The effects of Mexican Americans, Chicanos parental involvement on schooling

Maria Guadalupe Ramirez

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THE EFFECTS OF MEXICAN AMERICANS/CHICANOS
PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT ON SCHOOLING

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Social Work

by
Maria Guadalupe Ramirez
June 2005
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ABSTRACT

This project is an examination of whether parent involvement, educational institutions, and teachers make a difference in whether Mexican American/Chicano students will continue and succeed in higher education. This project is also meant to motivate, encourage, and inspire Mexican students to challenge themselves and to meet the highest of their abilities. A quantitative method will be used to examine what the major factors that contribute to the success stories of those Mexican Americans/Chicanos who did continue with higher education. Finally, in working with Mexican American/Chicanos students one must look at all the factors as to why they do or do not continue with higher education. Thus, it is essential to explore and consider each factor because in order to understand and better serve this population we must look at all components.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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DEDICATION

This project is dedicated to the RazA. Si se puede.

Hang in there I know it is possible.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Dropout rates among people of Mexican American/Chicano descent in the United States is a problem. The contributing components of successful Mexican-American/Chicano students were investigated in order to further understand and empower this underrepresented group in school. A comprehensive quantitative method was used for this investigation.

Problem Statement

The Census Bureau (2002) reported a population of 37.4 million Hispanics in the United States (Census Bureau, 2002). This constituted 13.3 percent of the total population in the United States. According to the Census (2002), Hispanics are comprised of Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central and South American populations; however, out of the entire Hispanic population, those of Mexican descent composed 66.9 percent of those in the United States (Census Bureau, 2002).

Educators and experts have noticed a rising trend in Mexican American/Chicano students dropping out of school every year. For instance, according to the 2002 census,
Mexicans aged 25 and older had the lowest number of high school graduates and bachelor's degrees. In fact, according to the 2002 census, the Mexican population who received a Bachelor's degree or more was 7.6 percent of the total population, and 32.1 percent of Mexicans had less than a ninth grade education (Census Bureau, 2002).

There are many major factors that contribute to Mexicans completing high school and obtaining a higher education. Contributing factors include: parents as role models, parental involvement, parental knowledge and parents' attitudes about their children's education.

The Tomas Rivera Policy Institute also suggested that the lack of parental college readiness or awareness creates a disservice and even a disadvantage for their children because they are not familiar with the school system, financial aid, tutoring, studying habits, teachers and other important components of school (2004). According to the Institute there is a need for increased Spanish-speaking staff in order to provide information to Latino parents about college (Tomas Rivera Policy Institute, 2004). The Rivera Policy Institute added that having Spanish-speaking staff is key for students to succeed (Tomas Rivera Policy Institute 2004). In
addition, school campus visits should be more physically and locally accessible to Latino parents and students (Tomas Rivera Policy Institute, 2004).

In 1982, 33 percent of all Hispanics in public schools were categorized as “limited English proficient,” or inadequate in English skills including 72 percent in grades K-6 (Martinez, 1984). Mexican Americans were known as the most “disadvantaged” group of all. Unquestionably this study indicates that for every 100 children entering kindergarten and continuing on to completion of a 4-year college degree, only five Mexican Americans will attain one as compared to 24 Anglo Americans (Ovando, 1977).

Purpose

It is important to study this problem at this time to change social work practice as it relates to the education system. The findings could help social workers and other professions understand the importance of higher education for Latinos, and the importance of having role models and parent involvement. It is imperative to research this issue in order to empower more Latinos to pursue or continue with higher education. Finally, the findings can help Mexican/Chicano parents learn new
creative ways to help their children with their education so that the children can continue with higher education. Furthermore, it is important at this time, to study this issue in order to help social workers and other professionals understand this culture's uniqueness, while simultaneously looking at the discrimination with which this population deals with.

One way to look at this problem at a micro level is by looking at parent involvement. Again, the best approach is to look at whether or not parent involvement makes a difference in Latinos continuing higher education. In addition, another reason to research Latinos is to empower Latino parents, social workers, and other professionals when working with the students. At the same time, social workers have to understand the cultural barriers, and other obstacles such as learning disabilities, and discrimination with which this population has dealt with on a regular basis.

Moreover, in order to understand this problem further, it is important to emphasize the priority Latinos place on their cultural values and their view of family as the source of support and comfort, rather than schooling. In addition, this problem can be seen in macro
practice when looking at better ways of working with schools helping school systems to help Latinos in higher education.

According to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights Mexican American Education Report (February, 1974), younger and younger Mexican children are dropping out of school. If this is true, they may be more likely not to continue with higher education. The schools are failing to provide appropriate and adequate schooling for Mexican American children (civil rights).

Purpose of the Study

This study examined Mexican American/Chicano California State University San Bernardino students who were seeking higher education. The research looked at the major factors influencing students to continue or not continue with higher education.

Mexican-Americans have been described as individuals whose family histories were traceable to Mexico. The term American means that the subjects/students were born in the United States but their parents were from Mexico. The term Chicano will have this same meaning; however, it is good to note that some Mexican Americans do not consider
themselves Chicanos and some Chicanos do not like to be considered Mexican Americans. Perhaps, one reason for that is because at one point in the 1970’s the term Chicano had a negative connotation. According to Santana and Gonzalez, (2001) Chicanos identified themselves as individuals with the political stances of the Chicano movement of the civil rights era. This project looked at first generation Mexican American/Chicanos.

When researching members of this group, one must keep in mind that the government has labeled or clustered all groups as Hispanics, or Latinos. Though the paper may cite research using the terms Hispanic or Latino, this study only focused on Mexican, and Mexican-Americans/Chicanos first and second generation.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Mexican/Chicanos in Higher Education

According to the Census Bureau (2002), Mexican adults ages 25 and older have the lowest education level of all Hispanics. The census added that the percentage of Mexicans receiving less than ninth grade education was 32.1. Also, 7.6 percent of Mexicans had higher education, such as Bachelor degrees; whereas, for other nonwhites the rate was 29.4 percent (Census, 2002). In other words, there are not enough Mexicans attending or pursuing higher education (Census, 2002). In an article by Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences,

Research linking acculturation with school success for Latino youngsters has shown that factors such as recent immigration and limited English proficiency increase the risk of dropping out for Latino students. (Rumberger, 1995, p. 133)

For example, according to data from the National Center for Education Statistics (2000), the dropout rate for Latino youths born outside the United States (44.2%) was
more than double the dropout rate for first-generation (14.6%) and second-generation (15.9%) Latino youths.

For instance, studies have indicated that parental lack of education can have a negative affect on whether or not Mexican American students obtained a higher education (The Tomas Rivera Policy Institute, 2004). The Tomas Rivera Policy Institute, (1992) revealed that Latino parents’ lack of college knowledge can handicap their children’s futures (Tomas Rivera Policy Institute, 2004). The Tomas Rivera Policy Institute also stated that even though Latino parents do not know it, their lack of school knowledge is impacting their children’s futures indirectly.

According to the census, only one-third of Mexicans under the age of eighteen have attained a higher education. Consequently, universities are concerned that every year Latinos are underrepresented in their schools. Moreover, according to Latinos in Higher Education, only thirty-five percent of Latino high school graduates enroll in college, whereas forty-six percent of the Anglo population enrolls in college. Not only do Mexican-Americans/Chicanos have a high dropout rate, they also tend to have the highest number of absences from
school. Mexican-American children are the second largest minority group in the nation's public schools.

Similarly, Martinez (1980) studied and surveyed Latino parents and the students' experience about school in Lane County, Oregon schools. According to Martinez et al. (1984), "about 50% of Latino students reported having experienced discrimination for being Latino or observed this type of discrimination occurring to someone else" (p. 141). Both Latino student groups reported experiencing more barriers to participation in school activities (e.g., not receiving information, not having time because of work, prohibitive fees, not feeling comfortable around school people) than non-Latino students" (p. 141). Martinez found that parental involvement in homework and academic encouragement played a big role in students not dropping out of school. Comparative findings showed that Latino students experience an unacceptably high rate of institutional barriers (e.g., discrimination, low access to staff resources) that can impede their progress at school. "Latino students and parents also reported experiencing more barriers to their participation at school than did non-Latino students and parents, although Latino students
did not indicate they were particularly likely to drop out of school, they reported being more likely to do so than their non-Latino peers” (Martinez et al., 1984, p. 145).

Martinez’s (1980) study also looked at acculturation. Here he found that students felt they needed to acculturate quickly in order to succeed in school. It appeared that some Latino students had a difficult time acculturating to the Anglo school system; thus, leading these students to have a difficult time in school. Therefore, according to Martinez, level of acculturation was a good predictor of whether the student had better school outcomes.

“Latino parents reported having had somewhat more unwelcoming experiences at their children’s school than non-Latino parents” (Martinez, 1980, p. 145).

For the prediction models, data collected on student acculturation, institutional barriers, and academic encouragement (particularly by parents) were important predictors of school success for Latinos. Higher levels of academic and institutional barriers, measured by discriminatory experiences and satisfaction
with school resources, translated to lower likelihood of successful grades and projected likelihood of staying in school. On the other hand, the data showed that academic encouragement by parents and extracurricular encouragement by school staff members served as a key protective factor promoting school success for Latino youths. (p. 145) Martinez found that if students received academic encouragement from their parents and if the student was helped with homework assignments all the time that would significantly predict academic success. Martinez continued, "The fact that encouragement experienced at school was correlated with encouragement at home, coupled with the fact that these two variables predict school success, underscores the potential importance of positive parent school relationships for Latino students" (p. 143).

In a study done by Stanton-Salazar, and Vasquez, (2001), with regard to teachers, the findings suggest that teachers and administrators must be equipped to deal with children in their diverse cultures when in classrooms. The study emphasizes that teachers must also
be culturally sensitive toward the student’s identity. Finally it stresses that teachers must be willing to familiarize themselves with standard materials when such a multicultural program is engaged (Martinez, 1980, p. 146).

Additionally, Stanton-Salazar (2001) found that a large sample of Latino adolescent students, lacked trust in teachers and this lack of “confianza” (trust) inhibited the student from asking for assistance or support from either the teacher, parents, or peers (Stanton-Salazar, 2001).

Stanton-Salazar, Vasquez, and Mehan, (2000) have stated that Latino students tend to connect with only two or three of their teachers. In fact, Latino adolescents felt they had to have the teachers win their trust. In addition, these students did not have good experiences nor did they have role models such as teachers, counselors, and staff members.

Therefore, institutional mediations or family- and community based cultural strategies operate principally as a buffer against the full burden of class and racial stratification that is pervasive in the dominant culture of education.
and social policy. What is needed are more systematic efforts that integrate family, community, and school efforts that foster social skills and problem-solving styles, network building, role modeling, advocacy, and mobilization of resources across multiple sites. (Stanton-Salazar, Vasquez, & Mehan, 2000, p. 147)

Martinez (1980) stated that at times the school system must change to address the need of structural barriers for Latino students. These findings implicate Latino parents and family as being essential to, and perhaps more proximal to, student outcomes. Familia is the most powerful protective force for many Latino children. We need to develop better strategies that enhance parents’ abilities to promote success for their children. These strategies need to be developed in partnership with communities and schools.

In looking at why Latinos have such high dropout rates, a study must also look at the constructive aspects in order to look at the whole picture. Therefore, it is important to note that Swail stated that a second social factor for students was parental and peer support. While
some Latino parents may feel frustrated with their child’s school system, other Latino parents, wanted to help their children in school. According to Freelove (1993), low-income minority parents felt they needed to be involved in their child’s education.

Similar to Freelove, Martinez and DeGarmo (1993) studied 564 young Latinos and their parents in Oregon. In this survey, the students and the parents felt that they dealt with discrimination at schools. The less likely the students were to assimilate, the more likely the students would drop out (p. 129). In addition, sometimes the parents felt they did not have the skills to help their child. These skills included English-speaking limitations. Freelove suggested, that lack of early parental involvement leads to high numbers of Latinos not succeeding in higher education. According to Freelove, Hispanic families need support in order for children to succeed.

Another study found that Latino parents’ attitudes toward their children’s education was a positive one. These parents believed and stated that their children need to be educated so that in the near future their children would not suffer. The parents understand that
without their children attending universities or colleges, they may have a difficult time finding jobs (Lopez, Madrid-Barela, & Macias, 1992).

In another study, Arellano and Padilla (1996) examined role models and found that positive role models do influence Mexican students. They also found that for those parents with the least education, positive role models, and mentors were essential in order to guide the student in terms of higher education and where to apply for schools. The parents, even if they did not have much education, did encourage the students.

Finally, these students had a strong sense of self; they were confident about their ability to be successful in schooling. However, the study only looked at two students who did complete their education at Stanford University. These two individuals were interviewed; one was a female and the other was a male. The study looked at the students' schooling experience, and what motivated them to continue with higher education. The female stated that she has encouraged and supported to continue by her mother who worked in physical labor. The male in the study also stated that his mother was key to his studies. She encouraged and supported him to continue with
education in order to succeed in life. Both of the subjects stated that even if their mother had limited schooling, the mothers were strict about their children’s education. The male’s father only went to school up to third grade and because the male subject noted that his dad work so hard and for little money, their school experience dealt with racism, classism, poverty, and female sexism, which they felt they overcame.

Even though Arellano & Padilla, 1996 are aware that it is not possible to generalize their findings from these two cases, they argue that Latino students, like the female and male in the abovementioned, can be successful in school. Some people could argue that these two Latinos were lucky and that their success is atypical. Arellano & Padilla, 1996 argue, however, that the female and male Latinos succeeded because they “managed to learn what the middle class take for granted that there is class- and culture-bound knowledge that is necessary to succeed in higher education” (Arellano & Padilla, 1996; Lopez, 1995). In other words, a parent’s aspiration for his or her son or daughter to get a college education is not sufficient enough. For example, the female’s mother supported her with every ounce of her
energy, but she lacked the required knowledge of how the system works. Although support is a very necessary component of each informant's success, it was only when this support was coupled with knowledge of the system that these individuals were able to achieve as much as they did. Without support, there was a good chance that these individuals would have only graduated from high school and/or possibly would have joined the military service (p. 168).

As cited by Cabrera, Padilla in “Entering and Succeeding in the Culture of College”: The Story of Two Mexican Heritage Students according to the literature on Latino students there has been concentration on their poor school achievement. The reasons for this underachievement have been credited to such obstacles as low proficiency in English, immigrant parents with little knowledge of the educational system in this country, mismatch between the schools' culture and the child’s cultural at home, thus leading to few Latino role models and mentors. Not having someone to lookup to with the same culture as theirs may contribute to the low school performance of Latino students.
Similarly, Leitch and Tangri (1988) looked at parental involvement in two inner city junior high schools. According to Leitch and Tangri, (1988) Latino parents valued the importance of their child's education and wanted to be provided with more information about their children's schooling and ways to help them. These parents wanted to help their children understand their subjects, and the parents also wanted support groups. These parents also wanted to find new creative ways to help their children with their homework (Williams and Chavkin, 1989). For example, some parents still remember what happened in the 1930’s in the Texas Department of Education; the segregation of Mexican children was allowed on the grounds of their language and culture being different.

According to the school members, they believed that it would be appropriate to say Mexican children "needed special training teachers and special training resources" (Donato 1997). Even the state officials agreed that Mexican children’s culture and linguistic deficiencies "must be corrected" before Mexican children were allowed to interact with Anglo children (Donato, 1997). In addition, the Texas officials supported isolating them as
a way to give Mexican children less schooling, inferior buildings, equipment and poorly, paid teachers Donato (1997).

Carbo (1989), interviewed novelist Victor Villaseñor a Chicano Novelist. Carbo found that Villaseñor had a lot to say with regards to discrimination against Mexicans. Literature became a vehicle through which he could vent the anger, frustration, and rage that had been simmering inside him since childhood. These negative emotions were deeply rooted within him because of growing up in California, where he says he had experienced the effects of institutionalized racism and prejudice toward Mexicans. (p. 112)

Growing up in California was rough. They treated Mexicans like dogs because so many of them came to work in the fields. Mexicans who come here are still mistreated not only in California but everywhere, Villaseñor says with characteristic frankness. (p. 115)

In schools and at work, non-Hispanic Americans made him feel ashamed of his Mexican heritage, which he learned about through his mother, Lupe Gomez Villaseñor, his
father, Juan Salvador Villaseñor, and other family members (p. 116).

Learning Disabilities

Whether or not learning disabilities are common in Mexicans/Chicanos is not known at this time. However, whether parents and students who know and understand what it means to have a learning disability can help them get appropriate assistance to continue with higher education.

According to Villaseñor, in “Have you ever known a dyslexic?” those with dyslexia usually prefer not to read. When asked why it took him so many years to read his first novel he responded,

Most dyslexics will tell you that they don’t like to read. It’s hard for them to see things in the linear. So as a result, most of them don’t like school. It’s a daily struggle to read. (p. 119)

With regards to this quote, higher education requires and demands a lot of reading, writing and hard work. Thus, Villaseñor has indicated that people with dyslexia (or other learning disabilities) struggle through schooling.
But most important, learning disabilities are possible to conquer.

Theories Guiding Conceptualization

According to Gorski, (2001) multicultural education is an approach for teachers and other professionals to keep in mind when working with minorities. Multicultural education is based on the idea of reducing social injustice, and providing education equity to all students. By applying the multicultural model, discrimination and racism decreases in schools. In addition, this multicultural model makes the teachers work with culturally diverse students. The multicultural model does not allow the teachers' biases to get in the way of teaching. As a result, all students are treated equally.

According to the multicultural education, one goal may be to add gradually and positively to society’s norm. In other words, the multicultural education changes the stasis quo by allowing and respecting students’ individual cultures. Finally the multicultural education also protects schools social justice and equity for all children. The result of the multicultural education is
allowing reconsideration of standardized exams that tend to be culturally biased. Finally it causes the dominant framework in schools to remember that their classism and racism needs to be omitted.

Similarly, Ceballo, (2004) in looking at parental lack of school knowledge, found, instead of this being a hindrance, multicultural education was seen as more positive experience. Ceballo pointed out that Mexican parents overcompensate in other areas by being supportive at home. For instance, parents’ views of their children’s education were extremely important and positive. The parents in the study believed their children should continue with higher education.

Ceballo (2004) added that Latino parents not only see the importance of their children continuing and succeeding in schooling, but that the parents force their children to attend school and succeed even though their knowledge of how to assist their children with school work is limited. Ceballo (2004) stated that Latino parents lack knowledge of ways of helping their children in their schooling, and tended to provide nonverbal or indirect cues as a means of parental support. These nonverbal or indirect cues included hugs or telling their
children it is okay to stay up late, but as soon as they are done with their homework, they must go to sleep. Other nondirect cues included when parents excused their children from activities such as parties, cooking, and babysitting when their child had any school related requirements.

In a study done by Arellano and Padilla (1996), 30 Mexican students were looked at. Three major contributing factors that helped the students succeed with their schoolwork were found. Mexican students valued the importance of both parental support and encouragement despite the fact that their parents' education and involvement was limited.

Stevenson et al., (1990) surveyed 1000 Latino mothers who had limited education. The survey revealed that the mothers' attitudes toward their children's schooling was a positive and supportive one (Fuligni, 1997; Stevenson et al., 1990). These mothers stated that school is the key to success, and the only way for their children not to "sweat in labor work" is through schooling. They viewed schooling as the American dream, in order for their children not to be poor. Finally, many parents regretted not having an opportunity to attend
strong maternal role model, and strong emotional support” in the family. Gandara (1980) added that Chicanos who continued and succeeded with higher education emphasized the working model of both their parents, and their own traits as being hard working and persistent individuals.

Cuadraz (1989) found that both male and female Chicano students who had completed a doctoral program viewed schooling as a way of “showing gratitude” for their parents’ hard work and struggle. Cuadraz added that Chicano students who pursued higher education stated they did it to take advantage of the opportunity their parents did not receive. This meant that the students would do well for all the “sacrifices” of their parents’ (1989).

Astin and Burciaga (1981) found that Chicanos who pursue higher education focus on three factors: “strong family and parental support, the perception of college as a personal challenge, and well-defined educational goals and interests.”

Other contributing factors for Mexicans to continue or not to continue with higher education included parents seen as role models (Hepner, 1970). Hepner (1970) found that Mexican students’ lack of positive role models was one component for dropping out of school (1970). In the
study, role models meant having Mexican teachers and social workers who the Mexican student could identify with or someone who encouraged these students to continue with higher education. In fact, for the most part, Mexican Americans normally do not have role models such as doctors, lawyers, or other professionals (Hepner, 1970). Due to the lack of limited support from role models, the students were not likely to seek out higher education.

Hepner, (1970) added that Mexican American women tend to value their mothers and peers as role models. Therefore, if the mother is married, the student also tended to follow the steps of the mother, get married and have children, thus leaving schooling aside. Likewise, Gonzales (1982) suggested that Mexican-American females tended to be highly influenced by their female role models. In Gonzales' study, Mexican American women were considered to be mothers, sisters, or aunts (Hepner, 1970).

If the above is correct, then it is important to Mexican Americans/Chicanos to look at family dynamics in order to understand why Chicanos continue with education at the postsecondary level. Looking at family factors can
help make it clearer how much influence women may have on Mexican American students' lives. Thus it is important to have positive healthy female role models who do continue with higher education. By having positive role models, more minorities will complete their college degrees (Cortese, 1992a; Fiske, 1988; Madrid, 1988; Vasquez, 1982). Perhaps knowing the importance that the family plays is the first step in helping students.

Teacher’s Views on Mexican Children

In addition to parents having an influence on their children's education, teachers also had an influence on whether Mexican students continued or not with higher education.

Studies revealed that teachers who had a positive attitude, and who were sensitive to their students' cultures had Mexican students who did succeed.

According to Hughes (2003), one influence on Latino students' success in their education was the teachers (Hughes, 2003). Hughes investigated 32 high school graduates of Mexican-descent who later enrolled in higher education. He found that teachers played a big part in these students' success stories. Hughes added that if
teachers were sensitive and were aware of the students' cultures, the students tended to succeed. In addition, if the teacher was able to respect the students' cultures, respecting difference and including it in the curriculum, it was found to be beneficial to students advancing to higher education. Additionally, teachers who avoided stereotyping minority groups were also found to aid students' success. According to Hughes (2003), if Latino students have a positive experience with their teachers, they succeeded in their education. It is essential to look at teachers and their role in teaching Mexican-American students.

Franquiz (2004) examined how teachers' validation of and respect for students helped Mexican-American children complete their elementary and secondary schooling. According to Franquiz (2004), Chicanos/Mexicans tended to succeed if they felt teachers valued them as individuals. In addition to Mexican students feeling valued, if teachers were able to respect, trust, verbally encourage and praise Mexican students, students completed schooling.

Franquiz, (2004) pointed out that although Mexican students tended to lack teachers' trust, if the teacher
won the students' trust, then the students were likely to succeed. Teachers won their trust by being supportive, and helpful in class. Dwight (1978) also stated that teachers make a big contribution to whether Mexican children will continue with higher education. Ovando (1989) also asserted that if there is a good and positive relationship between student and teacher, it may be a good predictor that the student will continue on to higher education. However, if the students have a negative experience, they may not want to continue with schooling.

A negative experience could be if Mexican children are tracked, misjudged, or misclassified in regards to their learning abilities. In addition, Robert et al. (1978), Rayes (1957) stated that in the past many Mexican American students have been labeled retarded as a result of low I.Q. scores, low reading ability, and for speaking Spanish. This can be seen as a self-fulfilling prophecy. Robert et al. (1978) stated that Mexican children may be labeled as lazy, dumb, and stupid. In addition, when Mexican children get called names, they may develop an inferiority complex, which may be one reason for them to
drop out early from school and perhaps join gangs as a way of acceptance (Rayes, 1957; & Robert et al., 1978).

Guerra (1989) also looked at students’ feeling inferior. He pointed out that Professor George Sanchez has noted that Mexican children are attending school, but the students start to feel frustrated and upset that they do not speak English and they do not fit in. These children may feel an inferiority complex which maybe one reason for them to drop out (Guerra, 1989).

Takesian (1997) has noted that the dropout rate for Mexican students in elementary school is increasing at high levels. According to Takesian, children feel frustrated, tense, and rejected in their school, which leads them to drop out. Research shows that one of the reasons for such a high drop out rate among Mexican children is that the students are discontented with the school. The students feel they do not “fit in” because they have a different culture and different language. Thus the student at a young age tends to develop a negative attitude toward school (Abbott, 1955).

In another study, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), looked at how a teacher’s attitude could impact the child’s self-fulfilling prophecy. For example, when a
teacher has an expectation of a student, two things may occur: one, either the student plays the role that is expected from her/his schooling (Brophy, 1983) or two, the teacher's beliefs/expectations of the student are so ingrained in their mind that if the student was to improve, the teacher would not notice or would not reward the Mexican student (Green, 1990). Thus if students are not validated by the teachers, they are more likely to drop out of school and not continue with higher education. They are more likely to fall into the self-fulfilling prophecy of being retarded, lazy, dumb or inferior (Rays et al., 1980).

Carter (1979) pointed out that in addition to miscategorizing, teachers also seemed to ignore Mexican children in class and demand minimal performance from them. If teachers instill these values in young Mexican children, it is no wonder many have dropped out and have been discouraged from seeking out higher education. Not only is it a disservice to children to be socialized in this manner, it is inhumane.

Stella (1974) also found in a limited study that teachers tended to have "favored the interaction" with Anglo children rather than Mexican American children. In
the same study, Mexican American children appeared not to interact as much as the Anglo children did, and the teachers also tended to ask the Anglo children more questions.

Arciniega, (1984) points out that when teachers had a negative attitude, low expectations, and negative interaction with the students, Mexican Americans would not succeed. If this is true then teachers and other professionals must work hard to empower the Latino community. In order to help Mexican students, it is important to help teachers understand all students' uniqueness. In addition, training teachers to be more culturally sensitive is essential.

Similarly, Posnick-Goodwin pointed out the importance of teachers' challenging all students regardless of their ability. In her study she looked at Bennett-Kew elementary in Inglewood, which seemed to be composed of 95 percent minority students. There she found that teachers did treat students differently. Teachers would praise and reward children who did well in class. Rewards included allowing the student(s) to have free time when they finished their work. However, for those students who lagged, the teacher did not pay too much
attention to them. This again could play into the self-fulfilling prophecy; when the teachers ignore the students, the students could internalize the feedback and believe that the teacher sees them as dumb and not capable of doing their work. Posnick-Goodwin added ways for teachers to help these children, which included raising expectations for all students, coaching all students, creating new ways of showing parents how to make sure that their children’s schoolwork is done before coming to class.

Finally, Klingner stated that there are many times that teachers misdiagnose Mexican children and place them in lower class levels. In some cases the teacher would place them in special education because they could not understand English. These teachers failed to look at the whole language component.

Baca and Cervantes (1998) believe that Mexican children are inappropriately represented in special education because of teachers not taking into account culture and linguistics. It was estimated that more than 3.5 million students in U.S. schools have limited English proficiency (The U.S. Department of Education, 2003). It was also estimated in 2000 that 42.6 percent of the
school-age population in California was lagging in English and spoke a language other than English at home (U.S. Department of Education, 2003).

Without looking at institutions, one cannot see the whole picture. Institutions have a great impact on whether Mexican Americans/Chicanos will continue or not with higher education. Students and parents feel they are being discriminated against by the school system; they may not want anything to do with the school. Students and parents felt upset and discriminated against when they could not speak their language at school. For example, experts believe that it is a disservice to their children when Mexican parents tend to only speak Spanish. For instance, Clifford et al. (1970) noted that speaking Spanish is a problem.

According to Clifford, one predictor for Mexican Americans not to succeed is that they speak Spanish. Clifford added that speaking Spanish is an obstacle that keeps Mexican Americans from achieving in school. Clifford continued that the language actually keeps Mexican Americans from progressing. He claims that if Mexican Americans use Spanish as a persistent symbol and instrument, this isolates them from other children.
Clifford added that speaking Spanish could contribute to retardation in educational and occupational achievement.

Similarly, Rodriguez, (1982) affirms the need for Mexican Americans to do without speaking Spanish in order for the student to be able to succeed and gain the dominant society's ideas. Indeed, if the students manage to survive using English as their main language and have aspirations of school achievement then Mexican Americans have a great chance to be college graduates (Hoyes, 1971; Melville, 1980).

On the other hand, Rogers states that language is only a handicap if it restricts an individual to using only one language in full text. Rogers added that Mexican children tend to use both at the same time; this may be called "Spanglish." Robert, Rogers and Galvan (1978) added that language itself is not a handicap but the handicap was formed when a child needed to quickly learn and apply the dominant English language (1978).

Another concern of institutions was that, at the state level, Mexican children do fall under the categories of learning disability, mentally retarded, and emotionally disturbed (Artiles, Rueda, Salazar, & Higareda, 2003).
Artiles, Rueda, Salazar, and Higareda, (2003) believed that minorities are being underrepresented in schools but they are overrepresented when there is a diagnosis. This article continues by saying that only professionals who are trained can diagnose the children but in fact, teachers are diagnosing. In 12 schools they found that teachers, who are important members of the child’s Individualized Education Program (IEP), paid little attention to the child’s culture (Klingner, Harry, Sturges, Artiles, & Wimes, 2003).

In addition, Ochoa, Rivera, and Powell (1997) surveyed 859 school psychologists to see if they were doing what is needed for the correct testing of minorities. The findings revealed that only six percent of psychologists did ask if there was a learning problem at home and if they spoke some other language at home; however, the other psychologists omitted the fact that the students had a different language at home. They failed to do school visits in order to see how the child was doing in class, and depended on the teacher to tell them how the student was doing (1997). Schools failed to take into account the student’s language or cultural background. Of course, the standardized tests revealed
that Mexican students who spoke some other language at home would lack vocabulary skills, and were limited in English language skills (Garcia & Pearson, 1994).

"Many standardized tests (for example, intelligence, oral language proficiency, and achievement tests) yield valid scores for most students but tend to underestimate the potential of culturally and linguistically diverse students" (Abedi, 2002). "One suggestion for solving this problem was to stop using IQ tests as a way to label or to decide who qualifies for special education services" (Fletcher et al., 2002).

Linan-Thompson and colleagues (2003) examined the three-tiered model with English language learners as a way to solve the biased testing problem and as a way of taking into account the students’ culture and language. According to this study’s findings, the schools fail to take into consideration the language and culture of the Chicano student. In addition, Mexican American parents are largely excluded from their child’s school participation (Abbott, 1955).

A report done by California State University, found that 26 percent of the total public schools’ populations in California consisted of Hispanics. In kindergarten
alone Hispanics make up 34 percent of all children in California.

Student not only felt they did not fit in, but another concern of institutions was that, at the state level, Mexican children do fall under the categories of Learning Disability, mental retarded, and emotionally disturbed (Artiles, Rueda, Salazar, & Higareda, 2003).

Summary

This chapter has covered themes about theories, what has occurred historically, and what is ideal in working with Mexican American/ Chicano students.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

Introduction

This section explains how the data were collected. It includes where the data was collected, the specific sample size, what specific study design was used, what was expected from the subjects, human subject information, the questions asked, procedures, and finally the data analysis.

Study Design

The purpose for this study was a dual one. First, the study explored the major factors in Mexican-American education. Second, the study took a closer look at what type of support systems Mexican American/Chicano students have to continue with higher education in order to produce more success stories.

The study utilized 27 self-reporting questionnaires to assess the views of Mexican American college students and their attitudes on schooling. This study used a quantitative method research design in order to help students describe their schooling experiences, what motivated them, or what discouraged them from continuing
with higher education, such as obtaining a Bachelor’s degree or higher.

The study examined what the subjects perceived to be important in order to continue with higher education, and at the same time allowed the participants to describe their school experiences. In this study, it was extremely important to have the success stories of these students’ journeys to higher education. In this manner, those students who did continue with schooling could elaborate on the questionnaire about the issues they dealt with while attending school.

Some of the implications may include the researcher looking at part-time students versus full time students or professors not allowing the researcher to get a basic sign-up sheet in their class of Mexican American/Chicano students who could participate. A hypothesis would be that teachers and parents play a significant role in whether the students continue in higher education.

Sampling

Participants for this study included 50 CSUSB Mexican American/Chicano students. The subjects were between the ages of 18-40. The subjects answered a
self-report questionnaire either on campus or somewhere else. The subject and researcher arranged an appointment that was convenient for them both. The subjects were located through Chicano study courses at CSUSB.

Participants were solicited by asking professors for permission to circulate a sign-up sheet in class to identify willing subjects, asking Dr. Valdez from the sociology department to help with distributing. In addition, having the Disabled Student Services, the Writing Center, and the Adult Reentry Group circulate the questionnaires, and finally, asking individual Mexican, Mexican-American, Chicano students to participate in the study.

Participants were chosen based on the following criteria: Mexican, Mexican-Americans, Chicanos ages 18-40, attending CSUSB, and are working towards obtaining a Bachelors or a Masters degree.

Data Collection and Instruments

The instrument was a self-report questionnaire (Appendix A). This questionnaire asked the student subjects questions about their parents’ role in their schooling as well as their teachers, and other influences
that encouraged or discouraged them from attending higher education. Mexican Americans and Chicanos who were seeking higher education provided relevant information for the study.

The instrument used to collect data contained 27 open and closed ended questions. The open-ended questions elicited answers from the students at an individual and personal level. The questions began with individual characteristics such as the subject’s age, if the subject had a learning disability, and if they lived with the parent/guardian. Other questions asked were whether parental involvement, and parental support made a difference in their seeking higher education. The participants answered questions on their life experience with regards to higher education. For instance, did the student feel that he/she received encouragement and support in school? Conversely, if the subject did not have a pleasant experience in school, they were asked about that schooling experience. It was expected that the open-ended questions would further support the statistical study. The questionnaire also had questions regarding the subject’s parents’ level of education, and what their parents expected from their schooling.
Additional questions examined relationships with teachers and role models. The instrument for this study was based on ideas from a previous study by Takesian (1967).

The independent variables were the following: schooling, teachers, parent involvement/family support, gender, and age. Some of the dependant variables include: whether the students received encouragement or financial needs met by the parents.

Procedures

The data were collected from CSUSB Mexican American/Chicanos students. Subjects were called to set an appointment for the questionnaire.

All participants were given an informed consent form and they were told that they could stop at any time. The informed consent form gave permission to do the study.

Protection of Human Subjects

Participants in this study were adult university students between the ages of 18-40. All subjects participating in the study were given an informed consent form (Appendix B). All subjects were given the phone number of the researcher’s supervisor. All participants
had the right to refuse to answer a question or all questions at anytime.

Data Analysis

Data was collected via questionnaires given to CSUSB Mexican-American, or Chicano students. They answered a self-questionnaire, which looked at parental involvement, teacher's attitude, school systems, and other contributing factors that play a role in minorities and higher education.

Summary

The study is a qualitative study to look at Mexican-American CSUSB students' support systems and their views on higher education. This data was gathered by asking Mexican-American/Chicano CSUSB students' questions about their family's views on schooling, and the way they perceived their education. All questionnaires are confidential and therefore the names and personal information of participants were not given.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter will include results of the CSUSB student participants' responses. The students were given a self-report questionnaire. Each of the variables was assigned a numerical value. The SPSS program was used to analyze the data. Chi-squares and frequency distributions were prepared for the study.

Presentation of the Findings

Even though CSUSB student participants were open and able to express themselves through this closed ended questionnaire, there were some questionnaires that had to be omitted due to incomplete forms. Out of 200 questionnaires distributed, 150 questionnaires were collected and fifty were used.

Sixty-six percent of participants were female as compared to thirty-four percent which were males. Either more females attend the CSUSB system or more females were willing to participate. Twenty-two of the participants were Mexican-American/Chicano first generation. Twelve individuals considered themselves Mexicans and five
considered themselves Mexican-American/Chicano second generation. Out of the fifty participants, forty-four stated they grew up in California whereas six did not.

According to the results, eighty-eight percent of the participants grew up in California, eighty-six percent attended school in California, and twenty-eight percent had parents who were from counties other than the United States. At times, these families were composed of large groups. In this study, the number of siblings per household, including participants, ranged from six to eight siblings (4%). Twenty-eight percent of the study’s participants, the mode, indicated they had four siblings including themselves in their households.

Traditional families tend to play a significant role for Mexican-American students; this is reflected in that thirty-nine percent lived at home with both parents. Twenty-eight percent of the participating students identified themselves as first generation Mexican-American/Chicanos. Seventy-six percent of students were pursuing Bachelor of Arts degrees. Sixty-six percent of the mothers, as well as seventy-eight percent of the fathers, of the participants had some high school education.
Fifty-six percent stated that they had family obligations that prevented them from completing their homework. Eighty-two percent stated they did not have a learning disability. Seventy-eight percent stated they do not do their homework in the morning. Ninety-two percent stated they do not do their homework in class. Sixty-six percent stated they do their homework in the evening. Fifty-two percent stated they do their homework at night.

Sixty-two percent stated they felt they had obstacles that prevented them from studying. Twelve percent of the students stated that one of their obstacles was a lack of family support.

Seventy percent of the students stated they did not feel they were discriminated against in school. According to the study, sixty percent of students had not heard a teacher use negative, racially related comments. Twenty percent of the students believed they had obstacles that may prevent them from completing their higher education degree. Sixty-four percent of the students stated that they felt their parents understood that school may take longer than the student planned. Fifty-four percent stated that they do not live with their parents.
Fifty-six percent of participants stated they did not seek out tutors.

Students were asked if they would consider furthering their higher education by working on a PhD program; eight-six percent stated they would consider it. Forty-six percent of students stated they receive A and B grades. One-third of those (thirty-one percent) stated they felt they received support from outside their families. Eighteen percent stated that the kind of support they felt was emotional.

In this study, when looking at gender and grades there was a significant relationship. Females had higher grades than males did (See Appendix D).

The importance of school is measured independently; ninety-four percent of students felt that school is extremely important where as six percent did not. Seventy-four percent of participants stated that their mothers' attitudes about education were supportive and encouraging. In addition, seventy-four percent stated that their fathers' attitudes about education were supportive and encouraging. Eighty-eight percent stated they had a person that they modeled themselves after. Sixty-six percent stated that their role models were
teachers and mentors. When comparing who was a role model and hearing teachers say negative racial comments there was no significant relationship.

Results in this study revealed that there were no major significant factors. Out of the 150 returned surveys, only 50 were completed and used for this study. This could have decreased the possibility of finding significant results due to a small sample.

For instance, parents' highest level of education and parents' attitude toward education, the mother's attitude in regards to higher education and the father's education were not significantly correlated. Similarly, mothers' highest level of education, were not correlated with mothers' highest education and what gender the student was the relationship-approached significance, \( p = .051 \). When looking at the fathers' highest education degree and the students' gender, the relationship between the two was not significant. In addition, fathers' attitude about education and fathers' highest education level was not significant. When looking at the fathers' attitude about education and the mothers' highest education there was no significant association.
Summary

The purpose of this study was to look at Latinos and higher education. It focused on the support network, and parent involvement. One reason to research this issue is that there is an increased dropout rate among Latinos. In addition, findings from this study could be used to empower Latino students, Latino parents, social workers and other professionals.
CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to take a closer look at Mexican-Americans/Chicanos points of view on higher education, and to look at ways to help improve their quality of schooling. This chapter’s limitations will be examined and further suggestions for other studies will be made.

Bivariate findings were not significant except for gender and grades. Learning disabilities (LD) were not a concern to CSUSB students either. As research illustrated, LD students are two times more likely to drop out of school and likely to have dropped out before attending the university or they may have an LD but it is not detected or treated (Donnelly 2000). Perhaps those students did not feel they had an LD.

Living with parents may be economically beneficial and appeared to be the situation for most traditional students. Succeeding in school may require seeking out tutors especially if students do not understand the subject; this did not seem to be an issue in this study.
Support and encouragement are important aspects to continuing in higher education; the students in this study stated they felt they did receive support and encouragement from their family members.

Students learn from role models; the students in this study stated they had role models including teachers.

Some students wrote about the struggles of having to work and not having enough time for higher education. Other students wrote about the wonderful experience and support contributed by their families during schooling. Still, others wrote about the difficult times they had with some of their teachers. However, for the most part in this study, the students wrote about the good experiences in their schooling.

There was no significant relation between parents’ education and having role models. Hepner, (1982) added that Mexican American women tend to value their mothers and peers as role models. This means that if the mother is married the daughters also tend to follow the steps of the mother and get married and have children. Likewise, Gonzales, (1982) suggested that female role models tended to be highly influential for younger Mexican American
women. According to Gonzales, it is the mother, sister, or aunt who tends to get married and not seek out higher education.

Vasquez (1992) found that Mexican females' traditional roles may create conflict with views of higher education when their role model may be someone that does not have a college degree or is not in school.

Neither fathers' nor mothers' highest education level influenced whether these participants would stop with higher education. This was not significantly correlated.

Likewise, student's stated that obstacles would prevent the students' higher education. Finally, the highest level of education of fathers or mothers was not correlated.

Arellano and Padilla (1996) stated the importance of role models for Mexican children, whereas in this study, this relationship was not significant. The current study illustrated that when it came to role models twenty-one percent of females in the study stated their role models were family members and friends, and twelve percent of males stated their role models were family members and
friends. Twelve females and five males stated their role models were teachers or mentors.

Results from Headden (1997) support that parents’ involvement is an important factor that will help children continue with higher education.

A factor that may stop students from pursuing higher education for twenty-four females and thirteen males was the lack of financial means.

When looking at gender and the type of support each gender received, twelve females versus five males stated they received financial, emotional, and encouraging support from their parents. This was not significant. Ceballo (2004) stated that Latino parents lack knowledge of ways of helping their children in their schooling, and tended to provide nonverbal or indirect cues as a means of parental support.

Fourteen of both genders in the study from a traditional family (living with both parents) received financial, emotional, and encouragement support. Eleven of the participants stated they received financial and housing assistance.

There was, however, a significant difference when it came to grades and gender differences. The study revealed
that ten females and only four males are currently receiving A’s and B’s in their classes. This may be because more females participated in the study than males did.

Limitations

One limitation of this study was its size; it only looked at fifty questionnaires due to some students not answering all the questions. In the case where the questions were not answered completely the survey was discarded. Some recommendations for future studies include providing clearer instructions for students to increase the number of questions answered. Lack of significant findings could be because the statistics used and the method of analyzing the data may not have been powerful enough.

Also, the findings cannot be generalized because most of the participants were from traditional families and lived in the local area. The study did not take into account the influence of university locations and whether or not Mexican American students are more likely to seek out higher education when there is a university in their neighborhood. This could be looked at in future research.
A possible factor that may have influenced the results of the study was that almost thirty-one percent of the students lived at home with both parents. Thus, results of this study looked at one-third of the surveys received, which were from traditional households.

Another possibility that could have influenced the results' accuracy was that a large number of students on the California State University, San Bernardino campus were first generation college students. There was a concern that this particular survey may not accurately assess perceived parental expectations, because the study only looked at the students' point of view. Perhaps some parents had different educational objectives than their sons/daughters, yet at the same time they had not discussed these goals with their child (R. Ricco, personal communication, May 5, 1999).

Recommendations for Future Studies Practice, Policy and Research

Recommendations include that future researchers include night students in order to also take into account the views of part-time students.

It is also recommended that future studies focus on developing a clearer meaning of identity, for instance,
making it a little more clear what the difference is between Mexican-American, and Chicano. People identify themselves differently, and it should not affect results; however, it appeared that some students hesitated with that question. This was evident by students skipping the question, asking for clarifications, or circling more than one option.

The university and social workers need to help empower Latinos in their higher education in order to increase the educational rate among this disenfranchised group of individuals. Social workers can provide counseling at a young age to minority students in order to help them build their self-esteem. In addition, social works can assist by believing in the students abilities and praising his/her accomplishments and goals met.

Conclusions
This project looked at different components that influence Mexican American/Chicano students in their higher education. Even though most of the factors were not significant, gender was significant.
It is important to remember that the study only looked at CSUSB students and could not be generalized to all Mexican American/Chicano students.
APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE
Please circle or write the answer closest to your own experience.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Where did you grow up?
2. Where did you go to school?
3. Where do your parents come from?
4. Gender
   Female
   Male
5. Number of siblings (include yourself) ______
6. Do you live with:
   both parents
   mother
   father
   other
7. What do you consider yourself?
   Mexican
   Mexican-American (first-generation)
   Mexican-American second-generation
   Chicanos first-generation
   Chicano second-generation

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

8. What degree are you currently working on?
   BA
   Masters
9. What is the highest education you parents obtained?
   Mother                   Father
   Grade school             Grade school
   High school              High school
   BA                       BA
   Masters                  Masters
   PhD                      PhD
   None of the above        None of the above
10. While attending school, did you run into any family obligations, which prevented you from doing your homework? (I.e., helping your mother with house chores versus doing your homework, taking a part time job, etc).
   Yes
   No

11. Do you have a learning disability?
   Yes
   No

12. When do you do homework?
   Mornings
   In class
   Evenings
   Nights when everyone is sleeping

13. Do you feel you have overcome obstacles that prevented you from studying? If so what type of obstacles are they? (Please write it out in the space provided)
   Yes
   No

14. Have you or your family members ever felt discriminated against at school and wanted to drop out of school because of it?
   Yes
   No

15. Have you ever heard a teacher state rude or mean things about your capacity because of your race/ethnicity?
   Yes
   No

16. What do you consider or anticipate may stop you from continuing in higher education?

17. Do you think you would continue in higher education such as a PhD, or a Masters if you had the financial means?
   Yes
   No
18. What type of grades do you receive? (Now)
   A'S
   B'S
   C'S
   D'S
   LOWER THAN D'S

SUPPORT

19. Do you receive support from outside your immediate family?

20. If you feel you get support from your family? Please indicate what type of support you receive in your family.

21. Do you think/feel your parents understand that school may take longer than one plans? I.e. six years rather than four years
   Yes
   No

22. Do you live with your parents? If so does it benefit your schooling or hinder it? (Please write in space provided).
   Yes
   No

23. If you had a difficult time with your homework, did your parents/guardians seek out tutors?
   Yes
   No
   Does not apply to me.

24. How important is school to you?
   Very important
   Somewhat
   Not at all

25. What was your mother's attitude about education?
   Supported but could not encourage
   Supportive and encouraged
   None of the above
   Other
26. What was your father’s attitude about education?
   Supported but could not encourage
   Supportive and encourage
   None of the above
   Other

ROLE MODELS

27. Was there a role model (i.e., teacher, parents, others) who encouraged you to continue with school?
   Yes
   No
   If so who was that?
APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT
INFORMED CONSENT

The study which you will participate in is designed to explore what the differences are between Mexican Americans /Chicanos who continue with higher education and those who do not. In addition, it is to help professionals to better work with this population and finally to encourage Mexican Americans to continue with higher education. Maria Ramirez, a graduate student in social work, is conducting this study; it is also under the supervision and guidance from Dr. Rosemary McCaslin, Professor of Social Work at California State University San Bernardino. This study will consist of two parts: one, a qualitative interview and two, a quantitative questionnaire. Questions in the interview deal with parental involvement schooling and teachers/role models. The interview will take between one hour to half an hour. This study should not have any serious risks involved with your participation.

All answers and interviews of this study will be kept confidential and all results will be reported in-group form. All those who will participate in this study will have the right to answer questions and refuse to answer questions if they make you feel uncomfortable at any time without penalty. The Department of Social Work Sub-Committee of the Institutional Review Board of California State University, San Bernardino, will approve this study. A referral list of counseling places will be attached to the questionnaires. Also for further questions on this study you may call Dr. McCaslin at (909) 880-5507. The results will be available after June 2005 at California State University San Bernardino library.

Another copy of this result will be placed at the Multicultural Department @ CSUSB, with kind permission of John F. Coordinator of the Multicultural Department.

Please understand that your participation of this study is grateful and all your participation will be kept strictly confidential by the researcher. Also note that you are participating freely and you're free to withdraw at any point of the interview without any type of penalty. You can also remove any information you do not want to include if you were to change your mind at any time. By placing an X, I am saying that I fully understand and acknowledge the purpose of this study; I also am in agreement to participate in this study freely. I am at least 18 years of age.

Sign with an X only __________

Date __________________________
APPENDIX C

DEBRIEFING STATEMENT
DEBRIEFING STATEMENT

Thank you, for your participation that you have just done in this study of investigate the differences between Mexican Americans / Chicanos with higher education and those without higher education by looking at parental involvement, schooling and teachers. This type of study is important in order to empower Mexican American/ Chicano students.

All the information gathered from this interview will help look for better ways to encourage, support and empower more Mexican Americans/Chicanos in similar situations like your own. By taking a closer look at the factors such as: educators, and other professionals can also help motivate this population as well.

Please be assured that all information that has been provided will be kept strictly confidential. Please feel free to call Dr. McCaslin at (909) 880-5507 if you do have any questions regarding this study, or any concerns about your participation in the study. Due to the nature of this study we do ask that you do not share any information about this study so it may not bias the study. In case of you need support services, please not this attach sheet for referrals if needed. This study may have subjects who are emotionally instable and therefore the attached referral list may come handy.

Counseling Resources California State University San Bernardino
Psychological Counseling Center (909) 880-5040

Health Center Room 136
San Bernardino Valley College Student Counseling Services (909) 888-1153
San Bernardino Family Services Counseling (909) 886-6737
APPENDIX D

TABLES
what grades do you currently receive collapsed2 * what is your gender?

### Crosstab

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<thead>
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<th></th>
<th>what is your gender?</th>
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<tr>
<td>A'S AND B'S</td>
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<tr>
<td>B'S</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>B'S AND C'S</td>
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<td>8</td>
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### Chi-Square Tests

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<td>4</td>
<td>.003</td>
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<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>16.548</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.002</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Linear-by-Linear
Association | 10.478 | 1  | .001                  |
| N of Valid Cases       | 50     |    |                       |

\[a\] 5 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.72.
what is your mothers higher education collapsed2 * what is your gender?

Crosstab

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<th>Count</th>
<th>what is your gender?</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>male</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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Chi-Square Tests

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<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>5.967(a)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>8.484</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>1.390</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a 3 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.70.
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