Comparison Study of the English III/American Literature Success of African American High School Students and That of Students Whose Home Language is Haitian Creole

Sharon A. Samuels
Florida International University, samuelss@dadeschools.net

Recommended Citation

Samuels, Sharon A., "A Comparison Study of the English III/American Literature Success of African American High School Students and That of Students Whose Home Language is Haitian Creole" (2012). *FIU Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. 785.
https://digitalcommons.fiu.edu/etd/785

FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

A COMPARISON STUDY OF THE ENGLISH III/AMERICAN LITERATURE

SUCCESS OF AFRICAN AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS AND THAT OF

STUDENTS WHOSE HOME LANGUAGE IS HAITIAN CREOLE

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

by

Sharon Angela Samuels

2012

To: Dean Delia C. Garcia
        College of Education

This dissertation, written by Sharon Angela Samuels, entitled A Comparison Study of the English III/American Literature Success of African American High School Students and That of Students Whose Home Language is Haitian Creole, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

_____
Maria Lovett

_____
Lynne D. Miller

_____
Kyle Perkins

_____
Linda Spears-Bunton, Major Professor

Date of Defense: November 11, 2012

The dissertation of Sharon Angela Samuels is approved.

_____
Dean Delia C. Garcia
College of Education

_____
Dean Lakshmi N. Reddi
University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2012

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my very patient children: Jacqueline Samuels Gordon, Joan Samuels Watkins, Rohan Samuels, Duane Samuels, Shermel Samuels, and last but not least, my baby rock Tiffanny Samuels. I extend this dedication to my grandchildren Aniah, Anise, Deon, and Darryl Samuels; my mom, Amy Spencer and all the other very supporting members of the Spencer family, further to my friends, for their energy giving support: Claudia Morgan, Isolyn Hillhouse, Jackie Francis, Alicia Ritchey, and Sandra Wiggan. I am forever in all your debts!

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

A COMPARISON STUDY OF THE ENGLISH III/AMERICAN LITERATURE

SUCCESS OF AFRICAN AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS AND THAT OF

STUDENTS WHOSE HOME LANGUAGE IS HAITIAN CREOLE

by

Sharon Angela Samuels

Florida International University, 2012

Miami, Florida

Professor Linda Spears-Bunton, Major Professor

The purpose of the study was to compare the English III success of students whose home language is Haitian Creole (SWHLIHC) with that of the more visible African American high school students in the Miami Dade County Public Schools System, in an effort to offer insight that might assist educators in facilitating the educational success of SWHLIHC in American Literature class.

The study was guided by two important theories on how students interact with and learn from literature. They are Reader Response Theory which advocates giving students the opportunity to become involved in the literature experience (Rosenblatt, 1995), and Critical Literacy, a theory developed by Paolo Freire and Henry Giroux, which espouses a critical approach to analysis of society that enables people to analyze social problems through lenses that would reveal social inequities and assist in transforming society into a more equitable entity.

Data for the study: 10th grade reading FCAT scores, English III/American Literature grades, and Promotion to English IV records for the school year 2010-2011 were

retrieved from the records division of the Miami Dade County Public Schools System. The study used a quantitative methods approach, the central feature of which was an ex post facto design with hypotheses (Newman, Newman, Brown, & McNeely, 2006). The ex post facto design with hypotheses was chosen because the researcher postulated hypotheses about the relationships that might exist between the performances of SWHLIHC and those of African American students on the three above mentioned variables. This type of design supported the researcher's purpose of comparing these performances.

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA), two way ANOVAs, and chi square tests were used to examine the two groups' performances on the 10th grade reading FCAT, their English III grades, and their promotion to English IV.

The study findings show that there was a significant difference in the performance of SWHLIHC and African American high school students on all three independent variables. SWHLIHC performed significantly higher on English III success and promotion to English IV. African American high school students performed significantly higher on the reading FCAT.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole (SWHLIHC) constitute a very visible group in most of Miami Dade County public schools; there is a very large number of Haitian Americans in Miami Dade, Broward, and Palm Beach counties. Haitian Americans have businesses, attend churches, purchase homes, and make up a reasonable portion of the students in all of the institutions of learning in these three Florida counties. However, despite their children's disadvantage of coming into the school system from homes in which the primary language is typically Haitian Creole, they are not recognized by curriculum planning groups as requiring specific focus on their unique cultural circumstances. Rather, they are lumped in with an already disadvantaged group, African American students, and thus addressed under the same umbrella. Such an action creates complications related to culture, sociology and pedagogy.

Although African Americans and Haitian Americans are of the same race, SWHLIHC have different cultural backgrounds; their sociology is very different and the pedagogy that might be effective with African American students does not necessarily fulfill *their* educational needs. Banks (1996) stated that, "Education within a pluralistic society should affirm and help students understand their home and community cultures" (p. 75). Banks argues that it is the duty of a democratic society to educate students in such a way as to promote students' acquisition of knowledge, attitudes, and skills that will help to mold them into citizens who reflect equity and justice. This researcher has not experienced this as being the dominant experience of SWHLIHC in the English III /American Literature classrooms of Miami Dade County Public Schools System. English

1

is a critical subject area I n which a pluralistic perspective should be evident in high school; this is the class that teaches students how to communicate with the people with whom they share the world. Especially in high school, English class is supposed to build a communication bridge from home to the world of colleges and professors and to that of the workplace and bosses. Barrier-Ferreira (2008) specifies the role of literature as being that of enabling students to identify commonalities in the shared experiences of all human beings, and in so doing garner a perspective of life that will help them to function effectively in our "global society."

America's schools have always had plans for the end results of the curriculum they administer to students. High schools subscribe to a literary canon, an officially sanctioned body of work, adjudged to be aesthetically beautiful, morally appropriate, and worthy of focus in high school English classes. However, in its present form, the canon from which works that make up the high school literature curriculum are selected "whites out," or marginalizes most other cultures, presenting skewed linguistic, social, and cultural ideas of the people of Africa and the African Diaspora and other non Anglo-Saxon cultures. Many educational institutions implement a variety of programs to assist students who need extra help in gaining the ability to maneuver effectively in the English speaking world. Most schools have English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) programs, some have tutoring and or mentoring programs. Other schools adapt some kind of inclusion process. Yet, despite these perceived best efforts of educators, some students, especially those from a language minority background, do not always achieve success. This is probably because many minority students do not recognize their cultures or values in the works being taught. Given the scarcity of Haitian authors or themes in the English

III subject matter, one can suppose that SWHLIHC often have a hard time making connection with the compilation of literature selections addressed in English III.

In all educational settings, classroom teachers observe, discuss amongst each other, and are generally preoccupied with perceived patterns of student educational success, or of failure. The interactions of SWHLIHC and the English III curriculum have often occupied the thoughts and discussions of this researcher. The oftentimes mediocre grades of both SWHLIHC and African American students in the researcher's classroom experience in teaching English III, in the Miami Dade County Public Schools System, has led to multiple opportunities to observe the difficulties these two groups face in achieving success in English Literature classes. Further, the researcher has been involved in discussions and has examined research that compares the educational aspirations and performances of girls and boys. The conflicting nature of reports by researchers of this issue has piqued the researcher's interest (Garg, Kauppi, Lewko & Urajnik, 2002; Mahaffy & Ward, 2002; Mau & Bikos, 2000; Mendez & Crawford, 2002; Wilson & Wilson, 1992). All of these experiences have led to the conceptualization of this topic as the focus of a dissertation.

Kim (2006) reported on a comparison study of the educational success of two similar groups—second-generation Koreans (successful) and second-generation Filipinos (not as successful). Her findings led her to conclude that while there are many studies explaining the success of many second-generation groups, it remains a puzzle that other groups, who are sometimes exposed to similar social and educational situations as those who experience great success, themselves do not experience similar success. For one to be perceived as having achieved success in education, one must typically maintain a GPA

of at least 2.5, pass all standardized tests set for the appropriate grade level, and be on track for graduation from the educational institution one attends. Some groups have no problems meeting these standards. One group of students who do not share the success of the previously mentioned Korean group is the group of children from homes in which Haitian Creole is the home language (Nicholas, 2010; Portes & Macleod, 1996; Portes & Rumbaut, 2001).

Because most SWHLIHC in Miami Dade County's high schools are American born, they have been afforded the opportunity of attending various pre-school through high school facilities, and have supposedly had access to the same social amenities as their peers. One might expect then, that this group would have no impediments in mastering the subject matter addressed in high school English class. Yet, they are not performing as well as other groups in the same classes. Research shows that they are indeed having problems with the literature based lessons taught in high school English class (Gibson, 1997; Nicholas, 2010; Perlmann & Waldinger, 1997; Portes & MacLeod, 1996). These studies show that oftentimes children of immigrants are at risk for school failure.

It is important to note that SWHLIHC are faced with the mismatch of their cultural capital and the material presented by the high school English curriculum. That is, there is no representation of their ethnic organizations such as Hesu partnering, where each payday a set group of "partners" would all give a specific dollar amount to a "banker," who would give this total amount to one member. This would continue until all group members received their "hand," which is often thousands of dollars. Many Haitian parents purchase books, school uniforms, and school supplies in this way. They are used

4

to having rotating credit in their neighborhood grocery store, wherein families could send their children to the store with a note, and be given food or other supplies for which they would pay a portion on payday. None of this is represented in the American literature that comprises the bulk of the 11th grade English curriculum. Many researchers have long postulated that this disconnect is a major reason for the lack of success of African American students in English class (Akiba, 2007; Delpit, 1995; Rosenblatt, 1985;Spears-Bunton & Powell, 2009; Thompson, 2003). One can reasonably assume that if African American students are experiencing low success rates in interacting with the hegemonic content of the English III curriculum, then SWHLIHC, whose parents converse more comfortably in Creole and often buy groceries at the Ti Mache (Flea Market) should find it even more difficult to be successful in such a class.

This study sought to examine whether or not there is a difference in the success rate of SWHLIHC and African American students in high school English language arts, specifically in 11th grade, the grade wherein the bulk of American literature is taught. Given that the literature addressed in this class is "American," and given the ultimate objective of education—to prepare students for life—students should expect to find themselves adequately represented in this body of work that they are expected to embrace. If they are expected to become successful representations of American citizens, they should be able to examine a number of successful examples of groups or people with whom they can culturally identify in the literature. For the purposes of this study, successful performance in English class at any level of high school was achieved when students met or surpassed the required GPA for graduation, earned the grade to be promoted to the next level, and earned a passing score on the Florida Comprehensive

Achievement Test (FCAT). The FCAT measure is still applicable in the junior year because such a large number of 11th grade students failed the reading portion of the test in the 10th grade (71% in 2011). Another aspect of this test is that it can be the sole reason why some students do not graduate. Even if students have met all the GPA, community service, core classes, and other requirements, they cannot graduate with a high school diploma if they have not received passing scores on the Reading and Mathematics sections of the FCAT.

The population of students for this study is important because of their seeming invisibility in schools, wherein they are addressed as a part of the group of African Americans, without any focus on their "between" position—that is, between Haitian, and African American. Little attention is given to the fact that even though they are of the same race as African Americans, their ethnicity creates differences in the ways that both groups interact with their communities, socially, culturally, and academically. Ethnicity also contributes to the way in which groups react to each other. During the teenage years this position can prove to be a hindrance to the attainment of success for SWHLIHC. Haitian students born in America, especially those who live in and go to school in predominantly poor African American communities wherein Ebonics, not standard English, is regularly spoken, compete with poor African Americans for the same poorly paying jobs. They may live side by side in the same communities, yet know little of the other group's culture.

Moreover, SWHLIHC have to be linguistically adept enough to respond to parents' Creole, socialize in their peers' Ebonics, and write essays in their educators' school English. They are expected to succeed at this despite the fact that they are not like

the middle- and upper-class African Americans who speak Ebonics in addition to various forms of the standard English vernacular. Neither are they like middle-upper class French and English-speaking Haitian-American students, who enjoy the socialization and education that middle-class schools, neighborhoods, and finances facilitate. Class and the kinds of access that schooling and life experiences have given to other people provide opportunities to learn when and how to switch from Ebonics to the standard English vernacular. Being placed in this "juxtaposition" of Haitian and African American lower class communities is often an additional academic hurdle for SWHLIHC in Miami Dade County public schools. Low Socio Economic Status SES Haitian parents dream that if they come to America, they will be able to get jobs that will pay them enough to purchase a decent family home in a respectable neighborhood. They dream that this job will also enable them to purchase a nice car to drive the family around in, buy all the food and clothes that their children could possibly need, and still have enough left over to send cash and commodities, quite often, to family back home.

Most Haitian immigrants expect exactly what any other immigrant to the United States expects—success. They understand that they will be impeded by the fact that English is not their home language. However, they also expect that their children who are born here will not have similar problems (Portes & MacLeod, 1996; Portes & Rumbaut, 2001; Portes & Stepick, 1987). These children grow up and go to schools where English is the major language spoken by their teachers, peers, and other school employees. How then do these students measure up to their peers in high school English classes? Are they achieving equal success to other students with similar exposure? These are the main concerns addressed by this study.

Background of the Problem

Darling-Hammond (1997) stated:

Providing most Americans with an empowering and equitable education has

always been a struggle, and it remains one today. Relatively few schools offer all

their students a rich, active curriculum that teaches for understanding. Even fewer

manage to educate a diverse set of students for constructive social interaction and

shared decision making. (p. 7)

For SWHLIHC to attain academic skills that would enable them to make constructive

contributions through social interactions they would have to be recognized by educators

as a section of society whose education commands adequate allocation of resources that

would enhance success. Despite recent efforts, this is not the case. Educational Reforms,

from the 1983 *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*, to the *No Child

Left Behind Act of 2002*, recognize that there is a major problem with the academic

success of many of America's students. In most cases the students who are having the

most difficulties are racial and ethnic minorities (Applebee, 1974; Banks, 1996; Delpit,

1995; Jencks & Phillips, 1998; Malveaux, 1997; Roscigno, 2000; Spears-Bunton &

Powell, 2009). This recognition has resulted in a variety of responses at state and district

levels in a concerted attempt to align the educational success of all students. These

responses range from a call for more highly qualified teachers to assigning grades to

schools, based on the performances of their students on state mandated tests, along with

other markers. Barton (2000) reported that the reform efforts were having a positive

effect on the performance levels of lower grade level students, but that there was little to

no effect on that of high school students. Consequently, added measures are necessary to improve the performance of racial and ethnic minorities like SWHLIHC.

Records show that throughout history, there have been many attempts made to legally clarify the existence of inequality in educational opportunities for minorities. Recorded in 1840s in Boston, a Black father, Benjamin Roberts waged a legal campaign against the system that kept his daughter from attending the school closest to her home because it was a White school. The court ruled it inconsequential that Sarah passed five White schools on her way to the Black schools, since Boston legally maintained racially segregated schools. The most familiar cases include the late 19th century case of *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), in which the U.S. Supreme Court decided that a Louisiana law mandating separate but equal accommodations for blacks and whites on intrastate railroads was constitutional, thereby validating other state and local government actions that socially separated Blacks and Whites. In an attempt to make educating African Americans as important as educating Whites, the mid-20th century case *Brown v. The Board of Education of Topeka County* (1954) argued against the decisions handed down by the justices in *Plessy v. Ferguson*. The case challenged school segregation and argued that separate was not equal. Even though the court's decision in this case "…dismantled the legal basis for racial segregation in schools and other public facilities" (Brown Foundation), the struggle for equitable education for non-Whites continues into this century. That is, it still continues, wherein schools situated in low socioeconomic areas may not have access to the same technological innovations, or other important resources as those schools situated in affluent areas. It is salient to my study to understand that most of the low SES schools serve racial and ethnic minority students.

Despite the presence of 110 historically Black colleges and universities, an African American president, and many other advances, the state of African American education is bleak. Studies show that children of poor African Americans are plagued by low standardized test scores, over representation in special education classes, and high drop-out rates (Fryer & Levitt, 2004; Jencks & Phillips, 1998). Moreover, Ulichny (1996) points out the flip side to these statistics: African American youth, along with Hispanic and Native American youth are "underrepresented in profiles of positive academic achievement…" (p. 332). Roscigno (2000) found in a study of African American and Hispanic students that "Family income, parental education, parental structure, and number of siblings explain not only general achievement, but a substantial portion of contemporary racial achievement differences" (p. 267). This is exacerbated by high suspension and dropout rates. He also stated that despite the upward trend in economic opportunity for these two groups, there has been a decline in educational attainment (p. 266). Access to quality schools that offer upper level academic programs such as Advanced Placement (AP), Honors, and International Baccalaureate (IB) classes is another factor to which the decline in minority students' educational achievement is attributable. There is a direct connection between these two factors. Students who attend schools that serve communities of high SES receive the quality of education that facilitates greater educational attainment as measured by higher test scores and higher grade point averages.

In the Miami Dade County Public School System, it is understood, but not politically correct to mention, that the quality of the education to be had at low SES schools such as Booker T. Washington and Miami Edison Senior High does not measure

up to the standards of the education at Miami Palmetto and Coral Gables high schools. This quality is often perceived through the number of Advanced Placement classes offered and the annual grades awarded the schools by the state of Florida. There is a large presence of SWHLIHC in schools like Miami Edison which seldom achieves the standards attained at schools like Coral Gables that serve students from high SES backgrounds.

As reported by the Florida Department of Education's Bureau of School Improvement, the U.S. Department of Education (2004) has identified schools in Florida that they consider to belong to the group "schools with greatest need," or "persistently lowest achieving." Their status is determined by looking at their Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), as stipulated by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2002 (NCLB) and school grade as calculated through student performance on the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test (FCAT). These schools are referred to as DA schools, because they participate in the "Differentiated Accountability Pilot" initiative, which provides them with important technical assistance and interventions. Through this program, the Florida Department of Education (FLDOE) works directly with the schools in an attempt to increase student achievement. All 10 high schools on the DA list for the 2010-2011 school year are schools that serve predominantly racial/ethnic minority and poor populations. Among these schools are North Miami Beach Senior, Hialeah Miami Lakes Senior, and American Senior, all schools that serve a significant number of both African American students and SWHLIHC.

The effectiveness of the education to be had in quality schools results from a combination of factors: the residential location of the student population, school district

hiring patterns, quality of teachers, teacher turnover, parent involvement, and culturally rich curricula. Many of the schools that serve SWHLIHC are deficient in these qualities. This, coupled with effects of tracking, and issues of learned failure and learned helplessness, places these students in a seemingly permanent state of "otherness." Over time, and after a series of failures, some students develop defense mechanisms, or a strategy to deal with their shortcomings. They develop "cognitive, emotional, and motivational" deficits that diminish their desire to succeed (Elliott & Dweck, 1998; Seligman, 1990). One of the conditions of this otherness is that their parents do not interact with schools enough to be aware of their children's success or lack thereof. They prefer to leave the school to do its job (Felix-Marcelin, 2000, Ngana-Mundeke, 1999). The students themselves experience prejudice at school and are ridiculed because of other students' perceptions of Haitian cultural practices (Hao & Bonstead-Bruns 1998; Stepick, Stepick, Eugene, Teed, & Labissiere, 2001).

Research has shown that in one presently important area—achievement tests—some African American students, like most other groups, are showing an improvement in performance. However, there is still a recorded difference between their scores and those of Anglo students (Campbell, 2009; Lehman, 2003; Sublett, 2004). According to Jones, Jones, and Hargrove (2003), even though the federal government is increasing funding in an effort to bring racial/ethnic minority achievement up to the level of their counterparts, "data from the 2001 Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) show a continued gap in the achievement between minority students and their White peers, even though SAT averages rose for students of almost every race between 1991 and 2001" (p. 214). The present study sought to examine whether or not SWHLIHC are among the minority groups

experiencing such low academic success rates, or if they are faring better than the group with which they are most closely aligned, African Americans.

For the most part, SWHLIHC share similar characteristics with students that Natriello, McDill, and Pallas (1990) describe as educationally disadvantaged. They are categorized as disadvantaged because among other things, they typically attend a Title I school, they are from neighborhoods that are peopled by a majority of constituents considered to be from low SES living situations of below average income and high unemployment, and because most of their families consist of parents who came from Haiti. This Caribbean island is the poorest country in the Western hemisphere, a country where a mere 3%–5% of the country's grade school-aged children enjoy the privilege of attending school. Over 50% of Haiti's population is illiterate (Laguerre, 1998). It is obvious that specific attention must be paid to students like SWHLIHC who are categorized as disadvantaged, if schools expect to be successful in educating them equitably.

Along with mathematics, science, and reading, success in English language arts is one of the first aspects of a student's educational achievement to be scrutinized when United States' agencies evaluate the effectiveness of a school's curriculum. The focus on English language arts ability is probably so because language is our first introduction to the world; people make judgments, adapt attitudes, and make decisions based upon one's real and perceived fluency with English. In the State of Florida, as in New York and California, students have to earn passing scores on the state-mandated test in order to graduate from high school. In Florida this test is the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test (FCAT). English is the only subject area that has two FCAT tests: Schools

administer a Reading and a Writing test. The tests are graded separately, but these two components are both critical skills, that up until recent years have been taught together under the umbrella of Language Arts in elementary and junior high schools, and English in high schools. The recent move of many states to evaluate school performance through student performance on state-mandated tests has caused Florida schools to address Reading and Writing separately. One can presume that school districts are attempting to utilize teacher expertise to ensure maximum achievement for students who sit for the exams. Instead of the original status quo of relying on the English teacher to develop all the areas in which students need to be adept to perform well on the FCAT test, districts allocate the different aspects to reading and writing "experts."

In high school, it is especially important for students to master high school English, which usually addresses reading and writing, not only because this mastery is paramount to their ability to craft a sophisticated college application letter, which opens the door to the next level of their education—college—but also because they need English skills to pass the FCAT. The FCAT test is important to all Florida students from elementary to high school. But in the 10th grade of high school this test is even more important; because if students meet all other graduation requirements, but do not pass any section of this test, they cannot graduate with a standard high school diploma.

This demand for English proficiency is evidenced by the effort that seniors are encouraged to put into the composing, editing, and revising of the very important college essay. Some universities, such as the University of Central Florida, even ask students to submit two essays as part of their application packets. Facility in the English Language is a skill that facilitates student access to and success in all other subjects. Success in this

subject for all students, even those who begin with a second language disadvantage, is

paramount for all high school English Language Arts teachers. English teachers are faced

with the task of instructing all students in a manner that will facilitate equal access to the

opportunity to be successful at the prescribed English curriculum. But this is not an easy

task. Because American public schools are charged with educating all, they are a constant

in the lives of disadvantaged students. As Noguera (2003) puts it:

> They are neighborhood constants, not because they succeed in carrying out their
>
> mission or because they satisfy the needs of those they serve, but because they
>
> have a relatively stable source of funding ensured by the legal mandate to educate
>
> children. (p. 6)

When parents enroll new students into the Miami Dade County Public School

System, they are given the Home Language Survey to complete. This survey asks three

questions: (a) Is a language other than English used in the home? (b) Did the student have

a first language other than English? (c) Does the student most frequently speak a

language other than English? If the parent answers yes to at least one of these questions,

the student is tested for ESOL. The problem with this is that not all Haitian parents are

willing to reveal what might be considered to be a blot on their child's records if they say

that the home language is anything other than "normal" in American society. Haitian

parents do not always feel that they have control in their interactions with their children's

schools (Felix-Marcelin, 2000; Sontag, 1993). In response to their perceptions of societal

norms, some parents might try to "elevate" their child's status by concealing the home

language situation from school authorities. So some students who might need the ESOL

program would miss the opportunity. Only those whose parents understand the ramifications of giving the correct information would be adequately placed.

So when SWHLIHC have access to education, the problem is that this education does not always facilitate the academic success their parents expect them to achieve in school. In his study, Noguera (2004) stated that parents of low-income families he interviewed did not complain about the services offered by the public schools their children attend; they were instead grateful for the "safety" of these schools and the fact that children received at least one free meal there (p. 5). So even though students might complain about the texts they have to read in their English classes, most poor parents aren't listening, and neither administrators nor many teachers are willing to take on the daunting task of expanding the canon. And the canon still dominates the English curriculum of the public school system in Miami Dade. This canon, the group of books that readers and critics through the generations have deemed to be great, worthy to be read by scholars and intellectuals, has often been criticized as representing one main group: dead White males (Horwedel, 2007; Lochte, 2006; Robbins, 2009). If this is the case, then students such as SWHLIHC, who often cannot identify with the subject matter of these works are being done a disservice by their school districts that purchase these books.

The 2010 adoption for the English Language Arts departments of Miami Dade County Public Schools shows massive improvements in diversifying the authors included in the collection; but, SWHLIHC have to look to African American authors like Zora Neale Hurston and Langston Hughes for characters with whom they can identify culturally. Despite the achievements of prominent Caribbean authors such as Antiguan,

Jamaica Kincaid; Barbadian, Frank Collymore; Jamaican, Claude McKay; or Haitian-American, Edwidge Danticat, curriculum developers and textbook publishers still do not deem their work as worthy as that of Mark Twain, Nathaniel Hawthorne, or Willa Cather.

The Miami Dade County Public Schools System is the largest school district in Florida, and the fourth largest school system in the United States. It currently serves over 341,000 students. The district, in its effort to align the curricula of all its schools, has created a pacing guide for each subject, at each level of schooling. This pacing guide is accessible through the school board's website, (mdcps.net). One of the first items state or district visitors to the schools are expected to check for is proof that all grade level teachers, in each subject area, are approximately at the same place on the guide. The curriculum for juniors in high school is comprised of American Literature pieces from Puritan times to the present. Most of these works are included because they are representative of the ideals of the canon: high culture, upper level diction. These ideals are more evident in the works of authors such as Hawthorne than that of Danticat. Given the title of the course, and given the diverse nature of the American people, one would think that the literature would be more representative of this diversity. It has a long way to go before SWHLIHC will be able to recognize any character, theme, or setting that really resembles those of their cultural heritage. According to Smolicz (1996) "since schools are in their essence ideological agencies, the educational programs that they adopt will reveal the ideological orientation that is accepted at the time as the basis for the development of society" (p. 68). In English class, students not only learn language, but ideology and the world views of those who conquered and who rule. The ideology

being forwarded by the present high school English curriculum is that of the dominant culture, White Anglo-Saxon, mostly male.

Another issue is the fact that works in American Literature class are presented in a chronological order; English III lines up with the events in the students' American History class, which is also given at this level. The pieces in the class text, therefore, begin at a time in American history that in no way aligns with the local history recounted at home to these students. It largely overlooks slavery, genocide of Native Americans, colonization in the Caribbean, and similar events. The first major work in the English III guide is *The Crucible*, a 1950s Arthur Miller play, about a 1692 Puritan event. Even though one of the major themes in this work is witchcraft, the antics of the alleged witches are in no way similar to Haitian voodoo stories SWHLIHC hear from their parents.

Another recommended major work in American Literature class is Twain's *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*. SWHLIHC have a hard time identifying with runaway slaves, life on a river, or wandering con artists. Also, the dialect of the characters present major roadblocks for the teacher attempting to explain the importance of a social commentary from the 1800s. Even though the current pacing guide has attempted currency by including a variety of small works by minority authors like Sandra Cisneros, Maya Angelou, and Langston Hughes, and suggests one major work by a minority author, it still falls short in representation. Many of this researcher's colleagues, high school English teachers, usually stick to the main works, and feel like the other options are for teachers who want to "water down" the curriculum.

The one major work by a minority author that is recommended can in itself pose a problem for SWHLIHC. The novel is Zora Nealle Hurston's *Their Eyes Were Watching God*. Even though students find it interesting that the novel is set in Florida, and that some of the characters might bear a slight resemblance to characters with whom they are familiar, most of them are from so insular a social environment that they don't even recognize the settings of Eatonville, St. Petersburg, or Maitland as places in Florida. The African American dialect in the novel presents another stumbling block for students who already have their parents' and their peers' dialects to sort through. To many SWHLIHC, African American English is not their home language and generally it is spoken, not read. Despite the availability of diverse works, many teachers will continue to teach the works with which they are more familiar. And SWHLIHC will remain mired in low test scores and below average GPAs of White students.

Statement of the Problem

The lack of success of minority students in high school has been addressed in a number of studies (Malveaux, 1997; Roscigno, 2000; Spears-Bunton & Powell, 2009). In Miami Dade County Public Schools System, success is measured on the basis of how well students perform on The Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test, how high their GPAs are, their promotion to the next grade, and on their readiness to graduate from high school. A combination of language issues, poor schools, and the lack of cohesion between the content of the curriculum and the real world experiences of SWHLIHC might be related to this group's low success level. An understanding of the learning situation of this group and of the English curriculum innovations related in the literature review may result in an elevation of the group's success rate.

Purpose of the Study

      This study analyzes and reports how the English III academic success of students whose home language Is Haitian Creole: English III success rate, promotion to English IV and FCAT scores compare to the academic success of their peer group African American high school students in the same subject, American Literature. The English III curriculum is focused on American Literature: poems, essays, novels, plays that illustrate the American way of life, but SWHLIHC may not recognize their cultural heritage in most of these works. This lack of representation often result in a disconnect that is not conducive to academic success (Delpit, 1995; Jencks & Phillips, 1998; Spears Bunton, 2000; Spears-Bunton & Powell, 2009). The present study specifically focuses on the performance of SWHLIHC because this is an important group, especially in Miami Dade County Public Schools System where approximately 25% of the minority student population is Black Non-Hispanic, and Haitian Creole is second on the list of top ten languages (other than English) used by students as their primary language. Further, research shows that minority students are having major problems with academic success (Applebee, 1996; Banks, 1996; Delpit, 1995; Jencks & Phillips, 1998). Research findings could be crucial in creating innovations that will enhance academic success for this group, and eventually other minority groups as well. Findings from the study may yield information that could be useful in supporting academic success for SWHLIHC.

Research Questions

Three general research questions and six sub questions drove this study:

General Research Question 1. Is there a significant difference between the mean 10th grade reading FCAT scores of African American English III students and those of Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole?

Sub Question 1a. Is there a significant difference between the mean 10th grade reading FCAT scores of African American Students and that of Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole, when controlling for gender?

Sub Question 1b. Is there a significant difference between the mean 10th grade reading FCAT scores of African American Students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole, when controlling for ESOL status?

Sub Question 1c. Is there a significant difference in the percentage of African American students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole who passed or failed the reading FCAT?

General Research Question 2. Is there a significant difference between the English Language Arts grade of African American Students and that of Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole?

Sub Question 2a. Is there a significant difference between the English Language Arts GPA of African American Students and that of Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole when controlling for gender?

Sub Question 2b. Is there a significant difference in the percentage of African American students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole who are successful, where success is defined as an English Language Arts grade of 2.5 or above?

General Research Question 3. Is there a significant difference between African American Students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole in the percentage of 11th grade students who are promoted to English IV, 12th grade?

Sub Question 3a. Is there a significant difference between African American Students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole in the percentage of 11th grade students who are promoted to English IV, 12th grade, when controlling for gender?

Operational Definitions

*Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole (*SWHLIHC). High school students who were born in the United States and who reside in homes where Haitian Creole is the home language. In addition, SWHLIHC comprises a subgroup within the group African American students.

African American—Black person of African descent born in America.

African American High School Students—Students born in the United States to an African American parent or parents.

Academic Success—Performance demonstrates that the student has achieved proficiency in the subject matter. In this study, academic success was measured by promotion to the next grade level; achieving a passing score on the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test, FCAT (i.e., 3 of 5 points), and achieving English III grade of A or B.

Hesu Partnering—A basically Caribbean undertaking in which a group of between 15–30 people entrusts a "banker" with a set amount of money on a weekly or biweekly basis. One person each period receives all the money until all have had a turn.

This is a means for book, furniture, clothing, purchases; school fee payments; and even down payments on homes.

Rotating Credit—An arrangement between shopkeepers and their customers, wherein families are "credited" groceries as needed and the grocer receives payment when the customers—usually the father—gets paid.

Delimitations

A delimitation of this study is the fact that it was conducted in a specific demographic area, Miami Dade County, Florida. Miami Dade County is located in the southeastern part of the state of Florida. The county is highly urbanized with a population of 2,554,766 (2011 census). According to the 2010 census, 50.9% of the county's residents were born outside the United States, and 67.90% speak a language other than English at home.

Significance of the Study

McDermott (1987) reports that, instead of analyzing the ways in which schools fail minority students, society queries the shortcomings of failing students and their families. An important focus that might reveal valuable information for the Miami Dade County school district, is the academic performance of SWHLIHC in English III/American Literature classes. One might suppose that it would be worthwhile for the school district to understand whether or not SWHLIHC children who go to school with other English speakers, live in neighborhoods surrounded by other people who speak English, and interact on a day-to-day basis with people who are adept at communicating in English are as successful as their peers.

There is a dearth of research that is focused specifically on the academic achievement of Haitian Americans; there is even less on students whose home language is Haitian Creole. Schmid (2001) states that studies of the new generation of second-generation immigrants "provide essential information on theoretical issues, including the role of family status, family expectations, race and ethnicity, and English-language ability on individual performance" (p. 71). Thus, the present study examines these issues in an effort to further the understanding of the roles they play in the education success of SWHLIHC.

The paucity of research on students of Haitian descent makes a case for particular relevance of this study of academic success among SWHLIHC. Since most studies place Haitian Americans under the umbrella of African Americans (Seidman, 1991; Zephir 2004), SWHLIHC fall into one of the groups that has become a major concern to researchers troubled with the state of America's education (Lehman, 2003). There are a number of factors that contribute to the concern of the researcher for the educational success of the focus group: (a) their in-between situation, (b) the regional concern, and (c) the tendency to lump all poor people of color together sans consideration of cultural, historical, social, and linguistic differences. Any study that seeks to enlighten the community on this issue should be a commendable effort on the part of the researcher.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

I look to the diffusion of light and education as the resource most to be

relied on for ameliorating the conditions, promoting the virtue, and

advancing the happiness of man. (Jefferson, 1822)

How can schools that Students Whose Home Language is Haitian Creole

(SWHLIHC) attend facilitate their educational success? The literature shows that from

their place between other ethnic minorities from the Caribbean and African Americans,

these students, who are quite often second-generation Haitian-American high school

students are usually lumped in with African American students and thus do not receive

attention to their specific needs (Gray, Rolph, & Melamis, 1996; Nicholas, 2008 Portes &

MacLeod, 1996; Portes & Stepick, 1993). Although the parents of these students are from

an island in the Caribbean just like English-speaking Jamaicans, Barbadians, and

Bahamians, Haitians have a second language issue which often poses a disadvantage not

experienced by most other immigrants from the same region. Language differences along

with the fact that Haitian communities are usually located alongside, around, or amid

low-income African American communities, serve to place SWHLIHC at a unique

disadvantage for academic success.

The focus of this study was the examination of the overall academic success of

SWHLIHC in their junior year, specifically in English III/American Literature classes. A

student has achieved academic success in his or her high school junior year if said student

has been fully promoted to the 12th grade, has passed all relevant sections of the Florida

Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT), and is on track to graduate in a timely manner. The study further sought to understand possible differences between these students' educational success and that of African Americans in the same course. SWHLIHC is one of the largest minority groups in the Miami Dade County Public Schools System (Portes & MacLeod, 1996; Portes & Rumbaut, 2001; Portes & Stepick, 1993); educating these children appropriately should be a concern of the education system that serves them.

This review is divided into four sections: (a) Sociology and schooling of second-generation Haitian-American high school students, (b) The history of immigrant education in America, (c) The high school English curriculum in America and (d) Theories in English learning. In this way, the goals for this study—the manner in which schools can better serve the educational needs of students of color generally, and SWHLIHC specifically—will be established.

Sociology and Schooling of Haitian-American High School Students

In "Complicating the Immigrant/Involuntary Minority Typology" (Gibson, 1997) asserts that second-generation students experience more problems in the education setting than other students (p. 435). That is, they do not perform as well on standardized tests, their GPAs are lower, and their success rates in English classes are not on par. Research findings of (Driscoll, 1999) indicate that students' socioeconomic status (SES) maintains a positive relationship with their educational outcomes. They indicate that factors such as "family resources" and "parental human capital" figure greatly in calculating students' educational achievements (p. 859). For the most part, the Haitian immigrants' socioeconomic status places them in the same locale as very poor African Americans. Portes and MacLeod (1996) explain that the "disadvantaged" reception and the slow

progress that results from such adverse conditions are very much visible in the living situations in these neighborhoods. The Dade County neighborhood with the largest population of Haitian immigrants is situated next to one of its largest inner-city ghettos, Liberty City (Portes & MacLeod, 1996, p. 259). The implication of this situation is that the schools that most of these students attend are those that serve inner city or lower- to lower-middle class neighborhoods.

Brantlinger (1990) documents that schools that serve students from a low SES background offer these students fewer positive school experiences than those schools that serve the children of the affluent (citing Jencks, 1972; Ogbu, 1999). For example, schools that have a large population of students from low SES have insufficient technological services, less efficient services, and have a more difficult time retaining effective teachers. In Miami Dade County, two of these schools that serve low-income students are Miami Edison and North Miami Senior High Schools. According to the school grades posted by the State of Florida, both of these schools have performed at either a D or an F level for the past 5 years. Similar situations exist in most of the area schools that serve the second-generation Haitian-American high school student. Chenoweth (2009) writes that "It has become almost a truism that high-poverty, high-minority schools are low achieving, and that even in diverse schools most poor children and children of color are doomed to low achievement" (p. 22)

Chapelle (2010) lists the six Miami Dade County high schools that made the *Florida Monthly* magazine's selection of top schools in Florida. None of these top rated schools serve a predominantly African-American population. In addition, these schools are predominantly magnet, offering specialized programs for which students have to

compete on the basis of GPA, talent, and FCAT scores to be admitted. These specifications make it harder for African Americans to gain access. Since SWHLIHC are categorized as African Americans, they too are not able to take advantage of the services offered at these innovative schools.

Darling-Hammond (1997) observed that seeking to ensure that the present diverse population has access to a high level of education and skills is taxing on an educational system that was designed over 100 years ago with different objectives than are required to fit this population. She also states that schools are further faced with social and economic challenges just being recognized by other institutions (p. 27). Numerous social factors affecting the functioning of America's schools have been examined by Gibson (1997). In her analysis of the political and social processes of the education system, Gibson observes that we have a "legacy of coercive power relations that leads to persistent problems in school for minority students," and that this, therefore, results in the perpetuation of the same inequalities that the minority student experiences in society as a whole (p. 446). In a report commissioned by the RAND foundation, Gray et al. (1996) discuss the low income status of many immigrants, and the barriers created by the social discontinuity they face. These authors observed that this discontinuity resulted in difficulties for the immigrant communities when it came to access to education in the United States (p. 25). Parents may assume that their cultural values would stand them well when they have to interact with their new communities and may be bewildered when they discover the cultural chasms that sometimes block the path to successfully educating their children. It becomes a monumental task for parents and other concerned parties to help students overcome this resistance. Many researchers have examined this issue and

made recommendations on efforts to alleviate the problem (Astone & McLanahan, 1991; Darling-Hammond 1997; Looker, 1994).

Ogbu (2003) suggests that anyone who is really interested in eliminating the achievement gap between Whites and minorities should address the community forces that minority students have to contend with (p. vii). Noguera (2004) argues that too often the immigrant's cultural capital of good work ethics and what is perceived to be docile behavior gives the impression that the immigrant population is lacking in intelligence (p. 182). This impression can cause communities to resist a smooth transition for immigrant families in that parents might be dissuaded from renting in certain neighborhoods or buildings, or be denied employment by certain businesses. In addition, the children might be ridiculed by teachers and peers at school. According to Noguera (2004), immigrants and their children, therefore, are expected to work towards assimilating the American culture to the detriment of losing themselves in the American way in order to move up and achieve "social progress" (p. 180). Noguera (2004) suggests that because immigrant parents and their children understand the importance of English language acquisition, they may not resist this push for them to abandon many aspects of their culture in order to eventually gain access to their portion of the American Dream.

Earning Their Keep: History of African American Education

Many researchers recognize that one of the most common reasons for migration anywhere is parents seeking to provide their children with educational opportunities that they themselves did not have in their home country (Gibson, 1997; Hones & Cha, 1999; Nicholas, 2010; Perreira, Harris, & Lee, 2006). The education of second-generation Haitian Americans is not distinguished from the education of African Americans in the

research, so researchers must examine the state of African American education in order to get an idea of the state of second-generation Haitian-Americans' education.

Throughout history, African Americans have been noted as receiving substandard education in comparison to the education received by the children of the dominant culture (Archer & Francis, 2007; Bartlett, McKinley, & Brayboy, 2005; Brantlinger, 1990). Despite the dangers of being found out, Blacks formed secret groups to try to educate each other during slavery. Even with the knowledge that "Black codes" promised fines and imprisonment to anyone who attempted to educate Blacks, concerned White people and abolitionists helped. After the Civil War, the "Reconstruction" movement, which lasted about 10 years, proclaimed a facilitation of freedom and equality for African Americans. This did not last long however, as the violence perpetrated by former slave owners and White supremacists toppled all efforts to give slaves equal access to education or other basic rights. Still, African Americans sought to better themselves through education. Two names from the era stand out in connection to African Americans and education: Booker T. Washington, who espoused "a practical education for young African Americans" and W. E. B. Du Bois, who disagreed with this perspective. Du Bois felt that "focusing on industrial education would mire Blacks in mediocrity, stripping them of their potential" ("Industrial Education"). These two great leaders had different philosophies on Black social and economic progress, but the foundations of both their perspectives focused on the importance of educating African Americans.

After the Supreme Court ruled in the 1896 case of *Plessy v. Ferguson* that separate but equal education system was lawful, African American children were subjected to 60 years of systemic substandard education. The landmark case brought by

the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) that put an end to this segregation was *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*. This time, the court ruled that separate cannot be equal and that it did harm to Black children; therefore, segregating schools is unconstitutional. This case did not eradicate segregation, however. Many of the schools that serve Black students continue to be below the standards of those that serve a majority of White students. But, Affirmative Action, which resulted from The Civil Rights Act of 1964, has helped to somewhat level the opportunities. Unger (2007) states that, "By 2002, about 89% of all African-American students were graduating from high school—below the 92.7% rate for White students, but significantly higher than the 59.6% black graduation rate two decades earlier" (p. 1).

According to Woodward and Henson (2003), educated and skilled African Americans experienced an upward swing in their socioeconomic status toward the end of the 20th century, partially due to increased access, World War I, World War II, and migration. However, research shows that there still is a significant gap between the educational success of this group and their Caucasian counterparts (Ogbu, 2003). One measure that attempts to bring all students to the same place is President George Bush's No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. The language of this policy includes terms like "all children" and "significant opportunity," "high-quality education," and "proficiency." In addition to providing billions of dollars in aid to public education, it lauds the use of scientific evidence as a deciding factor in the decision-making process of implementing new educational policies (Linn, 2005). Not all students can visualize the proper means to achieve this vision, however. One of the major effects of the act on most of Miami Dade County's public schools is that, from August to March the teachers in the Language Arts,

Mathematics, and now the Science departments are run frantic preparing packets, tutoring schedules, incentives, and unending data to facilitate student success on the FCAT.

Carter, Hawkins, and Natesan (2007) reported that "on an average [between 1971 and 1999] 17-year-old African American students scored 36-points lower than European American students in reading, while over the years 1973-1999, they scored 30-points lower on assessments of mathematics achievement." What these statistics imply is that the frenzy that results from preparing for these tests is not proving to be beneficial to African-American students, and by default, not to SWHLIHC either.

Most of the jobs available to early immigrants and African Americans did not require them to be highly educated. They grabbed whatever positions they could get; as long as it paid for food and the roofs over their heads. In 1964, many Black porters held college degrees. Thus, an education for them did not translate into good paying jobs. Times have changed, however, and today's job market demands much more skilled workers. Education is more important for the second-generation American than it was for his or her parents.

Through the years, there has been a noted difference in the treatment of White and Black immigrants. In Miami Dade County, this difference is always a part of many discussions that arise about the perceived differences in the treatments received by immigrants from Haiti and those from Cuba. Many early immigrants for whom English was not the language spoken in the home had a more difficult time fitting into society and surviving in the school system. They had to fight hard so that their needs would be recognized and addressed. Some initiatives that assisted them in these struggles are Title VII of The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Bilingual Education Act); The

Transitional Bilingual Education Act in 1971; The Equal Education Opportunity Act of 1974; The Chacon-Moscone Bilingual act of 1976, and the case of *Lau v. Nichols* (1974). All of these initiatives have helped make access to education and educational services easier for immigrants and their children who speak languages other than English. Despite these advances, SWHLIHC are not as successful academically as some other ethnicities.

Various researchers have documented the success of first- and second-generation Asian American students (Chen & Stevenson, 1995; Chow, 2000; Harris, Jamison, & Trujillo, 2008; Mizokakawa & Ryckman, 1990), but other immigrants and their children also value education. Because they are aware of constraints like language, SES, and finances, many immigrants take advantage of the fact that schooling in America is veritably free. Gibson (1997) and Ogbu (1991) claim that many immigrant parents come from countries where education beyond the secondary school level is very costly; so they are happy that they do not have to pay to send their children to school. They may view whatever hardships their children face as small penance for the hope of a better future (p. 48). Immigrants, African Americans, and other disenfranchised groups saw education as a passport to the American dream, away from the hard labors of the plantations, factories, or labor camps in which they worked. Immigrants too seek to use education as a key that would help them gain access to equal rights in America. They naturally believe that their American-born children should have access to much better educational opportunities than they had. Coming from a country with a huge adult illiteracy rate, Haitian-American parents see all the opportunities being presented to students in their new home country and they expect that their children will be able to take advantage of all their prospects.

They may not anticipate that *their* children will have any more barriers than other students.

The High School English Curriculum in America

One of the barriers SWHLIHC face in high school is the English curriculum. There is so much information to impart in schools; there are so many people who have contributed to making this great nation that it makes the job of curriculum planners critically important when they decide on whose "truths" to include and whose to omit. This conundrum is the focus of Martin's 2002 work. Martin argues that the accumulation of information over the years has exposed a paradox in shrinking resources and increasing sources that inform curriculum, thus, adding to the complexity of practice. Martin explains that

> Within each discipline there are also now dozens and dozens of perspectives. In addition, researchers have begun to find out about the works, experiences, practices, and achievements of people who have always been a part of society, but have never quite been acknowledged as members of culture. (p. 8)

In attempting a definition of cultural wealth, the author refers to Adam Smith's revolutionary act of including in the definition of a nation's economic wealth, the goods that all people consume (Martin, 2002, p. 12). Martin explains that society has been disillusioned into believing that the most valuable aspects of our culture are "high" culture and "higher" learning, to the exclusion of anything that they can equate to "basket weaving." But, she points out the broadest definition of culture "encompasses the institutions and practices, rites and rituals, beliefs and skills, attitudes and values,

worldviews and localized modes of thinking and acting of *all* members of society over the whole range of contexts" (Martin, 2002, p, 12).

Martin (2002) discusses cultural assets like artistic and scholarly products, and cultural liabilities like slavery and poverty. She claims that if educational agents do not find a way to instill theses valuable assets in our students while educating them about the liabilities in such a way as to prevent these liabilities from becoming legacies, the new generations will be culturally bankrupt (p. 66). She avers that students should be taught to place high value in their cultural assets, while protecting themselves from falling victims to our liabilities (p. 88).

One of the shortcomings of the current curriculum is its dogmatic focus on the English literature canon from which the major works of this curriculum are selected. This canon is extremely outdated. It is singular, presents a narrow view of the world, and omits most of the voices of others who contribute to American cultural knowledge and expression. The canon should no longer be the sole source for valuable works of literature for high school curricula. It has served the purpose for which it was intended in the early 1900s. In the classrooms of the 21st century, it lacks currency. There is no basis for its dominance of the present English curriculum as today's student readers are experiencing a different type of culture. They have a variety of identities and come from diverse backgrounds. The outdated teaching and learning of the past is not as relevant in today's classroom. There is chronological, social, cultural, and linguistic distance between canonical texts and today's readers.

Early on English education's role was to moralize the American people and transfer "culture." Applebee (1974) lists the first three mass produced educational texts to

be *The McGuffey Readers, The New England Primer,* and *Webster's Grammatical Institute.* All three of these works are grounded in morality and character building, and serve to further develop Americanness. Even so, English Literature as a subject did not come into being until 1873 when administrators at Harvard decided that the college entrance exam could be enhanced by the addition of a prompt that required entrants to write a response to a common piece of literature (Applebee, 1974). This move quickly caught on, and the area of study materialized, as schools, businesses, and politicians realized that they needed to prepare students to perform well on the entrance exams for colleges.

Another school of thought was that education should not just be for the college bound, but that the high school curriculum should be constructed so as to serve all students. This action resulted in a confusion of subjects being offered by schools at varying time spans and acerbated the already negative reactions people had towards secondary education in the late 19th century. In 1892, the National Education Association (NEA) responded by forming the Committee of Ten, whose job it was to ensure that all the schools offered "education for life." They recommended that high schools offer the same subjects for the same duration of time. They decided that the study of English as a school subject should be made equal to that of other subjects, and that it be taught in high schools for all four years of study. Further, they stipulated that the study of English should consist of literature, expression of thought, rhetoric, and grammar, and should be closely aligned with the study of other subjects (NEA, 1894). With this stipulation, the committee established a purpose for the teaching of English in the high school. They were successful. Gere et al. (1992) perceives six goals to have been carried forward into

the English curriculum of the 20th century: (a) to improve morality, (b) to prepare good workers, (c) to create elite, (d) to produce good citizens, (e) to foster personal growth, and (f) to offset inequity (p. 24).

As time and the American population change so too do the demands being made on high school English curriculum. Technological advances, America's changing demographics, along with the diversity of the school population demand that the curriculum fast forward to the 21st century, and align itself with the needs of this century's students. It must set out to provide knowledge about, and experience with America's cultural, artistic, and literary traditions. SWHLIHC demand a different focus from the curriculum being administered in today's classroom. The literacy needs of these students are far more expansive than the needs of students who attended school in the time of the Committee of Ten. Literacy used to be the ability to sign one's name; during the Industrial Revolution, it meant possessing the ability to read and comprehend factory manuals. Then in the 1930s being literate meant that one had completed at least 3 years of high school; this increased to 5 years at the end of WWII. Now, in the early 21st century, to be considered literate one must have obtained a high school diploma, and some post secondary education. Literacy also meant to speak a certain way.

Now "literacy" includes digital literacy, numeracy, and adaptability. But research has shown that even though our standings have improved, America is lagging behind other industrialized nations when it comes to literacy. In 2003, the United States ranked fifth out of six countries surveyed on literacy and life skills. This implies that increased efforts are required to aide America's students to raise their literacy levels. SWHLIHC is one important group of students who need this increased focus. Learners have to practice

to improve, and many of these students are from poor families, where there are not many opportunities to acquire school learning at home and to practice it at school. And the number of children of the poor seems to be increasing.

In their 1999 report, *Reaching The Top: A Report of the National Task Force on Minority High Achievement,* The College Board made recommendations for strategies that different groups in society could implement in order to "effectively increase the number of underrepresented minority students who achieve at very high levels academically" (p. v). This report predicts that by the year 2015 there will be a large increase in the number of African-American youth, but, despite the positive factor of more of them having parents with a college degree, they, along with Latinos will make up the majority of low SES students (p. 11). Clearly, the needs of this group of students should be considered worthy of address. The report makes recommendations for improvement strategies to parents, educators, and government agencies among others. In addition, there are many theories of English learning that schools can adapt in an attempt to enable academic success for students like SWHLIHC.

Theories of English Learning

It is imperative that the educational community recognize the academic disengagement of minority students in the public schools, and take steps to align the various subject area curriculums so as to alleviate the academic marginalization presently being experienced by these students. The theories addressed in this section offer pedagogies of teaching that can guide teachers, administrators and others involved in the business of curriculum planning to empower underserved students with academic skills

and tools of literacy that will help them to become fully functional, successful members of their communities. There are "best practices" that can be applied to further this agenda.

As is the case in all fields of study, there is a plethora of theories that could be addressed in discussing the best practices of the field. Given the nature of the issue being addressed in this study, this researcher considers the Reader Response Theory and Critical Literacy to be two of the most sound in the field of English, and the most applicable for this study that seeks the best ways to serve SWHLIHC in this subject.

Reader response theory: Reader-Teacher-Text. The traditional idea of teaching literature addresses it as a body of work that the teacher must transmit to the student. The onus is on the teacher to ensure that students "get" the meaning recorded in the text, and students to get or guess what it is. Reader response theory postulates that meaning evolves as there is transaction between the reader and the text. This theory states that the meaning is different for each reader, determined by each individual's interactional situation and past experiences. The theory holds that true meaning is created in the mind of the reader and not solely that of the author of the text.

Rosenblatt's perspective. Rosenblatt's seminal work on reader response theory first published in 1938 begins "In a turbulent age, our schools and colleges must prepare the student to meet unprecedented and unpredictable problem" (Rosenblatt, 1985, p. 3). Despite the fact that this statement was first made over 60 years ago, it reads like it was made at just this moment. Reader Response Theory advocates giving students the opportunity to become involved in the literature experience. They create and explore their own knowledge as they engage the world of the text. Rosenblatt states that "students need

to understand the nature of the diverse literary forms—the lyric, the epic, the novel, the essay, the drama—"(p. 47). Rosenblatt details what happens when someone reads:

> The reader, drawing on past linguistic and life experience, links the signs on the page with certain words, certain concepts, certain sensuous experiences, certain images of things, people, actions, scenes. The special meanings and, more particularly, the submerged associations that these words and images have for the individual reader will largely determine what the work communicates to him. (Rosenblatt, 1085, p. 30)

She believes that this experience is even more important to adolescents; because, they are still developing their own view of life and the world. According to Rosenblatt (1985), the writing that the student does should be as a result of the reading, and that it should be creative (p. 48). She argues that students should examine their own personal responses to literature, and through this examination, develop a perspective crucial in creating a substantial response (p. 102). Rosenblatt (1985) believes that in seeking understanding of his own interaction with and response to the literature, the student might be impelled to investigate literary techniques and forms, and to seek out other types of knowledge—literary and social history, biography, philosophy, psychology, anthropology—that may deepen his understanding of the work (p. 117).

Addressing the question "How can students be helped to achieve literary experiences of higher and higher quality? Rosenblatt (1985) claims that adolescents need to be exposed to literature for which they have the intellectual, emotional and experiential capacity (p. 25). She suggests that if they adopt a philosophy of teaching that is based on

a reasonable understanding of the complexities that make up the literary experience, teachers can promote in their students a more rewarding literary experience. This is especially important for SWHLIHC because in many of their cases, the reality of their lived situations is far different from those portrayed in the literature; thus the English teacher's role is poignant in this group's success. Rosenblatt (1985) further states that "the teaching of literature involves helping students handle social, psychological, and ethical concepts" (p. 103). It is important that there is a relationship between SWHLIHC and teachers that in turn fosters an easy relationship between the student and literature. The teacher must understand that students have different personalities, and these different personalities, temperaments and backgrounds temper the students' reactions to the text (p. 50). SWHLIHC are students with different linguistic and social backgrounds from most of their fellow students. Rosenblatt (1985) recognizes that the teacher's job is more tedious in these times when the focus of most English lessons is not for enjoyment, but on what can be tested. She also emphasizes that the educational system, though crucial, is only one of the many socioeconomic influences on the individual. Students' "family, the community, the mass media, the political climate, peer groups" all play a role (p. 172).

Following Rosenblatt, Karolides (2000) focuses on the transactional reader response theory. He states that, "During the reading activity, the reader and text mutually act on each other, each affecting and conditioning the other" (p. 5). He further describes prerequisites before the transaction between the reader and text can be enacted. They can be summarized as:

1. The text must be understandable and within the grasp of the reader.

2. The language of the text, the situation, the characters, or the issues must be ones with which the reader can identify.

3. The reader must have sufficient linguistic and experiential background to allow participation in the interaction with the text.

4. The reader must be emotionally and intellectually engaged with the text.

(Karolides, 2000, p. 6)

Explaining that despite the fact that the words on the page appear the same for all readers, Karolides (2000) argues that the individual responses are not the same. Responses are varied according to the readers' interpretation, which is turn "influenced by past experiences—or lack of them—cultural memory, current circumstances, regional origins and upbringing, gender, age, and past and present reading" (p. 6). He also discusses the fact that social and cultural contextual differences affect the meaning readers derive from their interactions with texts:

Involvement and interest are conditioned by perceived identity with or distance from the culture and characters, issues, and events. Markers are connected with and understood, or given scant attention and, perhaps, misunderstood. What may be a rich experience for the cultural insider may be a poor one for the outsider. Karolides, 2000, p. 8)

SWHLIHC are quite often cultural outsiders to the works read in high school English classes. Understandably they may not connect with a number of markers in the material, and will therefore not grasp enough to garner success from the learning experience. They

have not had literary experience within their cultural milieu to build upon as they approach canonical texts. It does not "speak" to them.

Curriculum as Conversation

Applebee (1996) argues that schools and colleges offer no excitement for students, and that despite the many educational reforms that have been enacted upon them, schools have remained unmoving in their educational stance, for the most part. The problem, he reasons, stems from "the ways we have thought about cultural traditions of knowing and doing, about what students should know, and how to embed that knowledge in specific curricula" (p. vii). "We must reconstrue our curriculum to focus on knowledge-in-action rather than knowledge-out-of-context." Applebee suggests that in order to make sense of their world people need tools, and that these tools are constructed from past present and future experiences. He claims that curriculum in America "strip knowledge of the contexts that give it meaning and vitality, and lead to an education that stresses knowledge-out- of-context." The present high school English curriculum does not address the SWHLIHC' cultural traditions; neither does it allow them to use the tools of their cultural traditions, like storytelling to make meaning of the knowledge they are expected to acquire.

In discussing the richness and the complicatedness of traditions of knowing and doing, Applebee (1996) asks, ""how then does the individual learn to participate without being overwhelmed by all there is to learn?" (p. 19). He answers by saying that the reader should learn by "talking about books, asking and answering appropriate questions, learning the relationships between words and symbols, participating with others in the world of stories until, eventually, he is able to participate on his own" (p. 19). Applebee

(1996) adds that the titles of books being taught today are for the most part the same titles that resulted from recommendations made by The Committee of Ten in 1892 (p. 28).

Applebee, Langer, and Nystrand (2003) examined the relationships between student literacy performances and discussion based approaches to the development of understanding in 64 middle and high school English classrooms. They found that "students whose classroom literacy experiences emphasize discussion based approaches in the context of high academic demands, internalize the knowledge and skills necessary to engage in challenging literary tasks of their own" (p. 685). They cite a variety of studies that show that students who are not mainstreamed are poorly served by classrooms in which the methods of instruction are mainly traditional methods. The authors criticize the predominant one-sided pattern of instruction that takes place in classrooms, and cite the "I-R-E (initiation, response, evaluation)" method, wherein the students work from their seats, while the teacher lectures (Applebee et al., 23003, p. 689). They postulate that these students are better served by instruction that takes their backgrounds and experiences into consideration. The authors also recommend that they be allowed to discuss their understandings of the subject matter within group settings (Applebee et al., 2003, p. 689).

There is no record that the non-mainstream SWHLIHC is being adequately served with instruction that takes their language backgrounds and or lived experiences into consideration. Haitian-American culture is not reflected anywhere in the required novels, and there is no record of efforts on the part of school districts to incorporate Haitian/Haitian-American voice into support materials. In 2010, the curriculum guide for the Dade County Public School System incorporated one work in which Haitians are

mentioned, Julia Alvarez' *In The Time of the Butterflies*. This is not even a positive

reference, as it briefly mentions the atrocities the early 20th century ruler of the

Dominican Republic, Rafael Trujillo, visited upon the Haitian people there at the time.

Thus, even in the literature of the educational institutions, the Haitian heritage is

devalued.

Applebee (1991) suggests that literature has the power to both shape the values of

the individual and to redirect the course of society as a whole (p. 228). He argues that if

this is to remain true, then the characters, settings, and authors that are selected as part of

the public school English curriculum should truthfully represent the cultures of the

student bodies that these schools serve (p. 231). He further argues that people like E. D.

Hirsch and William Bennett who have expressed concerns about such a shift, have done

so solely because they "stand firmly within a tradition that goes back to Matthew Arnold,

espousing one heritage (largely white, male, Anglo-Saxon) as the proper heritage of all

our citizens" (Applebee, 1991, p. 231). According to Applebee, even in schools with a

high minority population the works that are prominent on the curriculum have not

changed much since the turn of the century (p. 233). Thus he reasons that schools have

set out to assimilate all students to the "classical" culture, instead of attempting to

incorporate works with which the diverse school community can identify. In answer to

his self posed question, "what happens to the students who find that their lives and values

have been marginalized, if they have any place at all, in the curriculum we require them

to study?" He responds that it is clear that these students will not find role models, or be

able to associate their personal philosophies with the works of the canon. He argues that

until more of our students can do so, our schools are not meeting their needs. We are

failing them (Applebee, 1991, p. 235). If students of all cultures cannot expect that the texts they encounter in schools will empower them to be confident in themselves as people, and to help them recognize their value to society, how can educators expect them to value said texts?

Reality-Text: Readers Reading Life

Iser (1980) conceptualizes a text as a function of the process that takes place when a reader interacts with the text. He sees the text not as reality. That is, a communicative modality that tells readers something about reality. According to Iser (1980), there are two partners in the communication process; the reader and the text. The meaning of a literary text is created by each individual reader in response to gaps, or indeterminacies, in the text. Indeterminacies result from the process of the communication between the text and different readers. There is no guarantee as to what the result will be. Since the text cannot adapt itself to each reader, the results of the interaction depend on individual experiences (p. 24). Iser states that "the reader's communication with the text is a dynamic process of self-correction, as he formulates signifieds which he must then continually modify" (p. 67). The gaps in meaning in a text present opportunities to students to make sense of the interaction by filling in the gaps, to use their own imagination to create new knowledge (Iser, 1980, p. 172).

Iser (1980) does not look for meaning in the text itself; rather, he expects it to be created by the interaction between said text and the reader. The structure of the text guides, or instructs the reader's imagination in the creation of meaning. And if the readers don't have this structure, it must be created. He claims, "The image provides the filling for what the textual pattern structures but leaves out" (p. 9). In discussing the underlying

46

interaction between the reader and the author of a text, Iser suggests that the author's thoughts, recorded in the text, occupies the reader's thoughts:

> In reading, then, there are always two levels, and despite the multifarious ways in which they may be related they can never be totally kept apart. Indeed we *can* only bring another person's thoughts into our foreground if they are in some way related to the virtual background of our own. (Iser, 1980, p. 155)

From this perspective, then, there is a void in the interactions that take place between SWHLIHC and their classroom texts. If the authors give the student no thought with which he can relate, then there is no stimulation. This further suggests that for there to be meaningful interaction between a reader and text, the reader must be able to situate the ideas being expressed in the text must within his schema of experiences. And it is culturally responsive teaching which supplies the missing information. "The reader's enjoyment begins when he himself becomes productive i.e., when the text allows him to bring his own faculties into play" (Iser, 1980, p. 108).

Critical Literacy: Getting Meaning From the Text

Many writers and researchers have addressed the nature and significance of critical literacy (Gee, 1996; Giroux, 1993; Lankshear & Mc Laren, 1993; Newman & Beverstock, 1990; Spears-Bunton & Powell, 2009; Street, 1984). One of the most comprehensive definitions is one given by *The Literacy Dictionary* "the ability not only to read and write but to assess texts in order to understand the relationships between power and domination that underlie and inform them" (Harris & Hodges 1995). Examined separately, the word critical means possessing the ability to criticize and

literacy, means the possession of the knowledge and skills which enables one to function effectively as a member of a community or group. Further, critical and literate means to use these skills to further develop that community or group. Harris and Hodges (1995) imply that to possess critical literacy—the literacy which enables one to criticize lived experiences—is a really powerful tool (p. 209). Such a tool would be priceless to SWHLIHC. Critical literacy addresses how texts work. It enables the reader to analyze all aspects of the text, not just the subject matter. For students who are typically excluded and marginalized from such opportunities, to be able to wield such tools enables them to engage in the literate practice of making meaning from text. Some authors who expound on critical literacy and ways in which the tools this theory offers can help students like SWHLIHC make meaning of texts are Giroux (1983) and Gee (1996).

Literacy, Politics, and the Ideology of Difference

Giroux (1983) analyzes questions connected to present debate on the relationship between literacy, culture, and difference. His special focus in this discussion is as it relates to the restructuring of school curricula to the effect that it will focus on the needs of groups to whom schools have historically done a disservice (p. 367). The most powerful message in the essay is that "[Students] deserve an education that acknowledges its role in the preparation of critical political subjects, that prepares them to be agents capable of locating themselves in history while simultaneously being able to shape it" (p. 376). Giroux (1983) cites Clark (1991) who sees literacy as transcending mere knowledge and skill to become "an emerging act of consciousness and resistance" (p. 367). Giroux states that it is crucial to recognize that literacy is not just an epistemological issue, but that it is also political and ethical in the way it allows people to

interpret the world in relation to power and also as it relates to class, gender, race, and politics (p. 368). He suggests:

> If a politics of difference is to be fashioned in emancipatory rather than oppressive practices, literacy must be rewritten in terms that articulate differences with the principles of equality, justice, and freedom rather than with those interests supportive of hierarchies, oppression, and exploitation….literacy as an emancipator practice requires people to read, speak, and listen in the language of difference, a language in which meaning becomes multiaccentual and dispersed, and resists permanent closure. (Giroux, 1983, p. 369)

Therefore, if SWHLIHC are to be made to feel as if they have access to literacy, there must be recognizable efforts to incorporate their culture into the tools of literacy acquisition. They must be able to see themselves represented in learning situations, instead of being alienated by the very mediums that should be empowering them.

Further, Giroux (1983) states that neoconservatives view cultural or racial difference as threats to and disrespectful of the "high culture" of the West (p. 371). Additionally, he describes the tendency to view "otherness" as a threat (p. 372). He states that the culturally aware should have a positive effect on what schools do. He believes the purpose of schooling should not be to act like a museum, preserving the cultural agenda of the corporate state, to acquire more literate workers, but that schools should focus on the languages, histories and voices of the groups that the "citadels of power" have excluded and marginalized (Giroux, 1983, p. 372). Public schools should be viewed as places that endow students like SWHLIHC with "a sense of place, worth, and identity."

Such an experience would provide students with tools with which to experience their worlds. Giroux questions, the ownership of the history, story, and experience that prevails in the school setting. To this he responds:

> *Simply* stated, schools are not neutral institutions designed for providing students with work skills or with the privileged tools of culture. Instead, they are deeply implicated in forms of inclusion and exclusion that produce particular morals, truths, and values. In effect, they both produce and legitimate control differences as part of their broader project of constructing particular knowledge/power relations and producing specific notions of citizenship. (Giroux, 1983, p. 373)

Giroux (1983) argues that schools should attempt to infuse the ideas of justice and equality in the curriculum in such a way that it is recognizable to students. Schools should empower students with the skills to formulate questions about the manner in which the categories of race, class, and gender are organized within the power bases. They should also endow students with literacy that will enable them to interpret history in a way that will help them to assume power and identity. He challenges educators to realize that:

> The radical responsibility of a politics of literacy and difference necessitates an ongoing analysis by students of the contradictions in American society between the meaning of freedom, the demands of social justice, and the obligations of citizenship on the one hand, and the accumulated suffering, domination, force, and violence that permeates all aspects of everyday life on the other. (Giroux, 1983, p. 375)

He concludes by stating that students deserve to be exposed to an education which aspires to prepare them to be political subjects and capable agents who can identify themselves in history at the same time that they are shaping history (p. 376). SWHLIHC are students with a rich oral tradition: they have grown up listening to the stories their parents tell of the chaotic history of Haiti, the country of their origin. A successful student of this ethnicity could effectively serve to help the political and social conditions of Haiti, while contributing to advancing the society in which he/she lives.

Seeking Literacy That Fulfills Promises

An important new text which offers an in-depth analysis of the critical role that literacy acquisition plays in the classroom experiences of students of African descent is Spears-Bunton and Powell's 2009 book. This collection is concerned with literacy and puts forth an innovative agenda. They "argue for a literacy that helps both teachers and students to illuminate reality, that challenges systems of privilege, and that encourages us to work for change" (p. 15). These authors offer a view of literacy that promises to fulfill dreams of success for all students. They acknowledge that "The quest for literacy by persons of color has been a relentless struggle" (p. 5), and that:

> Although gains have been made, the fact remains that the education of students of color and the integration of our public schools has done little to eradicate racism and classism in our society. Thus for many, literacy has not fulfilled its promise. (Spears-Bunton & Powell, 2009, p. 4)

The authors suggest that there is a flaw in the traditional forms of literacy endorsed by schools, and that these traditions have served to "disenfranchise" students of African

descent (p. 5). They recommend that instead of asking what practices are best in trying to create literate students, the education community should also be asking questions that will provide answers about "how we perceive literacy and what we conceptualize as 'literate behavior'" (p. 5). This book suggests a way for literacy to empower the voiceless, and become a tool which enables social justice for "those whose cultural knowledge differs from White, middle/upper-class norms" (Spears-Bunton & Powell, 2009, p. 5).

In discussing the relationship between schools and literacy acquisition of minority students, the authors acknowledge that there have been gains made in recent years. However, as institutions with the mission of furthering the literacy of the dominant culture, they perceive schools to be advocating the acknowledgement of certain modes of discourse as being "more literate" than others; disregarding the intricacies of the language of minorities (Spears-Bunton & Powell, 2009, p. 6). They see this facet of schooling to be functioning as a deterrent for students who react by snubbing the dominant discourse. The authors present the view that the textbooks that are being implemented in schools seek to educate students in how to apply strategies to get correct answers and not so that they will be able to apply life lessons to literacy acquisition. They are not encouraged to explore outcomes other than that which is prescribed. Further, they recognize that the success of the teachers who have to administer these lessons are often thwarted when they attempt to incorporate more comprehensive instructional methods. One result is that many minority students perceive school literacy as useless to them in their daily lives. The authors suggest that "it is important to recognize that a belief in the neutrality of texts is an ideological assumption that denies the fact that written and oral languages are both

social and cultural expressions" (Spears-Bunton & Powell, 2009, p. 11). There are only a few sections in the 11th grade English text, where a social or cultural experience similar to that of SWHLIHC or African American, is placed in a context of importance. It is no wonder that these students who are often made to feel insignificant by the very texts that are supposed to empower them, fail and drop out of high school.

Ultimately, the authors (Spears-Bunton & Powell, 2009) recommend four roles for a new type of literacy; one that will lift the underrepresented student to expected and acceptable levels. They are:

1.   A literacy [that] acknowledges the inequities in society and the ways in which literacy has been used historically to exploit and to silence rather than to liberate and transform.

2.   A literacy [that] expands our notions of what constitutes legitimate texts for study.

3.   A literacy [that ensures that] readers are encouraged to examine the cultural assumptions implicit in all forms of communication.

4.   A literacy [that] provides students with a voice—a voice for creating, celebrating, critiquing, and constructing meaning.

This literacy of promise would provide a way for both students and teachers to transcend the pitfalls of all previously conceived literacies in schools. In this way, minority students, including SWHLIHC, would feel that their society and culture is respected, and that there is something they can do with the literacy they acquire in schools.

Discourse as a Means of Connection

The second language background of SWHLIHC is an issue in the literacy acquisition for this group. Gee (1996) looks at the study of language, learning, and literacy in their social, cultural and political contexts. The study reflects current debates across the world about education and educational reform, the nature of language and communication, and the role of sociocultural diversity in schools and society. One of the main focus in this work is "Discourse," which, according to Gee, does not only refer to dialogue, speech, conversation: Discourses, then, are "ways of behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, believing, speaking, and often reading and writing that are accepted as instantiations of particular roles (or 'types of people') by specific groups of people…" (p. viii). It is "connected stretches of language which hang together so as to make sense to some community of people." Gee speaks about conflicts that arise between the various discourses that each person possesses, and how for some people, like African-American students the conflicts prove to be more dramatic than for others. He observes that the values of many school-based discourses "treat African-American people as 'other' and their social practices as 'deviant' and 'nonstandard' " (p. ix). He postulates that:

> Both standard and non-standard dialects are marvels of human mastery. Neither is better or worse. … it is an accident of history as to which dialect gets to be taken to be standard—reversal of power and prestige in the history of the US history could have led to a form of BVE being the standard, and a concomitant need here to save from negative judgments dialects that are closer to what is currently Standard English. (Gee, 1996, p. 10)

According to the author, identity is constructed through discourse, and people are empowered when they have options to vary their style of speaking when addressing different social groups (Gee, 1996, p. 91). In this way people can identify comfortably with groups with which they come into contact. For people to communicate comfortably, they must be made to feel that their mode of discourse is just as valuable as that of the dominant culture. All groups need to understand that other groups process information and communicate understanding of various events based on their cultural and social backgrounds.

In another text the authors aver that institutions [like schools] put pressure on people to change and become the types of people who will conform to the rules of such institutions (Gee, Hull & Lankshear 1996). Such pressure presents to students like SWHLIHC the idea that they and their language are second rate, not fit to be recognized by the dominant group or perspective. This posture is not one that encourages success in the environment in which these students feel thus put upon.

According to these authors, one's "social, institutional, and cultural relationships play a much more promising role in literacy than one might have thought" (Gee et al., 1996, p. 1). The student's literacy acquisition tools come from these aspects of his/her existence. The authors further state that the learner is motivated to learn when motivated by a meaningful connection between this new learning and the learners social situation(p. 4). They claim that in this age of advanced technology, where students have constant access to new knowledge, students cannot afford to be dependent solely on "school learning" for their connections with the world. Society and schools must rearrange their original view of literacy acquisition and focus on educating the new student for the new

positions that they will have to fill in the business world. Understanding that schools in

their original format are not always fulfilling their tasks of preparing the students to be

fully capable constituents in these changing times, schools need to, as the authors put it:

> See learning and knowledge as distributed across lifetimes, social practices, social
>
> groupings, and institutions. We can and should ask how much knowledge resides
>
> in a family, an organization, a social practice, a particular technology, a
>
> community, a culture, or a nation—not just in a person's head. (Gee et al., 1996,
>
> p. 6).

The author's recommendation leads one to the conclusion that schools should consider

the purpose of learning and find ways in which to make a connection between the

discourse of students like SWHLIHC and the tools of empowerment that their education

should be developing in them, in order for them to deem that education successful.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the academic success of the Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole (SWHLIHC) in comparison to the academic success of African-American students in high school English, in an urban high school in Miami, Florida. The constant presence of a Haiti in peril, and consequently the portrayal of Haitian-American immigrants in the media, general everyday rhetoric, and many undocumented discussions in the researcher's experiences have been a determining factor in the researcher's interest in the children of Haitian immigrants as a field of study. The academic experiences of students whose home language is Haitian Creole bear a specific point of interest to the researcher, as they represent a large proportion of students in my classes. In addition, the fact that this group is seldom addressed as a group in the literature on high school students, but rather, is addressed under the umbrella of a purportedly homogeneous group of African-American students causes speculation on whether their specific needs are being met by the schools which they attend. This interest has lead the researcher to seek information about any differences that might exist in the educational success of SWHLIHC and that of African American High school students.

This study sought to identify differences in the English III success of SWHLIHC and African American high school students in an urban school district; Miami Dade County Public Schools System. Data for the study were compiled from the records division of the Miami Dade County Public Schools System records division, which stores records for all students enrolled in Miami Dade Public Schools.

The students in this study were limited to those who were in English III for the year 2010-2011, and were members of the groups African American or students whose home language is Haitian Creole.

Research Questions and Related Hypotheses

Three General research questions and six sub questions drove this study:

General Research Question 1. Is there a significant difference between the mean 10th grade reading FCAT scores of African American English III students and those of Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole?

H1: There is a significant difference between the FCAT scores of African American students and those of SWHLIHC.

Sub Question 1a. Is there a significant difference between the mean 10th grade reading FCAT scores of African American Students and that of Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole, when controlling for gender?

H1a: There is a significant difference between the FCAT scores of African American students and those of SWHLIHC when controlling for gender.

Sub Question 1b. Is there a significant difference between the mean 10th grade reading FCAT scores of African American Students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole, when controlling for ESOL status?

H1b: There is a significant difference between the FCAT scores of African American students and those of SWHLIHC when controlling for ESOL levels.

Sub Question 1c. Is there a significant difference in the percentage of African American students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole who passed or failed the reading FCAT?

H1c: There is a significant difference between the FCAT scores of African American students and those of SWHLIHC when controlling for students who passed the FCAT reading.

General Research Question 2. Is there a significant difference between the English Language Arts grade of African American Students and that of Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole?

H2: There a significant difference between the English Language Arts GPA of African American students and that of SWHLIHC.

Sub Question 2a. Is there a significant difference between the English Language Arts GPA of African American Students and that of Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole when controlling for gender?

H2a: There a significant difference between the English Language Arts GPA of African American students and that of SWHLIHC when controlling for gender.

Sub Question 2b. Is there a significant difference in the percentage of African American students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole who are successful, where success is defined as an English Language Arts grade of 2.5 or above?

H2b: There a significant difference in the percentage of African American students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole for those students who are successful, where success is defined as an English Language Arts grade of 2.5 or above

General Research Question 3. Is there a significant difference between African American Students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole in the percentage of 11th grade students who are promoted to English IV, 12th grade?

H3: There is a significant difference between African American Students and

Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole in the percentage of 11th

grade students who will be promoted to English IV, 12th grade.

Sub Question 3a. Is there a significant difference between African American

Students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole in the percentage of

11th grade students who are promoted to English IV, 12th grade, when controlling for

gender?

H3a: There is a significant difference between African American Students and

Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole in the percentage of 11th

grade students who will be promoted to English IV, 12th grade, independent of

gender.

Research Design

This study used an ex post facto design. Newman, Newman, Brown, and

McNeely (2006) established that ex post facto research designs with hypotheses are

strong. This kind of design is considered to be strong because it presents more validity

than studies without hypotheses. The ex post facto design with hypotheses was chosen

because this type of design supported the researcher's purpose of investigating

relationships. An ex post facto research design allows the researcher to examine the

manner in which independent and dependent variables interact, especially when these

variables cannot be manipulated (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). According to

Newman et al. (2006), since the dependent variables being examined (GPA, promotion to

English IV class, and FCAT scores of African American and SWHLIHC) have already

occurred, and because the researcher is not attempting to establish causation, but rather relationships, this design is especially useful.

Sample

The researcher used Purposive Sampling to select participants for this study: Participants were selected based on required characteristics (Black, Dubowitz, & Starr, 1999, p. 125). The participants were selected based on their membership in the student body of high school English III/American Literature in the Miami Dade County Public Schools (MDCPS). In the 2010-2011 school year, MDCPS, the fourth largest school district in the United States, comprised 435 schools, serving 347,133 pre-kindergarten through 12th grade students (177,785 males; 169,348 females), 6.67 % of whom were 11th grade students. The school district has a diverse student body that together speaks 56 different languages and represents 160 countries. The student body for the district comprises 1.80% Asian/Indian/Multiracial, 8.61% White Non-Hispanic, 24.49% Black Non-Hispanic, and 65.10% Hispanic. Haitian Creole is second on the list of top 10 languages (other than English) used by students as their primary language. The portion of the student body qualifying for free or reduced price lunch is 70.2%. Selected from this student body, the sample for the study consisted of MDCPS African-American students and SWHLIHC who were in 11th grade in the 2010-2011 school year. The initial selection resulted in a final sample size of ($N = 3926$), which consisted of ($N = 2886$) for African-American students and ($N = 1040$) students whose home language is Haitian Creole.

Variables

The independent variables for this study are students' ethnicity, that is, self-identified as African American, SWHLIHC, ESOL levels, and sex (female, male). The dependent variables are (a) scores on the FCAT Reading test, (b) whether or not the student passed the FCAT Reading test or not; (c) students' English III grades; (d) whether or not the student was successful in English III; and (e) whether or not the student was promoted to the English IV.

Data Collection

Records of 2010-2011 SWHLIHC and African-American high school English III students were obtained from MDCPS records division. The researcher extracted data on the FCAT scores, high school GPA, ESOL levels, and promotion to English IV status for students belonging to both groups. These data were examined through descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, percentages), t tests, cross tabulations with chi square tests and regression analyses, to see if there was significant differences between the success of both groups in these four areas in terms of gender, pass/fail, and percentage promoted. The researcher ensured that student privacy was protected by assigning researcher-selected identification numbers to students after they were selected. The original data will be secured by storing on a jump drive under a researcher designed code and kept safe in this format for 3 years after the study. After this time they will be destroyed.

Statistical Analysis

Quantitative data analyses were carried out in this study: The SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used to analyze the data. A t test which is one of the

most widely used statistical measures, was used to compare the means of the two groups, African American English III students and SWHLIHC, for Research Question 1. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), two-way ANOVAs, and chi square tests were used to examine the two groups' performances on the reading FCAT, performance in English III, and promotion to English IV. A one way ANOVA was used to test whether there is significant difference in the means of the samples. Similarly two-way ANOVAs were used to analyze the effect of the independent variables on the expected outcomes along with their relationship to the outcome itself. Further, chi-square tests were used to determine whether the nominal measures were related.

Chi-square measures of association and crosstabs were utilized to relate the variables being examined for Research Question 2, which addresses the success or lack thereof for both groups in English III classes. The same measures were utilized to examine variables for Research Question 3, which addressed differences between African American Students and SWHLIHC in the percentage of 11th grade students promoted to English IV, 12th grade, independent of gender.

Frequency tables and percentages were used as a mode of displaying meaningful occurrences.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The present study conducted a comparative examination of the English III success

of African American Students and Students Whose Home Language is Haitian Creole

(SWHLIHC). These two groups are of interest to the researcher because of the nature of

their existence in Miami Dade County, Florida: The group African Americans comprises

a large portion of the student population in the school district in which the researcher is a

teacher, Miami Dade County Public Schools System. SWHLIHC is a sub- group within

this group. Additionally, African American students are the focus of many studies which

show them as being academic underperformers (Campbell, 2009; Lehman, 2003; Sublett,

2004). Importantly, the primary focus group for the study, SWHLIHC, is most often

lumped in with African American students, despite the fact that their home language

status should indicate that they need special provisions in English classes. Some of these

students are placed in ESOL classes based on the information their parents supply when

they first register their children for school. In this researcher's experience too many

SWHLIHC are not adequately placed in these classes.

Passing the 10th grade reading FCAT is a graduation requirement in the state of

Florida. Students are sorted into levels 1, 2, and 3, based on the scores they make on the

test. In order to pass this test a student must earn 300 of a possible 500 points, indicating

adequate comprehension. Another graduation requirement is passing English III, a class

based on works in American Literature. A passing grade in English class requires

students to earn a final grade of D or above. However, if SWHLIHC hope to be

successful admitted to tertiary institutions after high school, a grade of D, despite being

sufficient to allow students' promotion to English IV, does not constitute success as specified by college recruiters or this researcher. For the purpose of this study, a successful English IV student is therefore deemed to be one who has earned a final grade of B or A in English III.

This chapter presents the findings of the study using information obtained from analysis of the data. The chapter presents: (a) details pertaining to the sample population, (b) missing data, (c) results of the one-way and two -ay ANOVAs, and chi-square tests.

Sample Population

After requesting and obtaining approval from the university's IRB department and the Miami Dade County Public Schools Research Review Committee, the researcher retrieved records with scrambled IDs from the MDCPSS archives, of all active 2010-2011 11th grade students in the Miami Dade County Public Schools System ($N =$ 47,206). As illustrated in Table 1, initial selections were made, resulting in a data set consisting of ethnicity, gender, language spoken at home, ESOL level, 2010-2011 English III grade, and last reading FCAT score and level of students. The initial selection resulted in a final sample size of 3,926, which consisted of 2,886 African American students and 1,040 students whose home language is Haitian Creole.

Table 1

Demographics of Study Subjects

Ethnic Group	Sex	Frequency	Percent
African American	Female	1464	37.29
	Male	1422	36.22
SWHLHC	Female	539	13.73
	Male	501	12.76
Total		3926	100.00

Missing Data

There was a relatively low number of missing records. This had only a minor impact on the findings, as the sample size was so large. Of the variables in this study, the categories of English Grade had the largest count of missing ($N = 187$, 4.8%) followed by the Reading Pass/Fail ($N = 74$, 1.9%), and Reading FCAT Grade ($N = 56$, 1.4%).

Descriptive Analysis

The students in the final data set came from 77 senior high schools in the Miami Dade County Public Schools System. All of the students in the sample were Miami Dade County Public School English III students of the same race, Black. The students came from a broad cross-section of high schools in the county. The high school that supplied the largest number ($N = 414$) is a school which serves a large Haitian population. Three magnet schools provided only 1 student each. The numbers from the other 73 schools ranged from 2–287.

Of the 3,926 students in the sample, 2,003 (51%) were female and 1,923 (49%)

were male. The majority passed English III ($N = 3752$, 95.6%), and only a small number

failed ($N = 174$, 4.4%). This further indicates that 174 (4.4%) were not promoted to

English IV, 12th grade English.

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 stated that there is a statistically significant difference

between the FCAT scores of African American English III students and that of

SWHLIHC. A one-way ANOVA as displayed in Table 2 showed that there was a

statistically significant difference on the reading FCAT scores by group, $F(1,3868) =$

41.64, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .01$ (small effect size = .01, Cohen, 1977). African-American

students' mean reading FCAT scores are illustrated by Table 3, ($M = 305$, $SD = 41.7$)

which was significantly higher than that of SWHLHC, mean ($M = 295$, $SD = 38.6$). This

suggests that African American students are performing at a higher rate on the FCAT

Reading test than SWHLHC.

Table 2

Test of Between-Subjects Effects for FCAT Reading

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	64728.542	1	64728.542	41.644	.000	.011
Intercept	2.728E8	1	2.728E8	175525.658	.000	.978
Group	64728.542	1	64728.542	41.644	.000	.011
Error	6012087.047	3868	1554.314			
Total	3.592E8	3870				
Corrected Total	6076815.589	3869				

Note. a. R Squared = .011 (Adjusted R Squared = .010).

Table 3

One-Way ANOVA Tests FCAT Reading Test

FCAT Reading	Mean	Standard Deviation
African American	305	41.7
SWHLHC	295	38.6

Hypothesis 1a. Hypothesis 1a stated that there is a significant difference between the FCAT scores of African American students and those of SWHLIHC when controlling for gender. A two way ANOVA on the reading FCAT (by group, gender) showed there was a significant difference on reading FCAT scores by group controlling for gender, $F(1,3866)= 41.58, p < .001, \eta^2 = .01$. However, neither the main effect of gender, $p = .18$, nor the interaction of group by gender, $p = .61$, was significant.

Hypothesis 1b. Hypothesis 1b stated that there is a significant difference between the FCAT scores of African American students and those of SWHLIHC when controlling for ESOL levels. A one way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc pairwise comparison of means showed that there was a significant difference in reading FCAT scores by ESOL level (1-4, 5, none) for SWHLHC, $F(2, 1032) = 231.80, p < .001, \eta^2 = .31$. The Bonferroni's post hoc procedure illustrated by Table 4 showed that the mean reading FCAT scores for ESOL levels 1-4 ($M = 257.6, SD = 38.5$) were significantly less than ESOL 5 ($M = 308.79$) and no ESOL ($M = 313.78$). There was no significant difference between ESOL level 5 and no ESOL. This result suggests that for both groups

of students, those whose ESOL levels are 1-4 are not as successful on the FCAT Reading test as those students whose levels are 5 or no ESOL.

Table 4

One-Way ANOVA With Bonferroni Post Hoc Pairwise Comparison of FCAT Reading Test for African American Students and SWHLIHC

Groups	Mean	Standard Deviation
ESOL Level 1-4	257.6	38.5
ESOL Level 5	308.79	<.01
Non ESOL	313.78	<.01

Hypothesis 1c. Hypothesis 1c stated that there is a significant difference between the FCAT scores of African American students and those of SWHLIHC for students who passed or failed the reading FCAT. A chi-square test showed that there was a significant difference in the percentage of African American students and SWHLIHC for students who passed the FCAT reading (300+), χ^2 (1, $N = 3852$) = 43.99, $p < .001$, $\Phi = .11$. (phi = .11) Sixty eight percent (68%) of the African American students passed the reading FCAT, compared to 57% of the SWHLIHC. This would indicate that more African American students are passing the FCAT Reading test than SWHLIHC.

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 stated that there would be a significant difference between the English Language Arts grade of African-American students and SWHLIHC. Table 5 shows the results of a one-way ANOVA that showed the African American mean

English grade ($M = 2.16$, $SD = 1.04$) was significantly lower than the Haitian mean ($M = 2.27$, $SD = 1.03$). Table 6 indicated that there was a significant difference on English grades by group, $F (1, 3737) = 7.24$, $p = .007$, $i = .002$. These results imply that the Group SWHLIHC performed better than the group African American students \in English III.

Table 5

One-Way ANOVA Tests for English Language Grades

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation
African American	2.16	1.04
SWHLHC	2.27	1.03

Table 6

Test of Between-Subjects Effects for English III Grades

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	7.805[a]	1	7.805	7.238	.007	.002
Intercept	14290.058	1	14290.05	13252.08	.000	.780
Group	7.805	1	7.805	7.238	.007	.002
Error	4029.702	3737	1.078			
Total	21999.000	3739				
Corrected Total	4037.505	3738				

Note. a. R Squared = .002 (Adjusted R Squared = .002).

Hypothesis 2a. Hypothesis 2a stated that there is a significant difference between

the English Language Arts GPA of African American students and SWHLIHC

independent of gender. Table 7 depicts a two-way ANOVA on English grade (by group,

gender) which showed that there was a significant difference on English grades by group

controlling for gender, $F(1,3735)= 7.07, p = .008, \eta^2 = .002$. In addition, the main effect

of gender, $F(1,3735)= 90.37, p < .001, \eta^2 = .02$ was significant; however, the interaction

of group by gender, $p = .84$, was not. Female students had significantly higher grades (M

$= 2.36, SD = 1.00$) than male students ($M = 2.01, SD = 1.05$).

Table 7

Test of Between-Subjects Effects for English III Grade by Gender

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	127.029[a]	3	42.343	40.443	.000	.031
Intercept	14187.614	1	14187.614	13550.9	.000	.784
Group	7.402	1	7.402	7.070	.008	.002
Sex	94.617	1	94.617	90.371	.000	.024
Group Sex	.044	1	.044	.042	.838	.000
Error	3910.478	3735	1.047			
Total	21999.000	3739				
Corrected Total	4037.506	3738				

Note. a. R Squared = .031 (Adjusted R Squared = .031).

Hypothesis 2b. Hypothesis 2b stated that there would be a significant difference

in the percentage of African American students and SWHLIHC who are successful,

where success is defined as an English Language Arts grade of 2.5 or above. Table 8

shows a chi-square test of these scores which indicated that there was a significant

difference in the percentage of students who were successful in Eng III (A, B) by group, χ^2 (1, N= 3739) = 5.71, p = .017, phi = .04. This shows 44 % of the SWHLIHC were successful compared to 40 % of the African American students.

Table 8

Chi-Square Tests for English III Grades, Students Promoted From English III, and English III Students Promoted by Gender

English III	Mean	*P*	Φ
Students Passing (A,B)	5.71	0.017	.04
Promoted to English IV	4.82	0.028	.04
Male Students Promoted	2.50	0.114	.04
Female Students Promoted	2.50	0.134	.03

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 stated that there would be a significant difference between African American students and SWHLIHC in the percentage of 11th grade students who would be promoted to English IV, 12th grade. Table 9 displays A chi-square test of the variable which showed that there was a statistically significant difference in the percentage of students who were promoted to Eng IV (A,B,C,D) by group, X^2(1, N= 3739) = 4.82, *p* = .028, phi = .04. Ninety-one percent (91%) of the SWHLIHC were successful compared to 89 % of the African-American students.

Table 9

Chi-square Test for Students Promoted to English IV

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2 sided)
Pearson Chi-square	4.815[a]	1	.028
Continuity Correction[b]	4.556	1	.033
Likelihood Ratio	4.989	1	.026
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.814	1	.028
N of Valid Case	3739		

Note.   a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 106.33.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table.

Hypothesis 3a. Hypothesis 3a stated that there would be a significant difference between African American students and SWHLIHC in the percentage of 11th grade students who will be promoted to English IV, 12th grade, independent of gender. Table 10 illustrates the results of a chi-square test of these scores that indicated that African-American male students and male SWHLIHC had similar patterns of promotion in English III (A, B, C, D), χ^2(1, N= 1810) = 2.50, p = .114, Φ =.04. Eighty-five percent (85%) of African-American males and 88% of male SWHLIHC were promoted. Similarly, African-American female students and female SWHLIHC had similar patterns of promotion in English III (A, B, C , D) by group, χ^2 (1, N= 1929) = 2.50, p = .134, Φ =.03. Ninety-two percent (92%) of African-American females and 94% of female SWHLIHC were promoted.

Table 10

Chi-Square Test for Students Promoted to English IV by Gender

Gender	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2 sided)
Female			
Pearson Chi-square Continuity Correction[b]	2.249[a]	1	.134
Likelihood Ratio Linear-by-Linear Association	1.970	1	.160
N of Valid Cases	2.346	1	.126
	2.248	1	.134
	1929		
Male			
Pearson Chi-square Continuity Correction[b]	2.500[c]	1	.114
Likelihood Ratio Linear-by-Linear Association	2.262	1	.133
N of Valid Cases	2.577	1	.108
	2.499	1	.114
	1810		
Total			
Pearson Chi-square Continuity Correction[b]	4.815[d]	1	.028
Likelihood Ratio Linear-by-Linear Association	4.556	1	.033
N of Valid Cases	4.989	1	.026
	4.814	1	.028
	3739		

Note.   a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 39.78.
      b. Computed only for a 2x2 table.
      c. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 66.26.
      d. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 106.33.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter presents a summary of the study, a discussion of the findings, conclusions based on study results, implications of the findings, recommendations and possible directions for future research.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of the study was to compare the English III academic success of African-American students and Students Whose Home Language is Haitian Creole (SWHLIHC). The records of 3,926 Miami Dade County Public School English III students from the school year 2010-2011 were purposely selected for the study. A series of one-way ANOVAs, two-way ANOVAs, and chi-square tests were used to examine the two groups' performances on the reading FCAT, performance in English III, and promotion to English IV.

Summary of the Findings

In this section, the findings of the study are presented in relation to the three general and six specific research questions. The findings are as follows:

Research Question 1. Research Question 1 asked if there was a significant difference between the FCAT Reading scores of African American English III students and that of SWHLIHC The three sub questions further asked if there was a difference in the same variables when controlling for gender and ESOL levels respectively, and additionally, if there a significant difference in the percentage of African American students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole who passed or failed the FCAT reading.

The results show that there was a significant difference between the Reading
FCAT scores of African American students and those of SWHLIHC. Of the African-
American students in the study, 68.1% passed the FCAT reading as opposed to 56.5% of
SWHLIHC. Conversely, 31.9% of African-American students in the study failed the
FCAT reading as opposed to 43.5% of SWHLIHC (see Table 11). As shown in the table,
there was also a significant difference in the scores when controlling for gender; for both
African-American and SWHLIHC groups, female students earned higher scores than
males. Furthermore, students whose ESOL levels were 1–4 scored significantly lower
than students whose ESOL levels were 5 or none (see Table 5).

Table 11

*FCAT Reading Pass Fail by Groups and Gender Crosstabulation (Passing Grade =
Level 300)*

Gender	Status	SWHLIHC	African American	Total
Female	Fail	228 (42.5%)	455 (31.6%)	683 (34.5%)
	Pass	308 (57.5%)	986(68.4%)	1294 (65.5%)
Total		536 (100.0%)	1441(100.0%)	1977 (100.0%)
Male	Fail	220 (44.4%)	446 (32.3%)	666 (35.5%)
	Pass	275(55.6%)	934 (67.7%)	1209 (64.5%)
Total		495 (100.0%)	1380 (100.0%)	1875 (100.0%)
Total	Fail	448 43.5%)	901 (31.9%)	1349 (35.0%)
	Pass	583 (56.5%)	1920 (68.1%)	2503 (65.0%)
Total Groups		1031 (100.0%)	2821 (100.0%)	3852 (100.0%)

Research Question 2. Research Question 2 asked if there was a significant
difference between the English III grade of African American students and Students

Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole. The question further asked there would be a significant difference in the percentage of African American students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole who are successful, where success is defined as an English Language Arts grade of 2.5 or above, and if there would be a significant difference between the English III GPA of African American students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole independent of gender.

The analyses illustrated in Table 12, showed that there was a significant difference in the English III grades of African American Students and SWHLIHC. The grades of SWHLIHC were significantly higher than those of African American students. So, according to the data SWHLIHC were significantly more successful than African American Students in English III, in that more had a grade of B or higher. Further, when controlling for gender, results show significant differences in the grades of the males and females of both groups. For African American and SWHLIHC, the female students earned significantly higher grades than male students.

Table 12

English Grade Pass Fail by Groups and Gender Crosstabulation (Passing Grade = A-D)

Gender	Status	SWHLIHC	African American	Total
Female	Fail	248 (48.2%)	742 (52.5%)	990 (51.3%)
	Pass	267 (51.8%)	672 (47.5%)	939 (48.7%)
Total		515 (100.0%)	1441 (100.0%)	1929 (100.0%)
Male	Fail	303 (63.9%)	910 (68.1%)	1213 (67.0%)
	Pass	171 (36.1%)	426 (31.9%)	597 (33.0%)
Total		474 (100.0%)	1336 (100.0%)	1810 (100.0%)
Total	Fail	551 (55.7%)	1652 (60.1%)	2203 (58.9%)
	Pass	438 (44.3%)	1098 (39.9%)	1536 (41.1%)
Total Groups		989 (100.0%)	2750 (100.0%)	3739 (100.0%)

77

Research Question 3. Research Question 3 asked if there were a significant difference between African American students and SWHLIHC in the percentage of 11th grade students who would be promoted to English IV, 12th grade, and if there would be a significant difference between African American students and SWHLIHC in the percentage of 11th grade students who would be promoted to English IV, 12th grade independent of gender.

The findings were that there was a significant difference between African American students and SWHLIHC in the percentage of 11th grade students who were promoted to English IV, 12th grade; More SWHLIHC were promoted to English IV than African American Students. And significantly more African American and SWHLIHC female students were promoted to English IV than the male students of both groups.

Table 13

English Grade Promotion by Groups and Gender Crosstabulation (Promotion Grade = D = 1.0)

Gender	Status	SWHLIHC	African American	Total
Female	Retained	32 (6.2%)	117 (8.3%)	149 (7.7%)
	Promoted	483 (93.8%)	1297 (91.7%)	1780 (92.3%)
Total		515 (100.0%)	1414 (100.0%)	1929 (100.0%)
Male	Retained	56 (11.8%)	197 (14.7%)	253 (14.0%)
	Promoted	418 (88.2%)	1139 (85.3%)	1557 (86.0%)
Total		474 (100.0%)	1336 (100.0%)	1810 (100.0%)
Total	Retained	88 (8.9%)	314 (11.4%)	402 (10.8%)
	Promoted	901 (91.1%)	2436 (88.6%)	3337 (89.2%)
Total Groups		989 (100.0%)	2750 (100.0%)	3739 (100.0%)

Discussion of the Findings

Student performance on the FCAT. The FCAT came about as part of the Department of Education's plan to increase student achievement through the implementation of higher standards. The test was first implemented in 1998 and consisted of criterion-referenced assessments measuring selected benchmarks in mathematics, reading, science, and writing Sunshine State Standards. A passing score on the test became a part of high school students' graduation requirement beginning with students who were originally scheduled to graduate between 2004 and 2012. These students had to earn passing scores on Grade 10 FCAT Reading and Mathematics. A scale score of 300 is considered to be the passing score (Florida Department of Education, 2006).

High school students have up to four additional opportunities after the 10th grade sitting of the FCAT to pass both sections of the exam before graduation. In addition, students who have not successfully passed the exam prior to their expected graduation may retake the FCAT as many times as they want after leaving school. Further, students may satisfy the FCAT requirement by making concordant scores on the SAT or ACT. Despite these many options, many students are not successful. Research shows that of those who do not pass, a large majority are racial/ethnic minorities (Koretz, Linn, Dunbar, & Shepard, 1991; Oakes, 1990; O'Connor, 1989). The Department of Education's main rationale for initiating standardized testing like the FCAT was to offer equal access to educational opportunities and a range of occupations to a more varying population of students (Madaus, 1991). The Department of Education has stated good intentions for the use of test results; however, many researchers have reported that there is a gap between the performances of White students and that of minority students on

these standardized tests (Lomax, West, & Harmon, 1995; Madaus, & Kellaghan, 1992; Valenzuela, 2005; Zwick, 2004). The reality of the standardized testing is much different than the idealistic expectations of those who espouse its virtues. The social and educational preparation of students from low SES communities are sub-par because the schools that serve such communities are not equipped with technology and other learning enhancing innovations like consumable workbooks and smaller class sizes, that can be found in schools that serve more affluent communities. So, students from low SES communities are not exposed to knowledge building opportunities that enable their more upper class peers to fare better on the tests.

The current study focused on the performance of SWHLIHC because they are a significantly represented group in Miami Dade County Public Schools System, yet they are always addressed under the umbrella of African American. This researcher believes that in an environment like Miami Dade County public schools, this group is large enough to warrant specific attention to their needs as students whose home language is not English.

The study proposed a hypothesis that there would be a statistically significant difference between the FCAT scores of African American students and those of Students Whose Home Language is Haitian Creole. A one-way ANOVA showed that there was a statistically significant difference on the reading FCAT scores of these two groups. The results revealed that African-American students' mean reading FCAT ($M = 305$, $SD = 41.7$) was significantly higher than that of SWHLHC, mean ($M = 295$, $SD = 38.6$). Yet, the grades and promotion rate of African American students were significantly lower than those of SWHLHC. This implies that despite the capability to perform better on the

objective FCAT reading test, African-American students are not outperforming

SWHLHC in the subjective classroom setting.

A sub hypothesis was presented that there would be a significant difference in the

FCAT scores of male and female students. Many studies over the years have focused on

differences in academic performances of female and male students (Eccles, 1994; Eccles,

Adler, & Meece, 1984; Frederickson & Petrides, 2008; Jegede, 1994). According to some

researchers, females tend to place higher value on language-related abilities and tasks,

whereas males place higher value on mathematics abilities and tasks (Trusty, Robinson,

& Plaa, 2000). From a pedagogical perspective, it was interesting then, to test to see

whether the female students of both African American and SWHLIHC would perform at

higher levels than would the males. The chi square cross tabulation showed that for both

groups, there were statistically significant differences in the scores of the female and

male students (see Table 6). These results seem to support the arguments of Trusty et al.,

(2000).

A second sub hypothesis stated that there would be a significant difference

between the FCAT scores of African American students and those of SWHLIHC when

controlling for ESOL levels. This hypothesis is relevant because of the nature of the

student population in Miami Dade County Public Schools System. Because of their home

language situations—Haitian Creole being the language spoken at home—some of these

students would have been classified as students for whom English is a second language

(ESOL). As such, it would be reasonable to deduce that SWHLIHC would perform at

lower levels of success on this test that is based on reading and comprehension of a

language in which they are not fully adept.

In an effort to meet the needs of the multicultural/multilingual exceptional student population, and to comply with the specifications of *State Board of Education v. LULAC (League of United Latin American Citizens) et al.*, Consent Decree of 1990, Miami Dade County public schools created the Bilingual/ESOL program. The ESOL departments of schools monitor and provide accommodation to students at 5 levels of ESOL. Of the students in the study, 24% ($n = 949$) were classified as ESOL. It is important to note that the largest group was the level 5 ($n = 664$). As shown in Figure 1, students classified as ESOL Level 5 are perceived to be comprehending on the same level as regular English-speaking students.

ESOL LEVEL	UNDERSTANDING SPOKEN LANGUAGE	USING GRAMMATICAL	PRONUNCIATION	VOCABULARY	READING
LEVEL I (Novice)	Demonstrates very little understanding, constantly tries to resort to home language.	Uses limited verbal expression grammatically incorrect. Cannot communicate meaning orally or in writing.	Demonstrates limited oral expression – constant distortion of words and intonation. Cannot be understood.	Uses extremely limited vocabulary; unable to participate in class discussion.	Reads with understanding simple short English sentences on familiar matters, with familiar vocabulary and spelling patterns as applicable to age and grade level.
LEVEL II (Low Intermediate)	Demonstrates limited understanding; speaker must always choose words carefully and/or restate ideas even in familiar classroom situations.	Makes errors in most frequent and useful significant grammatical structures. Incomplete, incorrect expression of concepts taught.	Makes frequent significant distortions of words and intonation. Very difficult to understand in class.	Always gropes for high frequency words and almost always has to rephrase to be understood. Resistant, "garbled" participation in class discussion.	Reads with understanding simple short sentences with a greater number of conceptually related words within the spelling patterns taught, as applicable to age and grade level.
LEVEL III (High Intermediate)	Demonstrates fear understanding; speaker must often choose words carefully and/or restate ideas within familiar school settings and other related contexts.	Makes many significant grammatical errors of interference expressing concepts and ideas which cause confusion in understanding by the listener.	Makes significant distortions of words and intonation that interfere with clear expression of ideas. Can be understood with help.	Often gropes for high frequency words and often has to rephrase to be understood in relation to concepts under discus-sion.	Reads with understanding longer selections containing high frequency, con-textually relevant words, as applicable to age and grade level.
LEVEL IV (Advanced)	Demonstrates extensive understanding; speaker has to restate ideas only occasionally to clarify concepts.	Makes occasional significant grammatical errors of interference but can be understood in relation to relevant matters, (e.g., school subjects).	Makes occasional signi-ficant distortions of words and intonation but can be understood in relation to relevant matters.	Rarely gropes for high frequency words; occasionally has to rephrase to be understood in relation to new concepts, but generally understood in familiar situations	Reads with understanding longer selections containing high frequency, con-textually relevant words, as applicable to age and grade level.
LEVEL V (Independent)	Understands nearly every-thing a native speaker of comparable age, interests and intelligence understands; needs occasional clarification.	Makes few grammatical errors, can rephrase to make clear in relation to relevant matters.	Makes minor, non-significant distortions of pronunciation and intonation; can communicate clearly within relevant context.	Uses vocabulary comparable to that of native speakers of same age, interests, and intelligence level within school and other limited relevant contexts.	Reads with understanding comparable to that of native speaker of the same age, interests, and intelligence level.

Figure 1. ESOL criteria by levels.

In the present study, a one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc pairwise comparison of means showed that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean reading FCAT scores for ESOL levels 1-4 (M = 257.6) and ESOL level 5 (M = 308.79) and no ESOL (M = 313.78). There was no significant difference between ESOL level 5 and no ESOL. This means that ESOL levels 1-4 students did not score as high on the FCAT Reading as the other two groups did.

Another sub hypothesis stated that there would be a statistically significant difference between the FCAT scores of African American students and those of SWHLIHC for students who passed or failed the reading FCAT. A chi-square test showed that there was a significant difference in the percentage of African American students and SWHLIHC for students who passed the reading FCAT (earned a score of 300 or higher). Sixty-eight percent of the African American students passed, compared to 57% of the SWHLIHC.

Student English III performance. While some colleges will accept students with grades of C+, top colleges and universities expect applicants to have a transcript that has grades of mostly As and Bs. They focus on grades earned in core classes like English, expecting that students will have had at least 4 years of English; preferably at the honors or Advanced Placement level. The general consensus is that colleges do not focus on grades earned in the 9th and 10th grades, but if those grades are low in the first two years of high school, college admissions officers expect that students' academic skills in junior and senior years will reflect improvement, not deterioration or stagnation.

The literature review for this study cites many studies which focus on the complexities of educating both African American students and SWHLIHC (Gray et al., 1996; Nicholas, 2010; Portes & MacLeod, 1996; Portes & Stepick, 1993). As established in that chapter, SWHLIHC are addressed under the umbrella of another minority group, African Americans, who have been themselves the focus of many studies that reveal their disadvantaged status in the school systems of America (Archer & Francis, 2007; Bartlett et al., 2005; Brantlinger, 1990; Carter et al., 2007. The findings of this study—African Americans pass the FCAT reading and fail English III, while SWHLIHC fail the FCAT reading and pass English III—support the researchers who report that African American students are not achieving adequate academic success in the classroom. The English III success achieved by SWHLIHC implies that despite their language deficiency, they have strategies which enable them to outperform their African American peers in that setting.

Also noted in the literature review is the fact that English III focuses on American Literature, with the focus being on all aspects of what it means to be "American." Students read about the harsh lives of living on the American Frontier when they read plays like *The Crucible* and *The Scarlet Letter*; they peer into the American adventure by reading *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*; The American dream is presented to them in novels like F Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby*; Holden Caulfield's growing up experiences is told in Holden's own teenage voice in J. D. Salinger's coming of age in American novel, *A Catcher in the Rye*. Chapter 2 also discusses the dissonance that exists between African American students and the subject matter presented in English III. And Chapter 1 already established similarities between the two groups. It is thus reasonable to postulate that most SWHLIHC share the African American students' experience in

American Literature class. With most of their backgrounds being of low SES family, neighborhood, and school settings, SWHLIHC may struggle to identify with the scenarios playing out in the subject matter of the English III curriculum. This knowledge is what prompted the researcher to hypothesize that there would be a significant difference between the English Language Arts grades of African American students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole.

The results of the test of the hypothesis proved quite surprising. A one way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference in English grades by group, The African American mean English grade ($M = 2.16$, $SD = 1.04$) was significantly lower than the Haitian mean ($M = 2.27$, $SD = 1.03$). The result was unexpected because given the language and cultural differences, one might expect that SWHLIHC would perform at a significantly lower level than African American students who should identify more with the subject matter. However, this was not the case. Although African American students performed significantly higher on the FCAT reading, that performance did not transform to English III. This warranted further analysis.

As stated in the discussion on the FCAT, many researchers have investigated and reported on motivation and performance of male and female students. Therefore, the researcher posed a sub hypothesis that stated that there would be a significant difference between the English Language Arts GPA of African American students and Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole when controlling for gender. A two way ANOVA on English Language Arts GPA (by group, gender) showed that there was a significant difference on English GPA by group controlling for gender, Female students had significantly higher GPAs. This result is in keeping with most research findings.

Researchers have reported that girls' self concepts are boosted when their academic endeavors are recognized. They care more about maintaining the image of good students than boys do. Boys are not totally unaffected by being labeled as lacking in academic ability, but it usually does not cause them to doubt themselves or focus on that fact as much as girls do (Correll 2001; Crosnoe, Riegle-Crumb, & Muller 2007, Mickelson 1989; Wigfield & Eccles 2002).

The second sub hypothesis for this section stated that there would be a significant difference in the percentage of African American students and SWHLIHC who are successful, where success is defined as an English Language Arts grade of 2.5 or above. A chi-square test of these scores indicated that there was a significant difference in the percentage of students who were successful in Eng III. Forty-four percent of the SWHLIHC were successful, earning grades of A or B, compared to 40% of the African Americans achieving similar success. This is consistent with the findings on the previous hypothesis that there would be a significant difference between the English Language Arts grades of African American students and SWHLIHC. According to results from this study, not only did more SWHLIHC pass English III, they were also more successful; in that, the group earned more As and Bs in the class than the African American students. Following the previous discussion, results imply that SWHLIHC are creating means, not impeded by language or culture, through which they achieve more academic success in English III than they do on the FCAT reading.

As discussed in the literature review, African American students have always been struggling to attain the academic success enjoyed by their White counterparts (Kerpelman, Eryigit, & Stephens, 2008; Lehman, 2003; Roscigno, 2000). According to

one researcher, "racial and ethnic minorities disproportionately experience poor educational attainment" (Mezuk, 2009). Since studies show that African-American students are struggling to achieve success in school systems that do not adequately address their needs, and since SWHLIHC is another subgroup of African American students, with the additional disadvantage of the home language, one might reason that the results of the tests would reveal SWHLIHC to be at an even more dire disadvantage in English III. This was not the case in the present study. Even though less than 50% of both groups achieved English III success, more SWHLIHC than African Americans earned final grades of A or B. One could therefore assume that SWHLIHC possess strategies that they implement in the classroom to achieve more success than African Americans, and one could further conjecture that African American students do not utilize these strategies.

Student promotion to English IV. For this study, the researcher specified the grades needed to be deemed as successful in English III, (A, B). Dedmond (2008) poses a couple of poignant questions in her discussion of the role of high school in preparing students to live a successful life: "Can they envision a future that is economically self-sufficient? Are they able to articulate a plan that will get them to that point? Do they understand the consequences to their life if they don't follow through with their plans?"(p. xx). In the 11th grade, students should be contemplating these questions as they think about the effect of their high school performance on their future success. The more driven high school students tend to focus on classes and activities that help them meet the requirements for acceptance into reputable colleges, but some students just want to "pass."

The grades specified by the researcher as "success" exceed the grade needed to be promoted to English IV. Presently, students in Miami Dade County Public Schools System only need to make a D in a class to be promoted to the next level. Since English, like Math, is a core subject of the high school curriculum, students must pass this class to be fully promoted to the next grade level. Having been an English teacher in the MDCPSS for over 14 years, the researcher has had quite some experience in interacting with English III students. With only one year of high school remaining, and with the phasing out of the night school option, English III students only have one summer school and one virtual school opportunity to retake this class if they do not pass. In addition, many students like to "enjoy" senior year without any added stress of having to retake a class.

This knowledge inspired the inclusion of the hypothesis that there would be a significant difference between African American students and SWHLIHC in the percentage of 11th grade students who would be promoted to English IV, 12th grade. The chi-square test for this hypothesis showed that there was a statistically significant difference in the percentage of students who were promoted to Eng IV with grades A,B,C,D. Ninety-one percent of the SWHLIHC were successfully promoted compared to 89% of the African American students. These results suggest that unlike with the FCAT, the language and cultural barriers faced by SWHLIHC do not prevent them from earning at least a D in English III.

A sub hypothesis was also tested for this section: there will be a significant difference between African American students and SWHLIHC in the percentage of 11th grade students who will be promoted to English IV, 12th grade, independent of gender.

Chi-square test of these scores indicated that African American male students and male Students Whose Home Language Is Haitian Creole had similar patterns of promotion in Eng III. Eighty-five percent (85%) of African American males and 88% of male SWHLIHC were promoted. Similarly, African American female students and female SWHLIHC had similar patterns of promotion in Eng III. Ninety-two percent (92%) of African American females and 94% of female SWHLIHC were promoted. As previously discussed, female students of both groups are experiencing significantly higher rates of educational success than their male peers.

Conclusion

It was concluded that African American students and SWHLIHC demonstrated differences in all aspects of the study: mean 10th grade reading FCAT scores, success in English III (American Literature), and promotion to English IV. In addition, differences were also exhibited between the performance of males and females in all of the previous three areas. Moreover, students' ESOL levels are major predictors in students' performance on the FCAT.

Implications

Findings suggest that the literature is correct in reporting that minority students are not achieving maximum success on standardized tests. The results found in response to the question on FCAT passes imply that SWHLIHC are indeed in need of interventions that might make them more comfortable with the subject matter of this test. In this objective setting, where the test is graded according to rubric and scorers do not have discretion in assigning points, African American students outperform SWHLIHC.

Although they do not perform on the same level as White students, they are able to maneuver more successfully through the reading passages than SWHLIHC.

Findings further suggest that SWHLIHC are more comfortable in the classroom setting where the grading is more subjective. It can be implied that these students capitalize more on being able to meet teacher expectations. This is indicated by the results that show that SWHLIHC were more successful than African American students in being promoted to the next grade, and in their percentage that earned As and Bs. These findings along with the literature, also suggest that diligence and classroom attitude might be a factor in the higher success rate of SWHLIHC in the more personal classroom setting.

Recommendations for Practice

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are offered:

1. The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and the findings of the current research indicate that of the 3,852 FCAT scores that were available for the study, 1349 (35%) of these students failed the test (43.5% of SWHLIHC & 31.9% of African American students). This implies that neither SWHLIHC nor African American students are experiencing a great deal of success on the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test. Therefore stakeholders should insist that test creators reevaluate the content of the test. Test creators should analyze the selections and questions on the reading section of the FCAT test to see if they are skewed against these racial/ethnic minority groups, or students from low SES backgrounds.

2. Based on the literature review and the findings of the current research, of the 3,739 students for whom English III grades were available 91.1% SWHLIHC to 88.6%

African American students were promoted to English IV. However, 48.17% of the students who were promoted earned Cs or Ds. In addition, neither group has a large number of successes as detailed by this study. 402 (10.75%) of the group failed English III and Only 1,536 (41.96%) earned As or Bs. This implies that more than half of the study group did not achieve the grades colleges encourage in this core class. Therefore school districts should begin to incorporate more works by authors that both African American students and SWHLIHC pieces in the English III curriculum to encourage a higher success rate.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study compared the performance of students whose home language is Haitian Creole and that of African American students in English III in Miami Dade County Public Schools System for the year 2010-2011. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made for future research consideration:

1. Comparison study with African American, SWHLIHC, and White students*:* The FCAT test taken by the students in this group was measured on a scale score of 100-500. The mean FCAT score of the African American students was 305 and that of SWHLIHC was 295. A worthwhile focus for future research, which would give a more complete picture of the performance of African American students and SWHLIHC, would be to replicate this study with the addition of other groups, like Hispanics and Whites. This could give a better understanding of the performance of the two groups.

2. The effect of diligence, resistance, and reverse epistemology on student performance*:* the study revealed that SWHLIHC were more successful in English III than African American Students. The SWHLIHC mean grade was 2.27 while that of African

American students was 2.16. In addition, 44 % of the SWHLIHC were successful (earning a grade of A or B) compared to 40 % of the African American students. These facts indicate that there is something different between the results of English III grading and the scoring of the FCAT. This leads the researcher to conjecture that the difference in the results might have something to do with diligence, resistance, and reverse epistemology. Some researchers discuss the mostly positive role that diligence plays in student success and the negative effects of resistance and reverse epistemology (Fredin, Monnett, & Kosicki, 1994; Hill, 2009; Hyams, 2000; Risher, 2003; Wright & Weekes, 2003). Teachers react somewhat positively to student diligence, and negatively to resistance and reverse epistemology, which might explain the difference in the English III grades of African American Students and SWHLIHC. Studies in this area might benefit from the administering of a diligence measure.

3. The relationship between teacher subjectivity and the grades their minority students earn: the results mentioned in recommendation number 2 and research encountered in conducting the literature review has also lead this researcher to believe that it would be advantageous to conduct future research on the relationship between teacher subjectivity and the grades they ascribe to their racial/ethnic minority students' work to determine if perceptions of the efforts of their minority students affects the final grades they give to these students

4. The success of SWHLIHC in other core subjects: The results of tests done for this dissertation have shown that *SWHLIHC,* in Miami Dade County Schools System, despite their Haitian Creole background are more successful than African American students in English III. This leads the researcher to ponder if this might be the case in

other subjects. A comparison of these two groups in at least other core subjects might yield results that could aide curriculum planners to develop programs and innovations to promote success for other ethnic minority students.

Summary

The results of this study imply the possibilities of a larger and much more in-depth study of the academic performance of minority students, factors that affect their academic performance, and strategies that might facilitate their academic success. More precisely, these results provide support for the hypotheses that there are differences in the English III/American Literature performances for the groups SWHLIHC and African-American students in MDCPSS. The study did not answer why these differences exist, but the results imply that further study of these groups could lead to development of curricula and teaching practices that could help both groups achieve greater academic success.

REFERENCES

Akiba, D. (2007). Ethnic retention as a predictor of academic success: Lessons from the children of immigrant families and black children. *The Clearing House, 80*(5), 223–225. Retrieved from Ethnic NewsWatch (ENW) database. (Document ID: 1314580171)

Applebee, A. N. (1974). *Tradition and reform in the teaching of English: A history*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Applebee, A. N. (1991). Environments for language teaching and learning: Contemporary issues and future directions. In J. Flood, J. M. Jensen, D. Lapp, & J. R. Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (pp. 549–556). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Applebee, A. N. (1996). *Curriculum as conversation: Transforming traditions of teaching and learning*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Applebee, A. N., Langer, J. A., & Nystrand, M. (2003). Discussion-Based approaches to developing understanding: classroom instruction and student performance in middle and high school English. *American Educational Research Journal*, *40*(3), 685–730.

Archer, L., & Francis, B. (2007). *Understanding minority ethnic achievement: Race, gender, class and "success*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Astone, N. M., & McLanahan, S. S. (1991). Family structure, parental practices and high school completion. *American Sociological Review, 56,* 309–320.

Banks, J. A. (1996). Multicultural education: For freedom's sake. In E. R. Hollins (Ed.). *Transforming curriculum for a culturally diverse society* (pp.75–82). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Barrier-Ferreira, J. (2008). Producing commodities or educating children? Nurturing the personal growth of students in the face of standardized testing. *The Clearing House, 81*(3), 138–140. Retrieved, from Ethnic NewsWatch (ENW). (Document ID: 1428819421)

Bartlett, L., McKinley, B., & Brayboy, J. (2005). Race and schooling: Theories and ethnographies. *Urban Review*, *37*(5), 361–489.

Barton, P. E. (2005). *One-third of a nation: Rising dropout rates and declining opportunities. Policy information report.* Retrieved from http://www.ets.org/research/pic. http://ezproxy. fiu.edu /login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/62135762? accountid=10901

Black, M. M., Dubowitz, H., & Starr, R. (1999). African American fathers in low income, urban families: Development, behavior, and home environment of their three-year-old children. *Child Development*, *70*(4), 967–978.

Brantlinger, E. (1990). *Low-income adolescents' perceptions of school, intelligence, and themselves as students. Curriculum Inquiry, 20(*3), 305–324.

Brown Foundation. (2004). *Brown v. Board of Education: About the case*. Brown Foundation for Educational Equity, Excellence and Research. Retrieved from http://brownvboard.org/summary/

Campbell, M. (2009). AAUW research shows income trumps gender as factor in testing. *The Hispanic Outlook in Higher Education, 19*(10), 30–32. Retrieved from Ethnic NewsWatch (ENW). (Document ID: 1654006591)

Carter, N. P., Hawkins, T. N., & Natesan, P. (2008). The relationship between verve and the academic achievement of African American students in reading and mathematics in an urban middle school. *Educational Foundations*, *22*(1/2), 29–46.

Casey, C. (2007). No reason schools can't expect success from poor children. *Knight Ridder Tribune Business News,1*. Retrieved from ABI/INFORM Dateline database. (Document ID: 1258826831).

Cha, C., & Hones, D. F. (1999). *Educating new Americans: immigrant lives and learning*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Chapple, R. (2010). *Miami Dade's top schools.* About.com: Miami. Retrieved from http://miami.about.com/cs/education/a/aa031703.htm

Chen, C., & Stevenson, H. W. (1995). Motivation and Mathematics Achievement: A Comparative Study of Asian-American, Caucasian-American, and East Indian High School Students. *Child Development*, 66 (4), 1215-1234.

Chenoweth, K. (2009). Successful schools avoid false choices. *Education Week*, *29*(7), 22–24.

Chow, H. P. (2000). The determinants of academic performance: Hong Kong immigrant students in Canadian schools. *Canadian Ethnic Studies, 32*(3), 105–110. Retrieved from Ethnic NewsWatch (ENW). (Document ID: 358009581)

Correll, S. J. (2001). Gender and the career choice process: The role of biased self-assessments. *American Journal of Sociology, 106,* 1691–1730.

Crosnoe, R., Riegle-Crumb, C., & Muller, C. (2007). Gender, self-perception, and academic problems in high school. *Social Problems, 54*(1), 118–138. doi:10.1525/sp.2007.54.1.118

Darling-Hammond, L. (1997). *The right to learn: A blueprint for creating schools that work*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Dedmond, R. M. (2008). Launching students into their decade of transition. *Techniques (Association For Career And Technical Education), 83*(4), 14–19.

Delpit, L. (1995). *Other people's children: Cultural conflict in the classroom*. New York, NY: The New Press.

Driscoll, A. K. (1999). Risk of high school dropout among immigrant and native Hispanic youth. *International Migration Review, 33*(4), 857–875.

Eccles, J. S. (1994). Understanding women's educational and occupational choices. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 18,* 585–609.

Eccles, J., Adler, T., & Meece, J. L. (1984). Sex differences in achievement: A test of alternate theories. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46*, 26–43.

Elliott, E. S., & Dweck, C. S. (1988). Goals: An approach to motivation and achievement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(1), 5–12.

Felix-Marcelin, M. (2000) *Parent, teacher, and student perceptions of Project New Beginning* (Creole version) in Miami Dade County Public Schools. PhD . dissertation, Department of Education, The Union Institute Graduate College.

Fredin, E. S., Monnett, T., & Kosicki, G. M. (1994). Knowledge gaps, social locators, and media schemata: gaps, reverse gaps, and gaps of disaffection. *Journalism Quarterly, 71*176-190.

Frederickson, N., & Petrides, K. V. (2008). Ethnic, gender, and socioeconomic group differences in academic performance and secondary school selection: A longitudinal analysis. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *18*(2), 144–151.

Freyer, R. G. Jr., & Levitt, S. D. (2004). Understanding the black-white test score gap in the first two years of school. *The Review of Economics and Statistics, 86*(2), 447–464.

Garg, R., Kauppi, C., Lewko, J., & Urajnik, D. (2002). A structural model of educational aspirations. *Journal of Career Development, 29*, 87–108.

Gee, J. P. (1996). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses*. London, England: Taylor & Francis.

Gee, J. P., Hull, G., & Lankshear, C. (1996). *The new work order: Behind the language of the new capitalism*. Boulder, CO: Westview.

Gibson, M. A. (1997). *Complicating the immigrant/involuntary minority typology*. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly, 28*(3), 431–454.

Giroux, H. A. (1983). *Theory and resistance in education: A pedagogy for the opposition*. South Hadley, MA: Bergin & Garvey.

Gray, M. J., Rolph, E., & Melamid, E. (1996). *Immigration and higher education: institutional Responses to changing demographics*. Los Angeles, CA: RAND.

Hao, L., & Bonstead-Bruns, M. (1998). Parent-child differences in educational expectations and the academic achievement of immigrant and native students. *Sociology of Education*, *71*(3), 175–198.

Harris, A., Jamison, K., & Trujillo, M. (2008). Disparities in the educational success of immigrants: An assessment of the immigrant effect for Asians and Latinos. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 620,* 90. (Document ID: 1591920861)

Harris, T. L., & Hodges, R. E.(1995). *The literacy dictionary: The vocabulary of reading and writing.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Hill, K. (2009). Code-switching pedagogies and African American student voices: Acceptance and resistance. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, *53*(2),120–131.

Hones, D. F. & Cha, C. S. (1999). *Educating new Americans: Immigrant lives and learning*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Horwedel, D. (2007). Expanding the literary canon. *Diverse Issues in Higher Education, 24*(3), 16–18. Retrieved from http://ezproxy.fiu.edu/login?url=http://search. proquest.com/docview/194234022? accountid=10901

Hyams, M. S. (2000). "Pay attention in class. . . {and} don't get pregnant": A discourse of academic success among adolescent Latinas. *Environment And Planning A*, *32*(4), 635–654.

Iser, W. (1980). The reading process: A phenomenological approach. In J. P. Tompkins (Ed.), *Reader-response criticism: From formalism to poststructuralism* (pp. xx–xx). Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Jegede, J. O. (1994). Influence of motivation and gender on secondary school students' academic performance in Nigeria. *Journal of Social Psychology*, *134*(5), 695–697.

Jencks, C., & Phillips, M. (Eds.). (1998). *The black-white test score gap*. Washington, DC: Library of Congress.

Jones, M. J., Jones, B. D., Hargrove, T. Y. (2003). *The unintended consequences of high-stakes testing*. New York, NY: Rowman and Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Karolides, N. J.(2000). The transactional theory of literature. In N. J. Karolides (Ed.), *Reader response in secondary and college classrooms* (2nd ed.; pp 3-24). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Kerpelman, J. L., Eryigit, S., & Stephens, C. J. (2008). African American Adolescents' future education orientation: Associations with self-efficacy, ethnic identity, and perceived parental support. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 37*(8), 997–1008. Retrieved from ABI/INFORM Global database. (Document ID: 1522446921)

Kim, S. S. (2006). *Academic achievement of second generation Filipino and Korean Americans: A look at immigrant families and communities* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Dissertations & Theses: Full Text. (Publication No. AAT 3240953)

Koretz, D. M., Linn, R. L., Dunbar, S. B., & Shepard, L. A. (1991, April). *The effects of high-stakes testing on achievement: Preliminary findings about generalization across tests*. Paper presented at R. L. Linn (Chair), Effects of High-Stakes Educational Testing on Instruction and Achievement Symposium, the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.

Laguerre, M. S. (1998). Blackness in Latin America and the Caribbean. Bloomington, Indianna: Indiana University Press

Lankshear, C., & McLaren, P. (Eds.). (1993). *Critical literacy: Politics, praxis, and the postmodern*. Albany, New York: State University of New York Press

Lehman, J. (Ed.). (2003). *The African American almanac* (9th ed.). Detroit. MI: Gale. Retrieved from Gale Virtual Reference Library via Gale: http://go.galegroup.com/ps/start.do?p=GVRL&u=hialeahhs

Linn, R. L. (2005). Scientific evidence and Inference in educational policy and practice: Implications for evaluating adequate yearly progress. In C. A. Dwyer (Ed.), *Measurement and research in the accountability era* (pp. 7–19). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Lochte, H. (2006). *White shadows: Race and ethnicity in the high school literary canon* (Doctoral dissertation, State University of New York at Buffalo). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. Retrieved from http://ezproxy. fiu.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest. com/docview/ 304940106?accountid=10901

Lomax, R. G., West, M., & Harmon, M. C. (1995). The impact of mandated standardized testing on minority students. *Journal of Negro Education*, *64,* 171–185.

Looker, E. D. (1994). Active capital: The impact of parents on youths' educational performance and plans. In L. Erwin & D. MacLennan (Eds.), *Sociology of education in Canada: Critical perspectives on theory, research, and practice*, (pp. 164–187). Toronto: Copp Clark Longman.

Madaus, G. F. (1991, June). *The effects of important tests on students: Implications for a national examination or system of examinations.* Paper presented at the AERA Invitational Conference on Accountability as a State Reform Instrument: Impact on Teaching, Learning, Minority Issues and Incentives for Improvement, Washington, DC.

Madaus, G. F., & Kellaghan, T. (1992). Curriculum evaluation and assessment. In P. W. Jackson (Ed.), *Handbook of research on curriculum* (pp. 119–154). New York, NY: Macmillan

Mahaffy, K. A., & Ward, S. K. (2002). The gendering of adolescents' childbearing and educational plans: Reciprocal effects and the influence of social context. *Sex Roles, 46*, 403–417.

Malveaux, J. (1997). Speaking of education: Education, history and the state of the union. *Black Issues in Higher Education, 13*(26), 48. Retrieved from Ethnic NewsWatch (ENW). (Document ID: 582402421)

Martin, J. M. (2002). Public education and the battle over the nature of social responsibility to the nation's children and schools. *Journal of the American Academy of Religion*, *70*(4), 833–841.

Mau, W. C., & Bikos, L. H. (2000). Educational and vocational aspirations of minority and female students: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 78*, 186–194.

McDermott, R. P. (1987). The explanation of minority school failure, again. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 18*(4), 361–364.

McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2001). *Research in education: A conceptual introduction* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Addison Wesley Longman Inc.

Mendez, L. M. R., & Crawford, K. M. (2002). Gender-role stereotyping and career aspirations: A comparison of gifted early adolescent boys and girls. *Journal of Secondary Gifted Education, 13*, 96–107.

Mezuk, B. (2009). Urban debate and high school educational outcomes for African American males: The case of the Chicago debate league. *Journal of Negro Education*, *78*(3), 290–304.

Miami Dade County Public Schools. (2012). *Learning village. McDougal literature 6-12 Unit Plans: 11th grade-McDougal literature.* Retrieved from https://mdcpsportal. dadeschools.net/employee/default.aspx

Mickelson R. A. (1989). Why does Jane read and write so well? The anomaly of women's achievement. *Sociology of Education*, 62, 47–63.

Mizokakawa, D. T., & Ryckman, D. B. (1990). Attributions of academic success and failure: A comparison of six Asian-American ethnic groups. *Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology, 21*(4), 434–451.

Newman, A. P., & Beverstock, C. (1990). *Adult literacy: Contexts & challenges*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Newman, I., Newman, C., Brown, R., & McNeely, S. (2006). *Conceptual statistics for beginners.* Lanham, MD: University Press of America.

A Nation at Risk 1983*: The Imperative for Educational Reform*, a report to the Nation and the Secretary of Education, United States Department of Education. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Excellence in Educatio

Nicholas, T. (2008). *Family, obligation, and educational outcomes: Unraveling the paradox of high aspirations and low academic achievement among the children of haitian immigrants.* Florida Atlantic University). *ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, ,* 100. Retrieved from http://ezproxy.fiu.edu/login?url=http://search. proquest.com/docview/304568735?accountid=10901. (304568735).

Natriello, G., Mc Dill, E. L., & Pallas, A. L. (1990). *Schooling disadvantaged children: Racing against catastrophe.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Ngana-Mundeke, A. (1999). *Influences of social networks on the school experiences of children of Haitian immigrants to the Tampa bay area* (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Florida). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. http://ezproxy.fiu.edu/ login?url=http://search.proquest.com/ docview/304544457?accountid=10901

Nicholas, T. (2008). *Family, obligation, and educational outcomes: Unraveling the paradox of high aspirations and low academic achievement among the children of Haitian immigrants* (Doctoral dissertation, Florida Atlantic University). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. http://ezproxy.fiu.edu/login?url=http:// search.proquest.com/docview/ 304568735? Account id=10901

Noguera, P. A. (2003). *City schools and the American dream: Reclaiming the promise of public education.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Noguera, P. A. (2004). Social capital and the education of immigrant students: Categories and generalizations. *Sociology of Education, 77*(2), 180–183.

Oakes, J. (1990). *Multiplying inequalities: The effects of race, social class, and tracking on opportunities to learn mathematics and science*. Santa Monica, CA: The RAND Corporation.

O'Connor, T. (1989). Cultural voice and strategies for multicultural education. *Journal of Education*, *171*(2), 57–74.

Ogbu, J. U. (1991). Minority coping responses and school experience. *The Journal of Psychohistory, 18,* 433–456.

Ogbu, J. U. (1999). Beyond language: Ebonics, proper English, and identity in a black-American speech community. *American Educational Research Journal*, *36*(2), 147–184.

Ogbu, J. U. (2003). *Black American students in an affluent suburb: A study of academic disengagement.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Perlmann, J., & Waldinger, R. (1997). Second generation decline? Children of immigrants, past and present-a reconsideration. *International Migration Review, 31*(4), 893–922.

Perreira, K. M., Harris, K. M., & Lee, D. (2006). Making it in America: High school completion by immigrant and native youth. *Demography, 43*(3), 511–536.

Portes, A., & MacLeod, D. (1996). Educational progress of children of immigrants: The roles of class, ethnicity, and school context. *Sociology of Education, 69*, 255–275.

Portes, A., & Rumbaut, R. G. (2001). *Legacies: The story of the immigrant second generation.* Berkeley, CA: University of California Press

Portes, A., & Stepick, A. (1993). *City on the edge: The transformation of Miami.* Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Reaching the top: A report of the national task force on minority high achievement.
    (1999). ().College Board Publications, Box 886, New York, NY 10101-0886
    (item number 201635, $12, $4 shipping and handling). Tel: 800-323-7155 (Toll
    Free). For full text: <" TARGET="_blank">http://www.collegeboard.org>.
    Retrieved from http://ezproxy.fiu.edu/login?url=http://search. proquest.com/
    docview/62381166?accountid=10901

Risher, K. (2003). Why do so many students perform so poorly in higher-level
    mathematics? *Mathematics Teacher*, *96*(2), 102–104.

Robbins, B. (2009). Against literary imperialism: Storming the barricades of the canon.
    Monthly Review, 61(4), 29–37. Retrieved from http://ezproxy.fiu.edu/login?url=
    http: //search.proquest.com /docview/58816493?accountid=10901

Roscigno, V. J. (2000). Family/school inequality and African-American/Hispanic
    achievement. *Social Problems, 47*(2), 266–290.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1985). *Literature as exploration* (5th ed.). New York, NY: The
    Modern Language Association of America.

Schmid, C. L. (2001). Educational achievement, language-minority students, and the new
    second generation. *Sociology of Education Extra Issue, 74,* 71–87.

Seidman, E. (1991). Growing up the hard way: Pathways of urban adolescences.
    American Journal of Community Psychology, 19, 173–205.

Seligman, M. (1990). *Learned optimism*. New York, NY: Knopf.

Smolicz, J. (1996). Multiculturalism and an overarching framework of values: Some
    educational responses for ethnically plural societies. In E. R. Hollins (Ed.),
    Transforming curriculum for a culturally diverse society (pp. 59–74). Mahwah,
    NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sontag, D.(1993, June 29). A fervent 'No' to assimilation in new America. *The New York
    Times,* p. A. 10.

Spears-Bunton, L. A. (2000). Calypso, jazz, reggae, salsa: Literature, response, and the
    African diaspora. In N. J. Karolides (Ed.), *Reader response in secondary and
    college classrooms* (2nd ed.; pp 311–326). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum
    Associates.

Spears-Bunton, L. A., & Powell R. (Eds.). (2009). *Toward a literacy of promise: Joining
    the African American struggle.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Stepick, A., Stepick, C. D., Eugene, E., Teed, D., & Labissiere, Y. (2001). Shifting identities and intergenerational conflict: Growing up Haitian in Miami. In R. G. Rumbaut & A.Portes (Eds.), *Ethnicities: Children of immigrants in America* (pp. xx–xx). Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Street, B. V. (1984). *Literacy in theory and practice*. Cambridge, UK : Cambridge University Press.

Sublett, L. (2004). *The performance of African-Americans and other minorities on state standardized mandatory competency tests: A comparison/contrast*. (Doctoral dissertation, Texas Southern University, United States). Retrieved from Dissertations & Theses: Full Text. (Publication No. AAT 3294772)

Thompson, G. L. (2003). *What African American parents want educators to know.* Westport, CN: Praeger.

Trusty, J., Robinson, C. R., & Plata, M. (2000). Effects of gender, socioeconomic status, and early academic performance on postsecondary educational choice. *Journal of Counseling And Development*, *78*(4), 463–472.

Ulichny, P. (1996).Cultures in conflict [Electronic Version]. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 27*(3), 331–364.

Unger, H. G. (2007). African-American education. In *Encyclopedia of American Education* (3rd ed.). New York: Facts On File, Inc. Retrieved from http://www.fofweb.com/activelink2.asp? ItemID =WE01&iPin =EAE0043&SingleRecord=True

U.S. Department of Education. (2004). *Title I-Improving the academic achievement of the disadvantaged. The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001*. Retrieved November from http://www.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/index.html

Valenzuela, A. (2005). *Leaving children behind: How "Texas-style" accountability fails Latino youth*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Wigfield A., & Eccles, J. S. (2002). The development of competence beliefs, expectancies for success, and achievement values from childhood through adolescence. In A. Wigfield & J. S. Eccles (Eds.), *Development of achievement motivation* (pp. 173–195). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Wilson P. M., & Wilson, J. R. (1992). Environmental influences on adolescent educational aspirations: A logistic transform model. *Youth & Society, 24*, 52–70.

Woodard, M., & Henson, V. (2003). Employment and income. In *The African American almanac* (pp. 619–640). Retrieved from http://go.galegroup.com/ps/start.do?p=GVRL&u=hialeahhs

Wright, C., & Weekes, D. (2003). Race and gender in the contestation and resistance of teacher authority and school sanctions: The case of African Caribbean pupils in England. *Comparative Education Review*, *47*(1), 3–20.

Zephir, F. (2004). *The Haitian Americans*. Westport, CN: Greenwood Press.

Zwick, R. (2004). *Rethinking the SAT: The future of standardized testing in university admissions*. New York, NY: RoutledgeFalmer.

APPENDIX A

Home Language Survey

MIAMI-DADE COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS
HOME LANGUAGE SURVEY

| To Be Completed By Parent or Guardian |

Student I.D. No. _____

Student Name _____ _____ _____
                   Last   First   Middle

Date of Birth _____ / _____ / _____ Grade _____ Parent Language _____ Student Language _____
           Month .Day   Year

Date Entered U.S.: _____ / _____ / _____
               Month   Day   Year

If the answer is "YES" to any of these questions, the student must be tested for English proficiency.		
1. Is a language other than English used in the home?	Yes ____	No____
2. Did the student have a first language other than English?	Yes ____	No___
3. Does the student most frequently speak a language other than English?	Yes ____	No____

School _____ Date _____ Parent/Guardian Signature _____

ESCUELAS PUBLICAS DEL CONDADO DE MIAMI-DADE
ENCUESTA SOBRE EL IDIOMA HABLADO EN EL HOGAR

| Debe ser completado por el/la padre/madre o tutor/a |

No. De I.D. _____

Nombre del Estudiante _____ _____ _____
                       Apellido   Nombre   Inicial

Fecha de Nacimiento _____ / _____ / _____ Grado _____ Lengua Paterna _____ Idioma del Estudiante _____
                 Mes   Día   Año

Fecha de Entrada a los Estados Unidos: _____ / _____ / _____
                                  Mes   Dia   Año

Si responde "Sí" a alguna de estas preguntas, el estudiante debe tomar un examen para saber cual es su conocimiento del Inglés.		
1. ¿Usan en su casa algún otro idioma que no sea el Inglés?	Sí ____	No ____
2. ¿Tuvo el estudiante una lengua materna distinta al Inglés?	Sí ____	No ____
3. ¿Habla el estudiante frecuentemente otro idioma que no sea el Inglés?	Sí ____	No ____

Escuela _____ Fecha _____ Firma del Padre/Madre _____

MIAMI-DADE COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS
SONDAJ SOU KI LANG TIMOUN NAN PALE

| Pou paran oubyen moun ki responsab timoun nan ranpli |

No. I.D. Elèv La _____

Non Elèv la _____ _____
                       Non fanmi   Non

Dat Fèt li _____ / _____ / _____ Klas _____ Lang paran Yo _____ Lang Elèv La _____
          Mwa   Jou   Ane

Dat ou Antre U.S.: _____ / _____ / _____
                   Mwa   Jou   Ane

Si repons lan se "WI" pou nenpòt nan kesyon anba yo, elèv la dwe pran yon tès Anglè.		
1. Eske yo sèvi ak yon lang ki pa Anglè lakay li?	Wi ____	Non ____
2. Eske elèv la te genyen yon premye lang anvan Anglè?	Wi ____	Non ____
3. Eske elèv la abitye pale yon lang ki pa Anglè?	Wi ____	Non ____

Lekòl _____ Dat _____ Siyati Paran _____

878-2610   FM-5196ESH Rev. (07-98)

FILE IN CUMULATIVE FOLDER

APPENDIX B

SPSS Results of Study Data

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=ESOLLevel READPFFLAG Eng_Grade_Success Eng_Grade_Promote.

Frequencies

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Statistics

		ESOLLevel ESOL Level	READPFFLAG READ PF FLAG	Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	Eng_Grade_Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)
N	Valid	949	3852	3739	3739
	Missing	2977	74	187	187

Frequency Table

ESOLLevel ESOL Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	93	2.4	9.8	9.8
	2	109	2.8	11.5	21.3
	3	62	1.6	6.5	27.8
	4	21	.5	2.2	30.0
	5	664	16.9	70.0	100.0
	Total	949	24.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2977	75.8		
Total		3926	100.0		

READPFFLAG READ PF FLAG

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	N	1349	34.4	35.0	35.0
	Y	2503	63.8	65.0	100.0
	Total	3852	98.1	100.0	
Missing		74	1.9		
Total		3926	100.0		

Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 No	2203	56.1	58.9	58.9
	1 Yes	1536	39.1	41.1	100.0
	Total	3739	95.2	100.0	
Missing	System	187	4.8		
Total		3926	100.0		

Eng_Grade_Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 No	402	10.2	10.8	10.8
	1 Yes	3337	85.0	89.2	100.0
	Total	3739	95.2	100.0	
Missing	System	187	4.8		
Total		3926	100.0		

```
 **** RQ 1c.
CROSSTABS
  /TABLES=READPFFLAG BY HmLang
  /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES   /STATISTICS=CHISQ
  /CELLS=COUNT COLUMN     /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

READPFFLAG READ PF FLAG * HmLang Home Language Crosstabulation

			HmLang Home Language		Total
			0 Hatian Creole	1 English	
READPF FLAG READ PF FLAG	N	Count	448	901	1349
		% within HmLang Home Language	43.5%	31.9%	35.0%
	Y	Count	583	1920	2503
		% within HmLang Home Language	56.5%	68.1%	65.0%
Total		Count	1031	2821	3852
		% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

```
(Chi-square test)
```
There was a significant difference in % of students who passed the
FCAT read (300+) by group, X2(1, N= 3852) = 43.99, p < .001, phi = .11.
68% of the AA passed compared to only 57% of the Haitians.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	43.987[d]	1	.000
Continuity Correction[b]	43.482	1	.000
Likelihood Ratio	43.177	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	3852		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The
minimum expected count is 361.06.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

```
CROSSTABS
 /TABLES=READPFFLAG  BY HmLang BY SEX
 /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES   /STATISTICS=CHISQ
 /CELLS=COUNT COLUMN    /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

READPFFLAG READ PF FLAG * HmLang Home Language * SEX SEX Crosstabulation

				HmLang Home Language		
SEX SEX				0 Hatian Creole	1 English	Total
F	READPFFLAG READ PF FLAG	N	Count	228	455	683
			% within HmLang Home Language	42.5%	31.6%	34.5%
		Y	Count	308	986	1294
			% within HmLang Home Language	57.5%	68.4%	65.5%
	Total		Count	536	1441	1977
			% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
M	READPFFLAG READ PF FLAG	N	Count	220	446	666
			% within HmLang Home Language	44.4%	32.3%	35.5%
		Y	Count	275	934	1209
			% within HmLang Home Language	55.6%	67.7%	64.5%
	Total		Count	495	1380	1875
			% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	READPFFLAG READ PF FLAG	N	Count	448	901	1349
			% within HmLang Home Language	43.5%	31.9%	35.0%
		Y	Count	583	1920	2503
			% within HmLang Home Language	56.5%	68.1%	65.0%
	Total		Count	1031	2821	3852
			% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SEX SEX		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
F	Pearson Chi-Square	20.762[d]	1	.000
	Continuity Correction[b]	20.280	1	.000
	Likelihood Ratio	20.384	1	.000
	N of Valid Cases	1977		
M	Pearson Chi-Square	23.388[c]	1	.000
	Continuity Correction[b]	22.861	1	.000
	Likelihood Ratio	22.953	1	.000
	N of Valid Cases	1875		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	43.987[d]	1	.000
	Continuity Correction[b]	43.482	1	.000
	Likelihood Ratio	43.177	1	.000
	N of Valid Cases	3852		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 185.17.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table
c. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 175.82.
d. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 361.06.

```
 ***** RQ2b  EngGrade10   *******.

CROSSTABS
  /TABLES=EngGrade10 BY Eng_Grade_Success Eng_Grade_Promote
  /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES
  /CELLS=COUNT
  /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

EngGrade10 Final Grade 10 * Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5) Crosstabulation

Count

		Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)		Total
		0 No	1 Yes	
EngGrade10 Final Grade 10	0 F	402	0	402
	1 D	269	0	269
	2 C	1532	0	1532
	3 B	0	1282	1282
	4 A	0	254	254
Total		2203	1536	3739

EngGrade10 Final Grade 10 * Eng_Grade_Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1) Crosstabulation

Count

		Eng_Grade_Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)		Total
		0 No	1 Yes	
EngGrade10 Final Grade 10	0 F	402	0	402
	1 D	0	269	269
	2 C	0	1532	1532
	3 B	0	1282	1282
	4 A	0	254	254
Total		402	3337	3739

```
CROSSTABS
 /TABLES=Eng_Grade_Success BY HmLang
 /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES   /STATISTICS=CHISQ
 /CELLS=COUNT COLUMN    /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5) * HmLang Home Language Crosstabulation

			HmLang Home Language		
			0 Hatian Creole	1 English	Total
Eng_ Grade_ Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	551	1652	2203
		% within HmLang Home Language	55.7%	60.1%	58.9%
	1 Yes	Count	438	1098	1536
		% within HmLang Home Language	44.3%	39.9%	41.1%
Total		Count	989	2750	3739
		% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(Chi-square test)
There was a significant difference in % of students who were successful in Eng III (A, B) by gr
44% of the Haitians were successful compared to only 40% of the AA.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.713[a]	1	.017
Continuity Correction[b]	5.534	1	.019
Likelihood Ratio	5.687	1	.017
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.711	1	.017
N of Valid Cases	3739		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 406.29.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

```
CROSSTABS
 /TABLES=Eng_Grade_Success  BY HmLang BY SEX
 /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES   /STATISTICS=CHISQ
 /CELLS=COUNT COLUMN    /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5) * HmLang Home Language * SEX SEX
Crosstabulation

SEX SEX				0 Hatian Creole	1 English	Total
F	Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	248	742	990
			% within HmLang Home Language	48.2%	52.5%	51.3%
		1 Yes	Count	267	672	939
			% within HmLang Home Language	51.8%	47.5%	48.7%
	Total		Count	515	1414	1929
			% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
M	Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	303	910	1213
			% within HmLang Home Language	63.9%	68.1%	67.0%
		1 Yes	Count	171	426	597
			% within HmLang Home Language	36.1%	31.9%	33.0%
	Total		Count	474	1336	1810
			% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	551	1652	2203
			% within HmLang Home Language	55.7%	60.1%	58.9%
		1 Yes	Count	438	1098	1536
			% within HmLang Home Language	44.3%	39.9%	41.1%
	Total		Count	989	2750	3739
			% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Column header: HmLang Home Language spans "0 Hatian Creole" and "1 English".

Chi-Square Tests

SEX SEX		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
F	Pearson Chi-Square	2.820[a]	1	.093
	Continuity Correction [b]	2.650	1	.104
	Likelihood Ratio	2.819	1	.093
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.818	1	.093
	N of Valid Cases	1929		
M	Pearson Chi-Square	2.778[c]	1	.096
	Continuity Correction [b]	2.592	1	.107
	Likelihood Ratio	2.752	1	.097
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.777	1	.096
	N of Valid Cases	1810		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	5.713[d]	1	.017
	Continuity Correction [b]	5.534	1	.019
	Likelihood Ratio	5.687	1	.017
	Linear-by-Linear Association	5.711	1	.017
	N of Valid Cases	3739		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 250.69.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table
c. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 156.34.
d. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 406.29.

```
 **** RQ3c  EngGrade10   *******.
CROSSTABS
 /TABLES= Eng_Grade_Promote BY HmLang
 /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES   /STATISTICS=CHISQ
 /CELLS=COUNT COLUMN    /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Eng_Grade_Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1) * HmLang Home Language Crosstabulation

			HmLang Home Language		Total
			0 Hatian Creole	1 English	
Eng_Grade_ Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)	0 No	Count	88	314	402
		% within HmLang Home Language	8.9%	11.4%	10.8%
	1 Yes	Count	901	2436	3337
		% within HmLang Home Language	91.1%	88.6%	89.2%
Total		Count	989	2750	3739
		% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(Chi-square test)
There was a significant difference in % of students who were promoted to Eng IV (A,B,C,D) by gr
91% of the Haitians were successful compared to 89% of the AA.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.815[a]	1	.028
Continuity Correction [b]	4.556	1	.033
Likelihood Ratio	4.989	1	.026
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.814	1	.028
N of Valid Cases	3739		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 106.33.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

```
CROSSTABS
 /TABLES=Eng_Grade_Promote  BY HmLang BY SEX
 /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES   /STATISTICS=CHISQ
 /CELLS=COUNT COLUMN    /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Eng_Grade_Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1) * HmLang Home Language * SEX SEX Crosstabulation

SEX SEX				0 Hatian Creole	1 English	Total
				HmLang Home Language		
F	Eng_Grade_ Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)	0 No	Count	32	117	149
			% within HmLang Home Language	6.2%	8.3%	7.7%
		1 Yes	Count	483	1297	1780
			% within HmLang Home Language	93.8%	91.7%	92.3%
	Total		Count	515	1414	1929
			% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
M	Eng_Grade_ Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)	0 No	Count	56	197	253
			% within HmLang Home Language	11.8%	14.7%	14.0%
		1 Yes	Count	418	1139	1557
			% within HmLang Home Language	88.2%	85.3%	86.0%
	Total		Count	474	1336	1810
			% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	Eng_Grade_ Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)	0 No	Count	88	314	402
			% within HmLang Home Language	8.9%	11.4%	10.8%
		1 Yes	Count	901	2436	3337
			% within HmLang Home Language	91.1%	88.6%	89.2%
	Total		Count	989	2750	3739
			% within HmLang Home Language	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SEX SEX		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
F	Pearson Chi-Square	2.249[d]	1	.134
	Continuity Correction [b]	1.970	1	.160
	Likelihood Ratio	2.346	1	.126
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.248	1	.134
	N of Valid Cases	1929		
M	Pearson Chi-Square	2.500[c]	1	.114
	Continuity Correction [b]	2.262	1	.133
	Likelihood Ratio	2.577	1	.108
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.499	1	.114
	N of Valid Cases	1810		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	4.815[d]	1	.028
	Continuity Correction [b]	4.556	1	.033
	Likelihood Ratio	4.989	1	.026
	Linear-by-Linear Association	4.814	1	.028
	N of Valid Cases	3739		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 39.78.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table
c. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 66.26.
d. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 106.33.


```
 **** RQ1c  ESOL *******.
FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=ESOLLevel.
```

Frequencies

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Statistics

ESOLLevel ESOL Level

N	Valid	949
	Missing	2977

ESOLLevel ESOL Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	93	2.4	9.8	9.8
	2	109	2.8	11.5	21.3
	3	62	1.6	6.5	27.8
	4	21	.5	2.2	30.0
	5	664	16.9	70.0	100.0
	Total	949	24.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2977	75.8		
Total		3926	100.0		

```
 RECODE ESOLLevel (5=2) (SYSMIS=3) (Lowest thru 4=1) INTO ESOL3.
VARIABLE LABELS  ESOL3 'ESOL 3 categories'.
value labels ESOL3 1 'ESOL levels 1-4' 2 'ESOL level 5'  3 ' No ESOL'.
freq var =  ESOLLevel ESOL3.
```

Frequencies

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Statistics

		ESOLLevel ESOL Level	ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories
N	Valid	949	3926
	Missing	2977	0

Frequency Table

ESOLLevel ESOL Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	93	2.4	9.8	9.8
	2	109	2.8	11.5	21.3
	3	62	1.6	6.5	27.8
	4	21	.5	2.2	30.0
	5	664	16.9	70.0	100.0
	Total	949	24.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2977	75.8		
Total		3926	100.0		

ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	285	7.3	7.3	7.3
	2.00 ESOL level 5	664	16.9	16.9	24.2
	3.00 No ESOL	2977	75.8	75.8	100.0
	Total	3926	100.0	100.0	

```
CROSSTABS
 /TABLES=ESOL3 BY group
 /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES
 /STATISTICS=CHISQ
 /CELLS=COUNT COLUMN
 /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories * group Crosstabulation

			group		Total
			0 Haitians	1 Afr Amer	
ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	Count	283	2	285
		% within group	27.2%	.1%	7.3%
	2.00 ESOL level 5	Count	650	14	664
		% within group	62.5%	.5%	16.9%
	3.00 No ESOL	Count	107	2870	2977
		% within group	10.3%	99.4%	75.8%
Total		Count	1040	2886	3926
		% within group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3315.688[a]	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	3457.982	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	2865.953	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	3926		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 75.50.

```
 USE ALL.
COMPUTE filter_$=(group = 0).
VARIABLE LABELS filter_$ 'group = 0 (FILTER)'.
VALUE LABELS filter_$ 0 'Not Selected' 1 'Selected'.
FORMATS filter_$ (f1.0).
FILTER BY filter_$.
EXECUTE.

UNIANOVA READFCATSCORE BY   ESOL3
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(OVERALL)
   /EMMEANS=TABLES( ESOL3) COMPARE ADJ(LSD)
  /PRINT=ETASQ HOMOGENEITY DESCRIPTIVE
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN=  ESOL3 .
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	1.00	ESOL levels 1-4	283
	2.00	ESOL level 5	645
	3.00	No ESOL	107

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable:READFCATSCORE READ FCAT SCORE

ESOL3 ESOL 3 ...	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	257.60	38.50	283
2.00 ESOL level 5	308.79	33.81	645
3.00 No ESOL	313.78	28.08	107
Total	295.31	41.65	1035

```
 (oneway ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc pairwise comparion of means)
There was a significant difference in read FCAT scores
by ESOL level (1-4, 5, none) for Haitian students,
F(2, 1032) = 231.80, p < .001, eta sq = .31.
Using Bonferroni's post hoc procedure the mean read fcat
for ESOL levels 1-4 ( M = 257.6, sd = 38.5) was
significantly less than ESOL 5 (M = 308.79) and
no ESOL  ( M = 313.78).  There was no sig. diff between
```

ESOL level 5 and no ESOL.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable : READFCATSCORE READ FCAT SCORE

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	556021.447[a]	2	278010.72	231.803	.000	.310
Intercept	53687525.866	1	53687525.	44764.2	.000	.977
ESOL3	556021.447	2	278010.72	231.803	.000	.310
Error	1237717.616	1032	1199.339			
Total	92053513.000	1035				
Corrected Total	1793739.063	1034				

a. R Squared = .310 (Adjusted R Squared = .309)

Estimated Marginal Means

1. Grand Mean

Dependent Variable : READFCATSCORE READ FCAT SCORE

Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
293.390	1.387	290.669	296.111

2. ESOL 3 categories

Estimates

Dependent Variable : READFCATSCORE READ FCAT SCORE

ESOL 3 categories	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	257.60	2.06	253.565	261.644
2.00 ESOL level 5	308.79	1.36	306.113	311.465
3.00 No ESOL	313.78	3.35	307.206	320.345

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: READFCATSCORE READ FCAT SCORE

(I) ESOL 3 categories	(J) ESOL 3 categories	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]
1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	2.00 ESOL level 5	-51.185	2.469	.000
	3.00 No ESOL	-56.171*	3.930	.000
2.00 ESOL level 5	1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	51.185	2.469	.000
	3.00 No ESOL	-4.987	3.615	.168
3.00 No ESOL	1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	56.171*	3.930	.000
	2.00 ESOL level 5	4.987	3.615	.168

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

```
CROSSTABS
 /TABLES=Eng_Grade_Success BY ESOL3
 /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES   /STATISTICS=CHISQ
 /CELLS=COUNT COLUMN    /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5) * ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories Crosstabulation

			ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories			
			1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	2.00 ESOL level 5	3.00 No ESOL	Total
Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	161	340	50	551
		% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	58.3%	55.6%	49.0%	55.7%
	1 Yes	Count	115	271	52	438
		% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	41.7%	44.4%	51.0%	44.3%
Total		Count	276	611	102	989
		% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5) * ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories * SEX SEX
Crosstabulation

SEX SEX				ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories		
				1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	2.00 ESOL level 5	3.00 No ESOL
F	Eng_Grade _Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	72	149	27
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	53.3%	46.1%	47.4%
		1 Yes	Count	63	174	30
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	46.7%	53.9%	52.6%
	Total		Count	135	323	57
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
M	Eng_Grade _Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	89	191	23
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	63.1%	66.3%	51.1%
		1 Yes	Count	52	97	22
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	36.9%	33.7%	48.9%
	Total		Count	141	288	45
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	Eng_Grade _Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	161	340	50
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	58.3%	55.6%	49.0%
		1 Yes	Count	115	271	52
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	41.7%	44.4%	51.0%
	Total		Count	276	611	102
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Eng_Grade_Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5) * ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories * SEX SEX
Crosstabulation

SEX SEX				Total
F	Eng_Grade _Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	248
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	48.2%
		1 Yes	Count	267
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	51.8%
	Total		Count	515
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%
M	Eng_Grade _Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	303
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	63.9%
		1 Yes	Count	171
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	36.1%
	Total		Count	474
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%
Total	Eng_Grade _Success English Grade Success (ge 2.5)	0 No	Count	551
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	55.7%
		1 Yes	Count	438
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	44.3%
	Total		Count	989
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%

SEX SEX		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
F	Pearson Chi-Square	1.995^d	2	.369
	Likelihood Ratio	1.994	2	.369
	Linear-by-Linear Association	1.228	1	.268
	N of Valid Cases	515		
M	Pearson Chi-Square	3.960^b	2	.138
	Likelihood Ratio	3.846	2	.146
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.558	1	.455
	N of Valid Cases	474		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	2.621^c	2	.270
	Likelihood Ratio	2.611	2	.271
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.304	1	.129
	N of Valid Cases	989		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.45.
b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.23.
c. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 45.17.

```
 **** RQ3c  EngGrade10   *******.
CROSSTABS
  /TABLES= Eng_Grade_Promote BY ESOL3
  /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES    /STATISTICS=CHISQ
  /CELLS=COUNT COLUMN     /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Eng_Grade_Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1) * ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories Crosstabulation

| | | | ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories | | | Total |
			1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	2.00 ESOL level 5	3.00 No ESOL	
Eng_Grade _Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)	0 No	Count	23	59	6	88
		% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	8.3%	9.7%	5.9%	8.9%
	1 Yes	Count	253	552	96	901
		% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	91.7%	90.3%	94.1%	91.1%
Total		Count	276	611	102	989
		% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.686[a]	2	.430
Likelihood Ratio	1.820	2	.403
Linear-by-Linear Association	.082	1	.775
N of Valid Cases	989		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.08.

```
CROSSTABS
 /TABLES=Eng_Grade_Promote  BY ESOL3 BY SEX
 /FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES   /STATISTICS=CHISQ
 /CELLS=COUNT COLUMN    /COUNT ROUND CELL.
```

Crosstabs

[DataSet1] N:\Statcon\CLIENTS\Students\Samuels, Sharon\dissertation_data3.sav

Eng_Grade_Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1) * ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories * SEX SEX
Crosstabulation

SEX SEX				ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories			Total
				1.00 ESOL levels 1-4	2.00 ESOL level 5	3.00 No ESOL	
F	Eng_Grade _Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)	0 No	Count	7	23	2	32
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	5.2%	7.1%	3.5%	6.2%
		1 Yes	Count	128	300	55	483
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	94.8%	92.9%	96.5%	93.8%
	Total		Count	135	323	57	515
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
M	Eng_Grade _Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)	0 No	Count	16	36	4	56
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	11.3%	12.5%	8.9%	11.8%
		1 Yes	Count	125	252	41	418
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	88.7%	87.5%	91.1%	88.2%
	Total		Count	141	288	45	474
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	Eng_Grade _Promote English Grade Promotion (ge D- 1)	0 No	Count	23	59	6	88
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	8.3%	9.7%	5.9%	8.9%
		1 Yes	Count	253	552	96	901
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	91.7%	90.3%	94.1%	91.1%
	Total		Count	276	611	102	989
			% within ESOL3 ESOL 3 categories	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SEX SEX		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
F	Pearson Chi-Square	1.417[d]	2	.492
	Likelihood Ratio	1.537	2	.464
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.002	1	.962
	N of Valid Cases	515		
M	Pearson Chi-Square	.529[b]	2	.768
	Likelihood Ratio	.558	2	.757
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.025	1	.875
	N of Valid Cases	474		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	1.686[c]	2	.430
	Likelihood Ratio	1.820	2	.403
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.082	1	.775
	N of Valid Cases	989		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.54.
b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.32.
c. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.08.

VITA

SHARON ANGELA SAMUELS

1982	Certificate in Elementary Education St Joseph Teacher's college Kingston Jamaica
1996	B. S., Public Administration Florida International University Miami, Florida
1999	M. A., English Education Florida International University Miami, Florida
1999-Present	Adjunct Instructor of College Composition Miami Dade College Miami, Florida
1999-Present	Classroom Teacher Miami Dade County Public Schools Miami, Florida
2012	Ed. S., Curriculum and Instruction Florida International University Miami, Florida