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THE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED PARENTAL EDUCATIONAL INVOLVEMENT, ACCULTURATION AND SELF-ESTEEM ON THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND ASPIRATIONS OF MEXICAN-AMERICAN ADOLESCENTS

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

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Master of Arts in Psychology: General/Experimental

by Francisco David Carranza June 2002
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Approved by:

Dr. David Chávez, Chair, Psychology

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of perceived parental educational involvement, acculturation and self-esteem on the academic performance and academic aspirations of Mexican-American adolescents. A 2 x 2 x 2 MANOVA revealed support for the hypothesis that the three independent variables would affect academic performance and academic aspirations. Follow-up univariate tests revealed support for four of the six stated main effect hypotheses. Perceived parental educational involvement had a significant effect on academic performance, acculturation had a significant effect on both academic performance and academic aspirations, and self-esteem had a significant effect on academic aspirations. Three two-way interaction hypotheses were presented but were not supported. All hypotheses were tested with a standard alpha level (p=.05). The effect size for each significant test is reported. Interpretations of the results, significance, implications and limitations are discussed.
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I would not have completed this project or made it this far in general without the support, understanding, patience, love and care of my wife, Sofía.
Para Mamá y Papá,
que tanto me ayudaron en
mi desarrollo académico. Siempre
los tendré en mi corazón.
¡Sí se puede!
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

In unveiling the factors that influence academic performance in Mexican-Americans, this study will focus on scholastic success rather than failure. This approach will essentially develop positive explanations about Mexican-Americans’ hindered educational progress by presenting lay individuals and the sociological, psychological, psychoeducational and cross-cultural professions with conclusive results and interpretations about the environmental factors that maintain Mexican-Americans in their present socioeconomic and educational predicament. This perspective guides the present study to its paramount objective—to help people understand that there is a strong social impact on Mexican-Americans’ general advancement in the United States and that their stagnant overall socioeconomic and educational development is far from being dispositional.

The issue of socioeconomic and acculturative immobility in Mexican-Americans is ubiquitous in mainstream America and, therefore, various attempts have been made to discover its etiology. It can be argued that low levels of economic
and educational prosperity in Mexican-Americans can be traced to the presence of the Mexican people in Northern México before it was subjugated by the United States around 1842, and their desperate migration from south of the border ever since. Issues of extreme poverty and proximity influenced these northward migrations from México to the Southwestern United States. Hence, only those in destitution were forced to cross the border with the hope of creating a new life—one rich in benefits and full of economic prosperity. However—upon arrival—their dreams were decimated, as they became the victims of cheap labor; these hardworking immigrants eventually became the backbone of the proletariat in the Southwest (Romero, Hondagneu-Sotelo, & Ortiz, 1997) with critically diminished possibilities of educational opportunity. With the essential element of time, this immigrant group gave birth to a new people, one that would suffer overt and covert mainstream oppression for the next 150 years—Mexican-Americans.

Since the beginning of their emergence in the Southwestern United States, Mexican-Americans have experienced an overwhelming amount of inequality in employment, choice of residence, and education (Kozol, 1991; Ogbu, 1978, 1987; Romero et al., 1997). To begin, these
minorities were coaxed into a vicious cycle that hindered their descendants' advancement in society for generations. For example, as immigrants, Mexicans received extremely low wages that, in turn, forced them to live in the most impecunious slums of America. Their children (Mexican-Americans), therefore, attended the most inadequate schools in the nation. This, along with the language barrier and other environmental factors, contributed to the lack of social and economic competence in Mexican-Americans, therefore creating for them a permanent position at the low end of the socioeconomic stratum. Because a great majority of the Mexican-American population has been unsuccessful in gaining monetary, social, political and academic success to date, this cycle can be considered almost unbreakable (Kozol, 1991; Ogbu, 1978, 1987; Romero et al., 1997). Furthermore, Mexican-Americans continue to attend and graduate from universities nationwide at a diminutive rate compared to their Anglo-Saxon counterparts (López, 1995). Thus, social empiricists have developed an interest in investigating the conditions under which Mexican-Americans are likely to improve their educational performance and obtain social success as defined by mainstream America.
Numerous researchers have attempted to explain Mexican-Americans' lack of educational and socioeconomic performance (Desimone, 1999; Kozol, 1991; López, 1995; Ogbu, 1978, 1987; Romero et al., 1997). Moreover, various empirical studies have been conducted on the numerous social factors that influence Mexican-Americans as well as other minorities' educational achievement. Such empirical inquiries revealed that there are a number of social factors that contribute to the academic and economic success of Mexican-Americans. Thus, the assumption can be made that by altering such external influences in real life situations, Mexican-Americans, as a group, can advance in greater numbers in mainstream society. In order to determine these factors, one must initially focus on the general contributors of scholastic success that have been studied through the use of mainstream samples and groups. The interest lies in discovering whether the effects that parental involvement has on the dominant population generalizes to the Mexican-American population.

Parental Educational Involvement

Social and educational researchers have been interested in students' academic performance and motivation for many
years. Various studies have supported the contention that teachers, parents and the individual child are to be held responsible for children’s educational outcomes: pedagogical effectiveness, parental involvement and children’s effort (Peña, 2000; Seefeldt, 1985; Swick, 1988). Nonetheless, the present focus is on parents since they are the primary caregivers. Parents are in greater proximity to their children, psychologically, than are teachers. The assumption, therefore, is that parents have a greater influence on their children’s behavior. Specifically, the interest is on parent educational involvement, a factor, among others, that has been supported by various studies as a significant influence of individuals’ academic aspirations as well as of attainment and performance. Numerous empiricists have studied parental involvement and have concluded that it enhances children’s achievement and increases parental efficacy (Peña, 2000; Seefeldt, 1985; Swick, 1988). Moreover, parent educational involvement is a general term that is defined in various ways by different researchers. It has been defined as parental interest in the child’s academic success, parental communication with school, family dynamics, parental participation in school events and parental help with school assignments.
Cherian (1995) conducted a study to investigate the effects that parental academic interest has on children’s educational performance. The researcher used an interview schedule to measure parental interest in children’s educational achievement. Specifically, parental interest was operationally defined in terms of the number of times the parent wrote or visited the school, helped with homework, and discussed school issues. The researchers were also interested in the effects of socioeconomic status on children’s academic achievement. Socioeconomic status was measured by assigning points to parental occupation, educational level, and income. The dependent variable (educational success) was performance on an examination that consisted of various subject matters (English, native language, Mathematics, General Science, History, Geography and Agricultural Science). The researchers concluded that parental academic interest influenced children’s educational success at all levels (low, med, and high) of familial socioeconomic status, and the more parental interest, the more educational success in children. The notion that parent educational involvement is linked to enhanced educational ability in children continues to intrigue researchers in the field.
In a similar inquiry, Marcon (1999) studied the conditions under which children’s scholastic abilities were enhanced. Specifically, the paramount objective was to reveal whether students’ academic achievement would improve in response to parents’ participation in the number of school-involvement activities. In other words, would children’s academic achievement be related to the number of activities in which parents participated? Researchers were also interested in discovering whether school activities that required more parental involvement (volunteering: extended class visit and helping with a class activity) would be linked to more positive scholastic outcomes in children than school activities that require less involvement (communicating: parent-teacher conference and home visit).

The results revealed a significant effect for levels of parental involvement. Children of parents that were involved in more school activities achieved higher academic performance compared to children of parents that were involved in fewer school activities. A post hoc comparison revealed that the difference existed between high involvement and medium and low involvement combined. Thus, the assumption can be made that by encouraging parents to
become more interested in their child's academic achievement, children can exhibit desired levels of success in education regardless of their familial socioeconomic status. In addition, participation in school activities that required active parental involvement was positively associated with greater scholastic performance in children than was participation in school activities that required passive parental involvement.

Reynolds (1992) and Percival (1995) also concluded that parental involvement in more school activities correlated with significantly higher academic achievement in children than did parental involvement in fewer school activities. That is, the researchers found that school activities that required more parental involvement correlated with significantly higher academic achievement than school activities that required less parental involvement. Children of parents that volunteered in regard to protracted classroom visits and assisted with the implementation of various classroom activities were more likely to have increased educational performance than were children of parents engaged in communication efforts with school personnel such as parent-teacher conferences and home visitations. The presented results support the notion that
parental involvement, in its numerous manifestations, affects children's academic achievement. These findings contribute to the empirical literature that presents the conditions under which children in America acquire educational success.

Researchers continue to produce supporting evidence for the assertion that parental involvement enhances educational success in children. For instance, Griffith (1996) designed a study to investigate educational performance. Specifically, the predictor variables were parent involvement, empowerment and school characteristics. The investigation concentrated on parental involvement through parental self-report. Moreover, academic achievement was the sole criterion variable and was measured via the state's criterion-referenced test (CRT). The results indicated that parent involvement was a crucial determinant of children's academic performance. In other words, children of involved parents scored significantly higher on the standardized exam than did children of noninvolved parents. These results are similar to those of Marcon (1999) and Cherian (1995) in that they support the notion that children's scholastic ability is influenced via the adjustment of external attributes. Other similar studies have also supported this
generalization by concluding that parental involvement is linked to children’s academic ability.

In addition, Stevenson and Baker (1987) constructed an empirical inquiry to test three potential determinants that augment children’s educational performance. The focus was on whether parent educational involvement correlated with children’s academic performance, whether maternal academic attainment correlated with degree of maternal educational involvement, and whether children’s age determined the degree of parental educational involvement.

The researchers’ conclusions were consistent with those of similar studies (Cherian, 1995; Griffith, 1996; Marcon, 1999). The hypothesis that parental school involvement correlates with children’s academic performance was supported. Specifically, children’s scholastic ability increased as parental academic involvement increased. Thus, it can be concluded that children of more involved parents are more likely to attain higher levels of cognitive ability than children of less involved parents. Additionally, the results supported the hypothesis that maternal academic attainment is correlated with degree of maternal school involvement. Precisely, maternal academic involvement increased as maternal academic attainment increased.
Therefore, the assumption can be made that parents who have higher educational attainment are more likely than are parents who have lower educational attainment to exhibit school involvement tendencies.

It is possible, therefore, that parent educational involvement is an educationally induced characteristic that can be altered and modified in order to increase children’s scholastic performance. These findings strengthen the belief that parental involvement is a crucial component of academic achievement in children. Further, as this and other similar studies have based their findings on teachers’ and parents’ perceptions of parental involvement, a focus must develop on children’s perceptions of parent educational involvement and academic performance.

**Perceived Parental Educational Involvement**

Fehrmann, Keith and Reimers (1987) focused on studying children’s perceived parental educational involvement rather than conventional parent educational involvement. The researchers also measured academic performance via grades instead of standardized exams and other tests, as standardized tests are experienced less often than grades in academic institutions.
The study arrived at conclusions similar to those of other inquiries. There was a positive correlation between perceived parental school involvement and children's grades. These results support the contention that children of involved parents are more likely to attain higher grades compared to children of noninvolved parents. In making this assumption, one can argue that children's perceptions of parent involvement can influence school performance. These perceptions may benefit or impede children's scholastic success. For instance, if a child perceives one or both parents to have been involved more than they actually have, the child will benefit by increasing school performance. On the contrary, if a child perceives one or both parents to have been involved less than they actually have, the child's school performance may decrease. In this case, children's perceived parental educational involvement as a contributor of increased scholastic performance is strongly supported.

To this point, the cited literature supports the notion that children's school performance can be altered by simply encouraging parents to participate in school activities and to become involved in children's educational development (Cherian, 1995; Griffith, 1996; Marcon, 1999; Stevenson & Baker 1987). Furthermore, it supports the belief that
children's academic performance can be improved by strengthening children's perceptions of their parents' participation in school functions and involvement in their educational acquisition (Fehrmann, Keith & Reimers, 1987).

The presented literature has also demonstrated the various ways that parental involvement has been measured and operationally defined. In some cases, studies have focused on parental involvement via parental interest in children's education (Cherian, 1995). Perhaps this may be an important definition, among others, in describing parental involvement. Differential aspects of educational involvement have been incorporated into the term "parental interest."

Essentially, there are three putative issues affecting children's scholastic development: parent-school communication, parent assistance with homework and parent-child discussion of relevant school matters. Also, there has been a preference in using overall performance in the summation of various subject matters to measure educational success. In similar investigations researchers have also contributed to the evidence supporting the relationship between parental involvement and academic achievement. Even though these studies deviate from each other, however, only a nuance in the definition of involvement actually exists
between them. Hence, this study can employ the disparate concepts of involvement that have been presented to develop an accurate measure of perceived parental educational involvement.

Another important component of parental involvement is the intensity of the involvement. In other words, academic performance can be altered negatively if the involvement is passive or positively if the involvement is active. An importance has also been placed on the number of activities in which the parents participate. The more activities the parents participate in, the greater the child’s academic performance and vise versa. It would then be wise to employ a definition of parental educational involvement that focuses on participation in numerous scholastic activities, active involvement, and actual parental assistance in school assignments when attempting to develop a strategy to enhance children’s academic performance.

Educational Involvement in Mexican-American Parents

The previously presented literature explains (using mainstream American samples) how parental educational involvement strengthens children’s academic performance. The focus now turns to investigating whether parental
involvement can also improve scholastic performance in a historically underrepresented minority group—Mexican-Americans (López, Rodríguez, & Sánchez, 1995; Ramos & Sánchez, 1995; López, 1993). Initially, it would be wise to investigate whether parental involvement is prominent in Mexican-American households and whether its existence is a function of education as it is in Euro-American families.

According to Stevenson and Baker (1987), parental educational attainment is strongly positively correlated with parental educational involvement. If this is the case, one should then expect educated Mexican-American parents to exhibit high levels of parental educational involvement. Moreover, Mexican-American parents may display parental involvement tendencies across education; parental involvement may be present but may vary according to parents’ educational level with parents at higher levels displaying more involvement and vice versa.

For instance, López, Rodríguez and Sánchez (1995) examined whether educational involvement tendencies were present in Mexican-American parents and, if so, what factors may have supported these tendencies. It was believed that parental involvement in Mexican-Americans was influenced by
parent educational attainment. The researchers hypothesized that, since parental educational attainment appeared to influence children’s outcomes in school, an educationally induced characteristic in educated parents may encourage their children to obtain desired levels of success in academics.

Specifically, the researchers predicted that the level of education in Mexican-American parents would have significant effects on parental involvement in children’s education. The measures used consisted of items that recorded parents’ educational attainment and items that recorded parental educational involvement: helping children with homework, parent volunteering, attending parent-teacher conference, fundraising, serving as room mother, attending parent advisory committee meetings, attending school-sponsored functions and attending school board meetings. The results indicated that parents differed in educational involvement at different levels of parental education. In other words, parental educational attainment affected parental definitions of educational involvement. Parents with twelve (12) years of education or higher exhibited high levels of parental educational involvement in some areas whereas parents with eleven (11) years of education or less
exhibited high levels of parental educational involvement in other areas. Specifically, parents with high education tended to show involvement in school fundraising and attend school-sponsored functions more than did parents with low education. In comparison, parents with low education tended to help their child with homework, serve as room mother, and attend parent-teacher conferences more than did parents with high education.

In summation, if parental educational involvement influences children's educational achievement, parents in general, with or without an education, may be able to contribute to children's academic achievement by enhancing parental educational involvement skills (Swick, 1988). Moreover, if Mexican-American parents with low educational attainment also exhibit educational involvement, one can infer that parent involvement tendencies exist in Mexican-American parents and that these actions can alter children's academic performance.

A similar study also investigated whether parental educational involvement exists in the Mexican-American community (Lopez, 1993). Specifically, the researcher was interested in revealing whether Mexican-American and Anglo-American parents differ in parental educational involvement.
The belief that Mexican-American parents would exhibit relatively ample involvement came from Delgado-Gaitan's (1987) conclusion that Mexican-Americans honor education and strongly believe that it is a crucial prerequisite of socioeconomic prosperity. In addition, the prediction that differences exist between Mexican-American and their Anglo counterparts in various relevant concepts (type of involvement exhibited, motives for their involvement, explanations concerning the improvement of parental involvement, and reasons why parents are contacted by school personnel) would best be explained by cultural issues. The results revealed sufficient parental involvement in Mexican-American parents to make the comparison. The findings indicated that both groups differed in all the examined aspects of educational involvement. The most important finding, however, is that parental educational involvement was detected in Mexican-Americans. The focus must now be directed towards investigating whether or not parental involvement benefits Mexican-American children as it does mainstream American children.

According to Ramos and Sánchez (1995), the notion that parental academic involvement improves academic performance in children can be generalized to the Mexican-American
population. Their study's main objective was to discover the factors responsible for inducing academic aspirations in Mexican-American children. Specifically, the variables under scrutiny were, among others, perceived parental educational involvement and children's academic achievement. The results indicated a significant prediction of children's scholastic aspirations by perceived parental educational involvement and children's academic achievement with a total of 58% of the variance in the criterion variable accounted for by the predictor variables. Thus, the assumption can be made that Mexican-American children's academic aspirations could be influenced by increasing children's perceived parental educational involvement and academic achievement. Moreover, since various studies have concluded that academic achievement is altered by parental educational involvement (Fehrmann et al., 1987; Griffith, 1996; Marcon, 1999), one can propose that in this study perceived parental educational involvement affected academic achievement which, in turn, affected academic aspirations in Mexican-American children. Thus, Mexican-American children's perceived parental educational involvement substantially intensified their scholastic diligence.
Perceived parental academic involvement has also been studied in relation to parental educational aspirations (Buriel & Cardoza, 1988). In one study the researchers were interested in discovering whether perceived parental educational aspirations would alter academic performance in Mexican-Americans across generational status: first (immigrants), second, and third generations. Achievement was measured from scores on administered reading, math and vocabulary exams.

The results indicated that there was no difference in aspiration effects among first, second and third generation Mexican-Americans, or between any combination. Hence, perceived parental educational aspirations influenced school performance equally across the presented generational levels. Specifically, participants who had high perceived parental educational aspirations or who held high personal educational aspirations achieved higher scores on the administered reading, math and vocabulary tests than did participants that had low perceived parental educational aspirations or who held low personal educational aspirations. The presented conclusions engendered rigorous support for the notion that Mexican-Americans' academic performance can be augmented as a function of perceived
parental educational involvement as it can for their Anglo-Saxon counterparts. The assumption can, therefore, be made that perceived parental educational expectations could induce personal educational expectations in children, thus, altering academic performance.

Acculturation

In an effort to reveal other factors that affect Mexican-American children's academic performance, social empiricists have suggested that acculturation is a significant determinant of scholastic development. Specifically, acculturation is a sociocultural construct that measures the extent to which ethnic minorities identify with mainstream society; whether or not individuals exhibit a predilection for mainstream language, culture, and values, etc. (Cuéllar, 1995). Acculturation, according to previous cross-cultural literature, determines whether or not individuals fraternize with mainstream members and solicit acceptance into dominant groups and/or institutions (Domino & Acosta, 1987; Griffith, 1983; Garza & Gallegos, 1985; Sabogal, Marin, & Otero-Sabogal, 1987; Hurtado & Gauvain, 1997; Manaster & Chan, 1992). Acculturation may, therefore, determine the level of difficulty experienced by Mexican
Americans when attempting to overcome tacit mainstream academic obstacles that could have detrimental effects on their socioeconomic progression.

Thus, researchers are focused on investigating the effects of acculturation on Mexican-Americans' academic performance and attendance. Moreover, a linear relationship may exist between the presented factors in that acculturation affects performance, which, in turn, affects college attendance. In this case, the assumption can be made that the underrepresentation of Mexican-Americans in colleges and universities correlates with their previous educational performance, which could have been influenced by acculturation. In other words, acculturation, educational performance and college attendance can be rigorously evaluated to develop an accurate explanation for Mexican-Americans' hindered advancement in dominant society.

In a later study, Hurtado and Gauvain (1997) investigated, among other factors, the relationship between acculturation and college attendance in Mexican-Americans. The researchers administered a questionnaire complete with the Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican-Americans (ARSMA) that measured preferences in language usage and ethnic identity, and a College Planning Survey (CPS) that measured
behaviors specific to college planning to Mexican-American junior and senior high school students. Participants were also asked to complete an After High School Survey (AHSS) that asked them to report whether or not they were attending college, what type of college they were attending, and what factors contributed to their decision to attend college.

The results revealed a relationship between acculturation and college attendance in Mexican-Americans. Specifically, participants who were more acculturated were more likely than participants who were less acculturated to plan to attend college. The results also revealed that there was no relationship between acculturation and educational aspirations in Mexican-Americans.

It is possible that the researchers failed to discover a relationship between acculturation and educational aspirations because acculturation was measured using a single continuum (Cuellar, Harris, & Jasso, 1980). In other words, acculturation was defined as reducing identification with the Mexican culture while increasing identification with the target culture; the researchers failed to measure biculturalism (Cuellar, Arnold, & Maldonado, 1995).

Perhaps if the researchers used an instrument that measured biculturalism, the results could have been
supportive of a relationship between acculturation and academic aspirations in Mexican-Americans. The results did, however, reveal a positive relationship between acculturation and college attendance. This infers that self-reporting academic aspirations is significantly easier than actually attending college. Hence, acculturation does have an impact on actual educational outcomes but not on academic aspirations. The interest, therefore, remains on searching for a relationship between acculturation and educational attainment since a relationship between acculturation and college planning was discovered and since other studies have found correlations between acculturation and other similar factors.

In a similar study, researchers investigated the effects of acculturation on academic attainment. Acculturation was measured through generational status: immigrants, second generation and third generation (Zsembik & Llanes, 1996). Academic attainment was measured by years of education completed. The years of school completion were measured for each generational status and were split into three categories: total years of education completed, high school years completed and college years completed. The findings indicated that different levels of education were
attained as a function of generational status. Specifically, immigrants achieved fewer total years of education than second generation individuals who, in turn, attained fewer years than third generation individuals. However, there is only a small difference between first and second generation. In terms of high school years completed, immigrants also completed fewer years of school than did second generation participants who, in turn, completed fewer years than did third generation participants. Moreover, Researchers found that completion of college was more prevalent in second generation individuals than in third generation individuals; second generation individuals were more likely to be college graduates than third generation individuals.

From the presented information, the deduction can be made that acculturation affects Mexican-Americans' educational advancement in a complicated way. According to relevant literature (Domino & Acosta, 1987; Griffith, 1983; Garza & Gallegos, 1985; Sabogal, Marin, & Otero-Sabogal, 1987; Hurtado & Gauvain, 1997; Manaster & Chan, 1992), the Mexican-American college completion rate should increase as acculturation increases. In this case it appears that the presented result is an aberration in the acculturation and Mexican-American academic progression literature. This
explanation could be made clear with a detailed explanation of the acculturative process (Cuéllar et al. 1995).

The concept of acculturation requires a precise understanding of the various acculturative genres that have been previously discussed (Cuéllar et al., 1995) in the cross-cultural field. For instance, third generation individuals could have experienced the assimilation stage of acculturation at some point (Zsembik and Llanes, 1996). In this stage, individuals are required to develop a predilection for dominant cultural attributes while effacing all primary cultural attributes.

After completely adopting the mainstream belief system, individuals may develop a level of psychological comfort that may be decimated after accepting the realization that the target culture promotes tacit rejection of outgroup members. This usually denotes that the individual has entered the marginalized stage of acculturation. At this point, the individual becomes aware of mainstream deception, causing a feeling of rejection and shame. This experience may induce cognitive dissonance that may lead to the development of a new belief system.

Then, the individual usually transitions to the stage of resistance. At this point, the feeling of strong
identification with the primary culture develops. Moreover, this particular category is also characterized by the decision to refrain from accepting the target culture's belief system. In many cases, individuals completely lose their culture of origin, influencing the development of a subculture—cultural transmutation.

In the presented case (Zsembik & Llanes, 1996), third generation Mexican-Americans may have developed a predilection for mainstream values without developing a true sense of their culture of origin. Thus, if marginalization ensued, cultural transmutation could have been induced since there was no primary culture to turn to. This could have influenced third generation participants to protest college attendance, associating the attendance of academic institutions with mainstream societal acceptance, thus, resulting in low educational attainment. Furthermore, second generation participants could have exhibited higher scholastic attainment as a function of integration. In other words, individuals may have developed a level of comfort with mainstream beliefs while, simultaneously, maintaining primary beliefs.

In summation, the effects that acculturation had on academic attendance and academic attainment was significant.
The research should, therefore, focus on unveiling earlier supplemental factors—such as the presentation of a cognitively stimulating environment at an early age—that may be altered as a function of acculturative influence. If so, acculturation can be guided in order to obtain the desired outcomes. This may later influence Mexican-Americans' academic attainment and college attendance rate. Consequently, the focus will now shift to acculturation as it affects academic performance in Mexican-Americans. Academic success may relieve acculturative induced self-discomfort as individuals experience the aforementioned categories of acculturation.

The proposed explanation gives a precise epitome of the process of acculturation and its effects on the psyche of Mexican-Americans. The assumption can, therefore, be made that if acculturation affects academic attainment, it may also affect educational performance. For instance, Manaster and Chan (1992) developed a study to investigate whether acculturation, among other variables, affects educational success in Mexican-American high school migrant students. Participants were asked to complete the Modernism-Traditionalism Scale (M-TS) that measures acculturation. The results revealed significant main effects of acculturation.
The researchers found that students who were more acculturated were more likely than students who were less acculturated to have higher levels of success in school. This is not surprising since more acculturated individuals prefer to speak English and adopt Eurocentric values and norms more than less acculturated individuals. In addition, more acculturated individuals may find it easier to relate to teachers, counselors and other adult and student school leaders. However, one should not assume that culture alone influences educational success since the results also revealed that participants who were less acculturated belonged to larger, more destitute, more rural and more foreign families. Moreover, all Mexican-Americans are not indigent or do not have large families but they are twice as likely than Anglos to hold a low socioeconomic status. This low status, in turn, results in a dearth of adequate educational resources (Hurtado & Gauvain, 1997; Perez & Salazar, 1993).

It would, therefore, be wise to emphasize family size and socioeconomic status as covariates in cross-cultural research. These factors should be considered since impoverished Mexican-American families often struggle with becoming accepted by mainstream society, attributing their
rejection to race instead of destitution. Hence, resistance to acculturation is influenced as well as the decision to either maintain the original culture or to create a subculture, cultural transmutation (Cuéllar et al., 1995). In addition, the results also indicated that more acculturated individuals are more likely than less acculturated individuals to report higher educational aspirations—90% of higher acculturated participants compared to 68% of lower acculturated participants responded that they planed to attend college after high school. These results are parallel to those of similar studies.

Barona and Pfeiffer (1992) employed an effective method in studying the effects of acculturation on the educational performance of Mexican-Americans. Specifically, the researchers designed a standard group (control) of testing that epitomized mainstream American individualistic interaction styles and a group of testing (experimental) that encouraged participants to utilize interaction styles consistent with those valued in the Mexican culture. All participants were either Mexican-American or Anglo-Saxon.

The results indicated that Anglo participants outperformed Mexican-American participants in the administered achievement exam when in the standard testing
condition. However, this finding reversed in the experimental testing condition. Mexican-American participants outperformed Anglo-Saxon participants in the administered achievement exam. The deduction can then be made that acculturation augments Mexican-Americans’ academic performance when performing in an environment that encourages Mexican cultural competitive styles.

The assumption can, therefore, be made that a culturally induced attribute in Mexican-Americans may alter their cognitive ability. This characteristic (Buriel & Cardoza, 1988) may relate to Mexican-Americans’ determination to advance socioeconomically in the surrogate homeland. In addition, generational status and mainstream societal definitions of success may have a significant effect on how Mexican-Americans’ determination is perceived in dominant society. For instance, first generation immigrants’ determination is manifest in the proletariat realm since the target language and other qualifications are deficient. This level of achievement may not be construed as success by mainstream American society since it usually defines success in terms of careers and professions that require moderate to high levels of educational attainment.
In second and third generation Mexican-Americans, as the acceptance of mainstream ideology increases, individuals begin to achieve success as defined by dominant society. However, even if acculturation is prevalent, not every second and third generation Mexican-American will succumb to the expectations held by the target group because ghettoization (Buriel & Cardoza, 1988) may be present. In this case, inherited poverty and lack of determination in second and third generation individuals maintain their socioeconomic immobility; usually becoming an irreversible cycle. Overall, in the case of Barona and Pfeiffer (1992), Mexican-Americans in the cultural simulation condition could have outperformed their Anglo counterparts as a result of the determination to succeed in the target homeland—without absence of ghettoization.

Self-Esteem

As the presented literature supports the notion that Mexican-Americans' academic aspirations are influenced by perceived parental educational involvement and acculturation, other studies have supported the belief that educational aspirations in Mexican-Americans are affected by individuals' self-esteem (one's perceptive ability to
perform successfully on specific tasks and in life). For instance, Waxman, Haung and Pardón (1997) investigated several attributes that are prominent in resilient Mexican-American students. In this inquiry, the researchers defined resiliency as the ability to obtain high levels of scholastic achievement while presented with atrocious and indigent milieus. Consequently, the assumption can be made that resilient students are academically successful. The variable of most importance was self-esteem in respect to academia.

The results indicated that resilient students exhibited higher self-esteem than did non-resilient students. Further, resilient individuals demonstrated higher academic aspirations than did non-resilient individuals. Resilient students also envisioned themselves graduating from high school, college and attending graduate school more than did their non-resilient counterparts. There were also other personal attributes relevant to educational success more prevalent in resilient students: exemplary attendance, academic motivation and exceptional time management—allocation of time for homework. These variables are also important and should be incorporated in the definition of academic aspirations.
Evans and Anerson (1973) conducted a study to investigate the differences in self-esteem (self-concept) and educational aspirations between Mexican-Americans and their Euro-American counterparts. In this study, students were classified into three groups: (1) Mexican-Americans that resided in a home where Spanish was the primary language, (2) Mexican-Americans that resided in a home where English was the primary language and (3) non-Spanish speaking Euro-American students without Spanish surnames. Participants were divided into these language/ethnicity groups in order to test the effects of the language barrier on, among other factors, academic aspirations and self-concept of ability. The results indicated that Mexican-American students exhibited a significantly lower self-concept of ability than their Anglo counterparts. Mexican-American students' perceived their educational ability in regard to success in high school and college relatively low whereas Anglo students demonstrated significantly more confidence in perceiving that they would succeed at the high school as well as the college level. Considering this finding, it was not astonishing to have revealed that Mexican-American students had significantly lower self-
esteem which in turn had significantly lower academic aspirations than their Anglo counterparts.

Upon perusal of the presented literature on parental educational involvement and acculturation as influences of educational performance in Mexican-Americans, the assumption can be made that, together, these factors can strongly predict academic achievement in Mexican-Americans. Ramos and Sánchez (1995) conducted a study to investigate such a combination, acculturation and parental educational expectations (parental educational involvement) as predictors of Mexican-American high school students' educational aspirations.

The researchers administered an eight-page questionnaire complete with a demographic page, the ARSMA, and other items pertaining to perceived parental expectations and educational aspirations. The results supported a relationship between acculturation and students' educational aspirations. Specifically, students with higher levels of acculturation were more likely to have higher educational aspirations compared to students with lower levels of acculturation. There was also a relationship between parental educational expectations and educational aspirations, the higher the educational expectations, the
higher the educational aspirations in children. Moreover, acculturation and educational expectations combined strongly to predict Mexican-Americans’ educational aspirations. Furthermore, an analysis of variance revealed that levels of acculturation affected levels of educational aspirations in children. Specifically, the group with high levels of acculturation aspired to attend a four-year university while the group with low levels of acculturation aspired to attend a two-year college.

The presented results support the notion that parental educational involvement and acculturation have strong effects on Mexican-Americans’ educational aspirations. Hence, this study will investigate perceived parental educational involvement as an influence of scholastic achievement. Perceived parental educational involvement will be used instead of parental educational involvement alone since other studies (Cherian, 1995; Marcon, 1999) have revealed promising results when using children’s perceptions of parental level of educational involvement as an influence of educational achievement.

In this case, by having used children’s perceptions, one can argue that significant results will be the outcome when investigating the relationship between educational
involvement and educational attainment in Mexican-Americans. In addition, since parental educational interest and parental educational expectations were shown to be significant influences of educational aspirations and educational achievement (Ramos & Sánchez, 1995; Cherian, 1995), they will be included in the operational definition of parental educational involvement. Furthermore, the presented studies on acculturation (Hurtado & Gauvain, 1997; Manaster & Chan, 1992; Ramos & Sánchez, 1995) revealed that it does, in fact, influence educational aspirations, attainment and educational achievement in Mexican-American individuals. Thus, it would be wise to continue to study acculturation as it influences educational performance in Mexican-Americans. Therefore, in following the presented logic, this study will investigate the effects of perceived parental educational involvement, acculturation and self-esteem on academic performance and aspirations in Mexican-Americans.

Hypotheses

The presented literature review provides support for the belief that children’s academic performance can be increased through perceived parental educational
involvement. In this case, Perceived parental educational involvement (high, low) will be examined as a predictor of academic performance and academic aspirations. More specifically, Mexican-American high school students will display mean differences in academic performance and academic aspirations as a function of perceived parental educational involvement. Students who self-report high perceived parental educational involvement will be more likely than students who self-report low perceived parental educational involvement to exhibit higher academic performance and higher academic aspirations.

Mexican-American high school students will exhibit differences in academic performance and academic aspirations as a function of acculturation (high, low). Students who self-report high acculturation will be more likely to exhibit higher academic performance and higher academic aspirations than students who self-report low acculturation.

Mexican-American high school students will also display differences in academic performance and academic aspirations as a function of self-esteem (high, low). Students who report high self-esteem will be more likely to display higher academic performance and higher academic aspirations than will students who report low self-esteem.
Mexican-American student's mean differences in academic performance and academic aspirations as a function of perceived parental educational involvement will depend on levels of self-esteem. Perceived parental educational involvement will have a stronger affect on academic performance and academic aspirations when students report high self-esteem than when they report low self-esteem.

Mexican-American high-school students' mean differences in academic performance and academic aspirations as a function of perceived parental educational involvement will depend on levels of acculturation. Perceived parental educational involvement will have a stronger effect on academic performance and academic aspirations when students display high acculturation than when they display low acculturation.

Mexican-American high school students' mean differences in academic performance and academic aspirations as a function of self-esteem will depend on levels of acculturation. Self-esteem will have a stronger effect on academic performance and academic aspirations when students display high rather low than acculturation.
CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants

A total of 321 male (n = 119) and female (n = 202) high school students participated in this study. The sample used in this study consisted of 92% Mexican-American (n = 298) and 7.2% Hispanic (n = 23) adolescents that were recruited from three diverse high schools in Southern California. The mean age of participants was 16.21 with a range of 14 through 19. Participants’ grade level ranged from freshmen to seniors. A total of 63% (n = 201) of the sample completed all of their schooling in the United States while 36.8% (n = 118) only completed partial schooling in the United States. Moreover, 31.5% (n = 101) of participants were children of non-high school graduates, 15.6% (n = 50) were children of parents with General Education Diplomas, 24.9% (n = 80) were children of high school graduates, 20.9% (n = 67) were children of parents with some college coursework or an Associate degree, and 7.7% (n = 23) were children of college graduates (B.A. or higher). A total of 73.8% (n = 237) of the sample were children of parents that held occupations that required an education level of high school or lower.
Design

An ex post facto 2 X 2 X 2 multivariate between-subjects factorial design was employed in this study to test the presented hypotheses. There were three independent variables: perceived parental educational involvement with two levels (low & high), acculturation with two levels (low & high) and self-esteem with two levels (low & high). The two dependent variables were academic performance and academic aspirations. A Wilks’ lambda test was utilized to conduct the multivariate analysis since all of the assumptions of the MANOVA design were met. Follow-up univariate tests were conducted to reveal which dependent variables were affected by the independent variables.

Dependent Variables

There are two dependent variables in the design: academic performance and academic aspirations. Academic performance was the dependent variable deemed to be of most importance. Academic performance was measured with students’ self-reported grade point averages as previous literature found grades to be an accurate measure of school performance (Fehrmann et al., 1987). Academic aspirations was measured with a scale created by the researcher that asked students
to circle the number that best represented the level of educational attainment that they would like to attain: 1. Obtain a GED, 2. Graduate from high school, 3. Graduate from a vocational college, 4. Attend a two-year community college for self-enhancement, 5. Graduate from a two-year community college, 6. Transfer from a two-year community college to a four-year university, 7. Graduate from a four-year university, 8. Obtain a credential, and 9. Obtain a graduate or professional degree.

Independent Variable Measures

In this study, questionnaires containing an informed consent for the parents in English (see Appendix A) and Spanish (see Appendix B), an informed consent for the Student (see Appendix C), a demographic section (see Appendix D), and a debriefing statement (see Appendix H) were used. The questionnaires also included three instruments to measure the predictor variables: a perceived parental educational involvement scale (see Appendix E), the ARSMA-II (see Appendix F) and the Rosenberg self-esteem scale (see Appendix G).
Parental Involvement

Perceived Parental educational involvement was measured using forty-nine items developed by the researcher and his mentor from parent involvement concepts borrowed from previous literature (Carter & Wojtkiewicz, 2000; Marcon, 1999). The items measured eight facets of perceived parental educational involvement: parent communication with child about school, parent communication with the school, direct academic involvement, indirect academic involvement, parental expectations of the child, parental academic encouragement, time management and parent volunteering. The scale measured perceived parental educational involvement since only children completed the scale. All items were scored on a Likert type scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree." Items thirteen and fourteen were deleted because an item analysis revealed that they weakened the reliability of the scale. The reliability test showed a significant interclass correlation for the forty-seven items, $F(320, 15360)=15.33, p < .05$. The scale produced a reliability coefficient of .93. A median score of 143 was used to create the low and high conditions. A perceived parental educational involvement score of $< 143$ defined low perceived parental educational involvement and a score of $> 143$
144 defined high perceived parental educational involvement. A total of 51% (n = 162) of the sample scored low on perceived parental educational involvement and a total of 49% (n = 159) scored high.

**Acculturation**

The Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican-Americans-II (ARSMA-II) (Cuéllar et al., 1995) that was revised from the original Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican Americans (ARSMA) (Cuéllar et al., 1980) was used in order to measure participants' cultural orientation. It consisted of two interconnecting subscales with a total of 30 items: 1) the Anglo Orientation Scale (AOS) which contains 13 items and 2) the Mexican Orientation Scale (MOS) which contains 17 items. Both sub-scales are in a likert type format with ratings ranging from 1= “not at all” to 5= “extremely often” on questions measuring the preference for or identification with Anglo and Mexican cultural factors. Low scores on the AOS indicate low Anglo orientation and vice versa. Similarly, low scores on the MOS indicate low Mexican orientation and vice versa. The ARSMA-II has a reliability coefficient of .89; it was mentioned that the ARSMA-II has strong construct validity.
The interconnecting subscales create the following five acculturation levels, 1) Very Mexican Oriented: individuals are in the separation or cultural resistance mode. They refrain from accepting the dominant culture and resist acculturation while identifying with their culture of origin 2) Mexican Oriented to approximately balanced bicultural: individuals accept and balance aspects of the Mexican and the Anglo cultures and identify comfortably with both groups but identify more with their culture of origin 3) Slightly Anglo oriented bicultural: individuals accept and balance aspects of the Mexican and the Anglo cultures and identify comfortably with both groups but identify slightly more with the dominant culture 4) strongly Anglo oriented: individuals begin to efface some ties with the culture of origin and begin to accept and identify more comfortably with the Anglo culture 5) Very assimilated/Anglicized: individuals erase all ties and completely adopt mainstream culture, values and ideology.

The AOS and the MOS were slightly modified to measure two levels, high & low, of acculturation to simplify the categorization of participants. First, the raw data for each case of the AOS and MOS were converted into means and second, the AOS means were subtracted from the MOS means to
create an acculturation score. A score of < -1.33 defined the Very Mexican oriented condition, a score of ≥ -1.33 and ≤ -0.07 defined the Mexican oriented to approximately balanced bicultural, a score of > -0.07 and < 1.19 defined the Slightly Anglo oriented bicultural, a score of ≥ 1.19 and 2.45 defined the Strongly Anglo oriented condition, and a score of > 2.45 defined the Very assimilated/Anglicized condition.

After the acculturation scores were calculated for each case, a median of −0.00905 was obtained to define high and low acculturation. A score of ≤ −0.00905 defined the low acculturation condition while a score of ≥ −0.00906 defined the high acculturation condition. Low acculturation is defined as identifying with the culture, value and ideology of origin while experiencing some level of comfort when interacting with mainstream societal members. On the other hand, high acculturation is defined as identifying with dominant culture, values and ideology while experiencing some level of comfort interacting with the culture of origin. A total of 54.2% (n = 174) of the sample scored low on acculturation while 45.8% (n = 147) scored high on acculturation. This finding is not surprising since a great majority of the sample was of first and second generation.
Self-Esteem

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale (RSE) (Rosenberg, 1979) was used to measure participants' favorable or unfavorable global self-perceptions. The scale consists of 10 items, 1= strongly agree; 2= agree; 3= neutral; 4= disagree and 5= strongly disagree, with a reliability coefficient of .92. The scale’s internal validity is strengthened in that it is empirically related to depressive affect, anxiety and peer-group reputation; as there is theoretical reason to believe so.

The ten RSE items were split into five positive items and five negative items. The positive items asked participants to rate how positive they feel about themselves while the negative items asked how negative they feel about themselves. Thus, the negative items were recoded so that they could match the numerical value of the positive items: value 1 = 5, value 2 = 4, value 3 = 3, value 4 = 2, and value 5 = 1. Means were then calculated for both sets of five items combining them into one scale of ten items. A median of 3.80 was obtained to split the RSE scale into low and high levels. A score of < 3.80 defined low self-esteem while a score of ≥ 3.81 define high self-esteem. Individuals with low self-esteem are not satisfied with themselves and
have a negative attitude of themselves while individuals with high self-esteem are satisfied with themselves and have a positive attitude of themselves. A total of 52% (n = 167) of the sample scored low on self-esteem and a total of 48% (n = 154) of the sample scored high on self-esteem.

Procedures

All participants were recruited in high school classrooms and were administered a survey that measure perceived parental educational involvement, acculturation, self-esteem, educational performance and academic aspirations. At the onset of the survey distribution, the experimenter informed participants of the general nature of the study. All participants were required to take the questionnaire home along with the parental informed consent form, ask their parents to read and sign the parental informed consent form, and complete and return the questionnaire to the experimenter on the next school day. Participants that forgot their parental informed consent and their survey were allowed an extra day to return it to the experimenter. Participants were given a debriefing statement when they returned the completed questionnaire along with the parental informed consent to the experimenter.
Participants were also issued a list of name and telephone numbers of contacts that could be reached if the urgency to speak to someone about the study surfaced.

The questionnaire that was issued to participants consisted of a demographic section, a perceived parental educational involvement scale, an acculturation scale, a Self-Esteem scale, and the measures of academic performance and academic aspirations. Participants reported that the questionnaire was approximately 45 minutes in duration. Incomplete counterbalancing was used to control for order effects. The following are sequence orders in which the four scales were presented: 1) A, B, D, C; 2) B, C, A, D; 3) C, D, B, A; and 4) D, A, C, B.

Scoring and Analysis
A multivariate analysis of variance with a significance level of $p = .05$ was employed to test the presented hypotheses. The three independent variables with two levels each and the two dependent variables were included in the omnibus test. Univariate tests were performed to further analyze that significance in the omnibus multivariate model. Each individual independent variable was tested with each individual dependent variable. An item analysis was also
conducted to obtain an alpha coefficient for the interclass correlation of the perceived parental educational involvement scale. Univariate tests were also performed to test the demographic variables with each individual dependent variable. All data were screened to check for the assumptions of the multivariate analysis of variance test.
CHAPTER THREE
RESULTS

Data Screening

The data were screened for normality of sampling distributions, univariate outliers, multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, linearity, and multicollinearity and singularity. Skewness was divided with standard error of skewness and kurtosis was divided with standard error of kurtosis for each variable to obtain a skewness and kurtosis score. The obtained skewness and kurtosis scores were then compared against a critical z score of $\pm 3.3$. Skewness was then found only for academic aspirations $-6.23 < -3.3$, academic aspirations was negatively skewed. Using the same z score critical for kurtosis, no variables were kurtotic.

There were no univariate outliers found in the data. No minimum and maximum z scores for each variable were $< \text{or} > \pm 3.3$. Moreover, a Mahalanobis distance test did not reveal any multivariate outliers, $\chi^2(2) = 13.816, \ p < .001$. In addition, linearity was met in that a bivariate scatter plot revealed a linear relationship between academic performance and academic aspirations. A Box’s M test revealed that the
assumption of homogeneity of variance matrices was met, $F(21, 231047.7) = 1.589, p < .05$. The assumption of multicollinearity was also met in that the two dependent variables were not highly correlated ($r = .90$).

Main Analyses

**Multivariate Test**

A multivariate analysis of variance was used to test the proposed hypothesis that respondents would report mean differences in academic performance and aspirations as a function of perceived parental educational involvement, acculturation and self-esteem.

A Wilk's Lambda test revealed that the combined dependent variables were not significantly affected by perceived parental educational involvement, $F(2, 312) = 2.55, p > .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .016$, but were significantly affected by both Acculturation, $F(2, 312) = 3.74, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .023$ and self-esteem, $F(2, 312) = 9.05, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .055$. A total of 2.3% of the variance in academic performance and aspirations was accounted for by acculturation while a total of 5.5% of the variance in academic performance and aspirations was accounted for by self-esteem. Participants failed to display differences in
self-reported grade point average and aspirations as a function of perceived parental educational involvement but did display differences in grade point average and aspirations as a function of acculturation and self-esteem.

**Univariate Tests**

In order to investigate the significance reported in the omnibus model, follow-up univariate tests were conducted for each of the dependent variables. Even though perceived parental educational involvement did not have a significant effect on the combined dependent variables, a univariate test revealed a significant effect of perceived parental educational involvement for academic performance only, \( F(1, 313) = 5.09, p < .05, \) partial \( \eta^2 = .016. \) A total of 1.6 % of the variance in academic performance was accounted for by perceived parental educational involvement. Specifically, participants with high perceived parental educational involvement self-reported higher grade point averages than participants with low perceived parental educational involvement. The mean differences for high and low perceived parental educational involvement are presented in Table 1.
Table 1:
Mean Differences for Parent Involvement

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Parent Involvement</th>
<th>Academic Performance</th>
<th>Academic Aspirations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>SD</td>
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<tr>
<td>Low</td>
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<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>.6569</td>
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</table>

Univariate tests also revealed a significant affect of acculturation for both academic performance, $F(1, 313) = 6.34, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$, and academic aspirations, $F(1, 313) = 3.85, p = .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .012$. A total of 2% of the variance in academic performance was accounted for by acculturation while a total of 1.2% of the variance in academic aspirations was accounted for by acculturation. Respondents in the high acculturation condition were more likely than respondents in the low acculturation condition to self-report higher grade point averages. High acculturated individuals were also more likely than low acculturated individuals to have high academic aspirations. The means for acculturation are presented in table 2.
Table 2

Mean Differences for Acculturation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acculturation</th>
<th>Academic Performance</th>
<th>Academic Aspirations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.034</td>
<td>.6169</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Univariate tests also revealed a significant effect of self-esteem for academic aspirations, $F(1, 313)= 17.70, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .054$, but not for academic performance, $F(1, 313)= 1.00, p > .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .003$. A total of 5.4% of the variance in academic aspirations was accounted for by self-esteem. Individuals in the low self-esteem condition were more likely to self-report higher academic aspirations than individuals in the low self-esteem condition. However, respondents in the high self-esteem condition did not display a significant difference in self-reported grade point averages than respondents in the low self-esteem condition. The mean scores for high and low self-esteem are recorded in Table 3.
Table 3
Mean Differences for
Self-Esteem

<table>
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<th>Self-Esteem</th>
<th>Academic Performance</th>
<th>Academic Aspirations</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
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<td>2.964</td>
<td>.6564</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hypothesis that perceived parental educational involvement would have an effect on academic aspirations was not supported. Also, the hypothesis that self-esteem would have an effect on academic performance was not supported. Moreover, the three interaction hypotheses that were presented were not supported. The analysis revealed that mean differences in academic performance and academic aspirations as a function of perceived parental educational involvement did not depend on levels of self-esteem, $F(2, 312) = .360$, $p > .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .002$. It was also revealed that mean differences in academic performance and academic aspirations as a function of perceived parental educational involvement did not depend on levels of acculturation, $F(2, 312) = .679$, $p > .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .004$. 

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Furthermore, the mean differences in academic performance and academic aspirations as a function of self-esteem did not depend on levels of acculturation, $F(2, 312) = 3.704, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .023$.

**Demographic Variables**

**Parental Educational Attainment**

Univariate tests revealed a significant main effect of parental educational attainment on academic performance, $F(2, 318) = 3.447, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .021$. A total of 2.1% of the variance in academic performance was accounted for by parental educational attainment. Parental educational attainment also significantly affected academic aspirations, $F(2, 318) = 4.945, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .030$. A total of 3% of the variance in academic aspirations was accounted for by parental academic attainment. Children of parents with a college level education self-reported a mean grade point average of 3.042 while children of parents with a high school education self-reported a mean grade point average of 2.910 and children of parents with a less than high school education self-reported a mean grade point average of 2.789. Moreover, children of parents with a college level education
self-reported a mean aspiration of 7.167 while children of parents with a high school education self-reported a mean aspiration of 6.869 and children of parents with a less than high school education self-reported a mean aspiration of 6.168.

**Generational Status**

A significant main effect of generational status was revealed for academic performance, $F(1, 318) = 3.794, p < .10$, partial $\eta^2 = .012$. A total of 1.2% of the variance in academic performance was accounted for by generational status. Generational status also significantly affected academic aspirations, $F(1, 318) = 10.58, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .032$. A total of 3.2% of the variance in academic aspirations was accounted for by generational status.

Children of second to fifth generation reported a mean grade point average of 2.97 and children of first generation reported a mean grade point average of 2.82. In addition, respondents of second to fifth generation reported a mean aspiration of 7.05 and respondents of first generation reported a mean aspiration of 6.20.
Employment Type

Univariate tests also discovered a significant main effect of employment type on academic performance, $F(1, 317) = 7.99$, $p<.05$, partial $\eta^2 = .025$. A total of 2.5% of the variance in academic performance was accounted for by employment type. Employment type also significantly affected academic aspirations, $F(1, 317) = 14.04$, $p<.05$, partial $\eta^2 = .042$. A total of 4.2% of the variance in academic aspirations was accounted for by employment type. Children of parents with jobs that require a college level education reported a mean grade point average of 3.09 and children of parents with jobs that required an education of high school or less reported a mean of 2.85. Moreover, children of parents with jobs that require a college level education reported a mean aspiration of 7.56 and children of parents with jobs that require an education of high school or less reported a mean of 6.48.

Gender

There were no significant effects of gender on academic performance and academic aspirations, $p > .05$. Mexican-American adolescents’ self-reported grade point averages did not differ as a function of gender. Females reported the
same grade point averages as males. In addition, Mexican-American adolescents' self-reported academic aspirations did not differ as a function of gender. Females reported the same academic aspirations as males.
CHAPTER FOUR
DISCUSSION

There was significance in the multivariate analysis that was performed for two of the predictor variables. A total of four of six main effect hypotheses were supported. Three independent variables, perceived parental educational involvement, acculturation and self-esteem affected the dependent variables. However, none of three interaction hypotheses that were presented were supported.

Perceived Parental Educational Involvement

The independent variable deemed to be of most importance, perceived parental educational involvement, affected the dependent variable also deemed to be of most importance, academic performance. High school students reported a mean difference in grade point average as a function of level of perceived parental educational involvement. It is important to note that academic performance was only measured via self-reported grade point averages. This finding is consistent with the preexisting literature on parental educational involvement (López, Rodríguez, & Sánchez, 1995; Ramos & Sánchez, 1995; López,
Mexican-American high school students exhibited significantly higher academic performance when they held higher perceptions of parental educational involvement than when they held lower perceptions of parental educational involvement.

There is great support in the literature for parental educational involvement as it affects academic performance (Cherian, 1995; Marcon, 1999; Reynolds, 1992; Percival, 1995). Previous studies also found support for the notion that children's perceived parental educational involvement affects academic performance (Fehrmann, Keith & Reimers, 1987). Similar to past research, the goal of this study was not to investigate how actual parental educational involvement affects academic performance in Mexican-American adolescents. Rather, the researcher was interested in revealing the extent to which children believe that their parents are involved in their educational development influences their educational outcome. This concept is important since children may selectively tune in only to certain parental actions. For instance, high school students may perceive their parents as being less involved with their academic development than they actually are. Students may
also perceive their parents as involved more than they actually are. The results indicate that perceived parental educational involvement influences performance in school for Mexican-American youth. The main difference between this investigation and other similar studies on perceived parental educational involvement is the scale that the researcher created to measure the aforementioned concept.

Another goal of this study was to investigate why Mexican-Americans are underrepresented at the high end of the educational performance continuum and overrepresented at the low end (López, 1995). Previous literature shows that there are various explanations for Mexican-Americans' hindered academic progress ranging from dispositional to situational. This study found significant support for the argument that Mexican-Americans' disproportional representation in the academic stratum is greatly influenced by social factors. In addition, the results supported the argument that perceived parental educational involvement influenced adolescents' academic performance because family is a crucial aspect of individual identity and support in the Mexican culture. Parents are usually highly respected and are perceived as having wisdom. Moreover, Mexican-American adolescents seek validation and understanding from
their parents and tend to strive to fulfill any expectations that their parents might have. In cases where there are siblings, children may compete to become “el consentido” (the pampered one) of the parents. It is therefore important to emphasize the importance of family support when explaining Mexican-American children’s performance in school. In developing different strategies to increase achievement in school for Mexican-American children, it would be critical to focus on the definition of perceived parental educational involvement.

As mentioned earlier, a major accomplishment of this study is the creation of a perceived parental educational involvement scale that presents eight aspects of perceived parental academic involvement: parent communication with the child about school, parent communication with the school, direct academic involvement, indirect academic involvement, parental expectations of the child in regards to school, academic encouragement, time management and volunteering. It is argued that type of parental educational involvement may vary per family. Even though family is important in Mexican culture, there is within group heterogeneity. Families may exhibit differences in type of parental educational involvement. For instance, families with two working parents
might rely on communicating with their children about what was learned in class for that day, what type of activities occurred at school or just talking with their children about the selection of courses. In comparison, families with two parents that are not interactive or emotionally expressive may prefer indirect involvement such as providing their children with the necessary educational materials or other resources such as a study area or a computer. These parents may also relay to their children some level of academic expectations such as expecting their children to study hard, get good grades, complete homework, and complete other assignments. Strict and controlling parents may even prefer different parental involvement such as making study schedules for their children, not allowing their children to get interrupted when doing homework, assuring that all homework and assignment deadlines are met, and controlling leisure time. Among these different typologies, there is also encouraging children to study, do well, communicate with teachers, see a tutor, and participate in school groups. Another type of parental educational involvement is volunteering. Parents may donate their time to help in school fundraising, school committees, classroom, lunch
supervision, supervision at school parties, and supervision at school sport events.

According to this study's results, the assumption can be made that parental educational involvement may be defined disparately. In addition, parents do not need to exhibit all the types of parental involvement or parents can overlap in types of involvement to influence their children's success in school. From the children's perspective, parental educational involvement can be subtle or intense in order to enhance academic performance. For instance, if children receive all of the positive parent expectations concerning school and are actually accustomed to receiving that type of involvement, then that would be all that is necessary to induce increased academic performance. On the other hand, children that are accustomed to receiving interactive or direct communicative parent involvement may not increase their academic performance as much if their parents were to switch the type of involvement exhibited and begin giving their children expectations or other indirect types of involvement. Children are molded by their families as to what type of involvement is necessary for them to feel supported and helped in their educational development. Thus, if parental educational involvement is defined in a way that
does not include a definition used by certain families, parental educational involvement as it affects Mexican-American children's academic performance may not be accurate.

Perceived parental educational involvement did not significantly affect academic aspirations. Mexican-American children did not self-report differences in how far they would like to get in education. This was not expected since academic performance is to some extent relevant to educational aspirations. However, one must keep in mind that children's definition of success may vary. Some adolescents may define success as obtaining a stable job and having a nice family while others may define it as obtaining some level of higher education, graduating from a four-year institution or receiving a graduate degree. Moreover, since only 8.4% of the sample in this study were seniors, the remaining grade levels may not be worried about after plans since they still have time to decide what they want to do. Thus, there may be other factors different from perceived parental educational involvement that affect educational aspirations in Mexican-American children. Perceived parental educational involvement might only influence actual academic performance since children are sure that good grades at the
time are necessary for later educational success. This suggests that no matter how much perceived parental educational involvement is present, Mexican-American high school students may not report their actual level of educational aspirations if they are not truly sure about what they want to do after they graduate from high school.

Acculturation

The results also revealed a significant main effect of acculturation on academic performance and academic aspirations. Respondents reported differences in self-reported grade point average and desires of academic attainment as a function of acculturation. Specifically, students with high levels of acculturation reported higher grade point averages than did students with low acculturation. Similarly, students with high acculturation scored higher on how far they would like to get in education than did students with low acculturation. The findings were parallel to those of previous literature that supports acculturation as an important contributor of academic success in Mexican-Americans (Hurtado & Gauvain, 1997; Zsembik & Llanes, 1996; Manaster & Chan, 1992).
Acculturation was expected to have an effect on students' success in school and on their educational aspirations since students' level of comfort with school interactions may depend on their level of acculturation. Mexican-American high school students with higher levels of acculturation may have an advantage since they can relate better to the educational system. High acculturated individuals may feel comfortable communicating with teachers, counselors and other school officials. They may also be more likely than low acculturated individuals to participate in school functions and other events that may help them increase popularity with teachers. Moreover, high acculturated individuals are more likely to speak English and adopt Eurocentric values and norms than less acculturated individuals (Zsembik & Llanes, 1996). The argument can then be made that factors other than Mexican culture hinder academic success in the United States since individuals who identify less with Mexican cultural values and norms prefer to engage in actions, ideology, decisions and have feelings recognized and reinforced by dominant societal members. It is then not a lack of value for education in the Mexican culture that leads to an overrepresentation of Mexican-American adolescents in low
levels of the academic performance continuum but rather, the numerous cultural differences that exist in educational practice between school and family.

There are specific cultural factors that may prevent low acculturated Mexican-American adolescents from obtaining high levels of success in school (Barona & Pfeiffer, 1992). Low acculturated students may have study skills that would be more effective in the Mexican cultural educational environment. For example, Mexican-Americans come from a collectivist society that encourages group identity and group success. That is, Mexican-American students with these cultural ties may perform better in classrooms where group work is encouraged and group performance is evaluated and included in grading. Moreover, low acculturated Mexican-American adolescents may fail in achieving favorable scores for classroom participation since the teachers are usually seen as experts and are therefore expected to take control of the presented topic. Any form of verbal expressions or other interruptions by the students are perceived as acts of disrespect in the Mexican culture. Students may then refrain from being noticed in the classroom and from joining in with other students in discussing presented issues.
Another major difference between the Mexican and the mainstream American culture is that of competence as a psychosocial construct. As mentioned previously, the Mexican culture is more collective than the Mainstream American culture and individual competition is usually not rewarded or encouraged. People that embrace these beliefs tend to view individuals that compete for individual recognition or success as self-centered and selfish. Thus, low acculturated Mexican-American adolescents may feel uncomfortable with stepping on other students to achieve higher grades or recognition by the teacher. Students may then fail to function in a class environment that favors individuals that exhibit competitive tendencies.

Low acculturated individuals may also hold other beliefs or practices that hinder their performance and academic aspirations. For instance, the Mexican culture promotes a placid, peaceful and worry-free mental state. Mexican-American children that endorse this style of thinking may believe that their grade will be fine and that all of their work and assignments are above average and their class participation satisfactory. This is not to be interpreted as indolence or lack of motivation or determination as promoted by the culture but rather, as a
mental ease that perceives certain situations as being under control and in place. The aforementioned cultural differences are only a selective few factors that may impede low acculturated Mexican-American adolescents' positive academic outcomes. Apart from different cultural practices in school, there are other factors related to the American social system that may contribute to low acculturated Mexican-American adolescents' subordinate academic performance and desired academic attainment.

Mexican-American children's scholastic success may also be affected by acculturation in that low acculturated individuals tend to belong to larger, more indigent and more rural families (Manaster & Chan, 1992). Obviously, all low acculturated individuals are not poor or do not have large families but they are twice as likely than high acculturated individuals or Anglos to have a low socioeconomic status. The low levels of academic success in low acculturated adolescents are not surprising since a large number of Mexicans in the United States are first and second generation. In this study, a great majority of the sample was also first and second generation. Hence, low acculturated individuals could have scored low on academic performance and aspirations since they are likely to come
from newly arrived, culturally traditional or non-established immigrant families whereas high acculturated individuals may be likely to come from less traditional or established immigrant families. In this case, the parental level of generational status may have a great impact on children’s academic success since a language barrier and other adjustment complications may exist.

First generation Mexican-Americans or immigrants experience many adversities as new arrivals in the United States. For instance, they must deal with the stress of establishing a new home in a completely new environment. Mexican immigrants are also very likely to have had a lower socioeconomic background in Mexico which is usually a push factor in the issue of immigration (Mirandé & López, 1993). In light of this information, the assumption could be made that since low acculturated individuals tend to come from immigrant and destitute families, they lack the educational resources necessary to obtain positive educational outcomes.

Acculturation is a controversial topic at times when researchers make misattributions about low acculturated individuals’ impeded academic progress. This usually occurs when researchers adopt the assimilationist model to interpret and explain their results since Mexican-Americans'
assimilation is greatly hindered. The model argues that immigrants come from less industrialized nations with very low skills and diminished employment opportunities. The model then states that as immigrants begin to accept mainstream American values and norms and obtain higher levels of education, they begin to achieve higher levels of socioeconomic success and political representation. This perspective also asserts that immigrants that fail to reach economic success through assimilation have flaws in their culture and lack the motivation and determination to take advantage of equal opportunities (Mirandé & López, 1993). The failure of success in immigrants is then attributed to the individual and the culture instead of to the oppressionist properties of the system. The goal in this explanation is not to discredit success in highly assimilated individuals, but to bring to light the argument that omnibus mainstream oppression is highly responsible for Mexican-American’s low levels of success in America. Using an assimilationist perspective to analyze Mexican-Americans’ immigration experience in the United States can clarify how the sociopolitical and educational system perpetuates their lack of advancement in mainstream society. According to this model, Mexicans immigrate to the United States and are only
allowed to obtain low paying jobs and are, therefore forced to live in inadequate housing in impecunious neighborhoods. Consequently, their children must attend inadequate schools and have fewer educational resources (Hurtado & Gauvain, 1997; Pérez & Salazar, 1993).

The concern then lies in whether or not Mexican-Americans will reach high acculturation levels as a group and, in turn, high levels of academic success. This issue is somewhat difficult to address because acculturation is different for racially identifiable ethnic minorities than for the European ethnic minorities on which the assimilation model was based. European immigrants that immigrated to the United States during the Atlantic migration followed the stages of the assimilation paradigm and achieved economic prosperity and mainstream societal integration. However, Mexican-Americans experience a delay in achieving such high levels of acculturation or refrain from achieving them at all since they are a highly identifiable group (Aguirre & Turner, 2001). This means that their phenotypical differences will make them continuous targets of tacit economic, political and educational oppression. Mexican-American children’s perceptions of social inequality may then generate feelings of inferiority, which in turn may
negatively affect their academic performance and aspirations. Thus, it is important for acculturation to be identified as a significant contributor of academic success in Mexican-Americans but the lack of positive educational outcomes for those that exhibit low acculturation should be analyzed carefully from within and outside the culture and explained with caution.

It is now obvious that acculturation remains a central issue in the study of Mexican-American adolescents' educational performance and academic aspirations. This study's findings contribute to the preexisting literature that has detected effects of acculturation on academic development in Mexican-American children. Even though acculturation has been measured in various ways, the effects are still detected. It is important that future research include sociopolitical and economic factors, oppressionist qualities of the American social system and cultural beliefs, ideologies and values when attempting to explain the negative effects of acculturation on academic outcomes in Mexican-American adolescents. Overall, acculturation literature must emphasize the importance of making the classroom more culturally accommodating since researchers in previous study's revealed that Mexican-American students
outperformed their Euro-American counterparts in simulated academic environments that represented Mexican cultural interaction styles (Barona & Pfeiffer, 1992).

Self-Esteem

The results also revealed a significant main effect of self-esteem on academic aspirations but not on academic performance. Mexican-American adolescents with high self-esteem self-reported higher academic aspirations than did Mexican-American adolescents with low self-esteem. However, respondents failed to exhibit differences in self-reported grade point average as a function of self-esteem.

This study expected to reveal effects of self-esteem on educational aspirations since Mexican-American high school students' perceptions of how far they could advance in academia may be greatly distorted by their feelings of how well they would perform at different levels of education. Self-esteem may have failed to affect academic performance because children may not think much about their current performance. Students usually perform in class at the best of their ability one day at a time. On the contrary, children truly have to understand themselves in order to determine how far they think they could get in education.
Thus, predictions of educational attainment may become easily influenced by students’ level of self-esteem. Specifically, students that believe and feel that they are able to successfully complete whatever academic or general task they are given or who have a good concept of themselves may not experience difficulties in predicting how far they could get in education, therefore having high academic aspirations. Children who then feel that they would fail at varying tasks or believe that they don’t possess good qualities may experience difficulties in predicting how far they would get in education, in turn having low academic aspirations.

Self-esteem continues to be a strong predictor of Mexican-American adolescents' educational aspirations. It would then be crucial to reveal different ways that self-esteem could be impacted so that students could have higher aspirations. For instance, it would be wise to study the different variables that may affect self-esteem so that academic aspirations could be increased. This task may be difficult since individuals with low self-esteem may have acquired it over the course of many years. On the other hand, academic aspirations may not be of great importance since they are just desires of educational attainment. In
other words, children with low self-esteem and low academic aspirations may not desire to get very far in academia but that does not necessarily mean that they will have low educational attainment. Since self-esteem did not have an affect on academic performance, it is difficult to predict how far Mexican-Americans with low self-esteem would actually get in education. Adolescents may continue to perform in school on a day by day and assignment by assignment basis. And this accumulated performance, if positive, could lead to high academic attainment in the future.

Mexican-American high school students' level of self-esteem needs to be further analyzed to determine how important it is in affecting their life outcomes. For instance, in what other specific aspects of education do Mexican-American adolescents differ as a function of self-esteem. Overall academic performance and aspirations are probably too broad of an area to engender an effective method of reversing the negative effects of self-esteem. For instance, researchers of previous literature (Evans & Anderson, 1973) found that Mexican-American students who live in households where Spanish is the primary language spoken exhibited lower self-esteem than their non-Spanish
speaking Mexican-American and Anglo-American counterparts. This suggests that Mexican-American children may have low self-esteem because of the language barrier and group identification factors. Mexican-American students may not feel accepted by mainstream society because they belong to a highly identifiable subordinate subpopulation. Further, the symbolic oppressionist tendencies of dominant society may induce feelings of inferiority in Mexican-American adolescents, which in turn may induce low self-esteem.

Overall, self-esteem is a highly debated topic in the cross-cultural literature and should, therefore receive consideration when studying academic performance, educational aspirations and other types of success in Mexican-Americans (Waxman, Haung & Pardón, 1997; Evans & Anderson, 1973). Increasing the understanding of how self-esteem hinders Mexican-American adolescents’ educational performance and attainment can make significant contributions to social and educational reform.

Limitations

This study was designed to accommodate the time shortage in the high school classes where the data was collected. Thus, students had to be relied on to read the
consent and the instructions and to take their time in completing the survey alone, in the absence of the experimenter. This could have had some effect on students' honesty in completing the survey. Future studies should attempt to have participants complete the survey in class in the presence of the researcher. Further, grade point averages were taken on self-report without the experimenter cross-referencing them with school records. It would probably be useful to retrieve grade information from school files in future studies that use grade point average as a primary dependent variable. Even though the presented limitations in this study may have affected the results, the following implications will be made.

Significance and Implications

The present study contributed immensely to the scarce literature that provides extensive explanations for Mexican-Americans' educational, social, and political advancement in the United States. The results suggested that Mexican-American adolescents' academic performance and educational aspirations are impacted by the level of parental educational involvement perceived by the students, the level of acculturation of the student and the level of self-esteem
of the student. Perhaps the most significant finding of the study was that children's own perceptions of the extent to which their parents are involved in their academic development actually affect their educational outcomes. Rather than concluding that parent involvement affects educational success in Mexican-American adolescents, this study asserts that Mexican-American children's academic performance can be influenced by children's own recollections of their parents' educational involvement. If children view their parents as being highly involved in their education they will perform better than if they view their parents as being less involved. It is then suggested to work with adolescents in developing accuracy in retrieving information about their parents' level of educational involvement. It is also recommended that future studies focus on developing a perceived parental educational involvement scale that measures various types of parental educational involvement.

Acculturation and self-esteem were secondary variables that also proved to be significant in the study of Mexican-American high school students' academic performance and academic aspirations. Even though these variables were of secondary importance, they are still central to the academic
performance and aspirations of Mexican-American high school students. There is still some concern as to why self-esteem affected academic aspirations and not academic performance. It is suggested that students be made aware of their cultural differences and self-esteem levels and how they can effect their academic performance and aspirations.

Future research should continue focusing on the effects of children's perceived parental educational involvement on Mexican Americans' educational success and attainment. For instance, researchers should create longitudinal treatment conditions such as programs that encourage children to point out ways in which their parents are involved in their education and to help them acknowledge any attempts that their parents make in becoming involved academically. In addition, future research should also focus on studying other factors that may motivate Mexican-American students to succeed educationally and to acquire higher levels of education. It would also be wise to conjure an accurate definition of parental educational involvement. Overall, the presented future implications will be important in that many public and private programs can be created in order to guide Mexican-Americans to prosperity in a foreign nation.
Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to develop a better understanding of and explanation for Mexican-American adolescents' impeded educational progress. The results suggest that social, psychological and cultural factors all affect Mexican-American high school students' grade point average and desires to achieve high levels of educational attainment. Specifically, children's actual views of the extent to which their parents are involved in their academic development influenced grade point average but not educational aspirations. Furthermore, the extent to which individuals identify with dominant culture or their culture of origin affected both academic performance and academic aspirations. It was also discovered that self-esteem only affected educational aspirations. This study found no significant two-way or three-way interactions. Finally, this study was completed with the hope that it would contribute immensely to the social and educational advancement of Mexican-American adolescents.
APPENDIX A:

PARENTAL INFORMED CONSENT

IN ENGLISH
Parental Informed Consent

**Parent Educational Involvement study**

We are asking your permission to allow your child to participate in a study about parents' involvement in Education. This investigation is part of a psychology Master's thesis conducted by Francisco D. Carranza under the supervision of Dr. David Chávez, Dr. Gloria Cowan and Dr. Jean Peacock. This study's main objective is to investigate the extent to which parental involvement affects children's educational outcomes.

Your child’s participation in this study is completely voluntary and her/his individual responses will remain anonymous. The results will be presented in group-form only—excluding the name of your child’s school. Further, your child’s grade will not be influenced by whether or not your child participates in the study. Your child will be asked to answer a questionnaire upon returning the consent form to her/his specified school official. All surveying sessions will take place on your child’s school grounds.

In this study, it will be required of your child to answer a series of questions related to her/his perceptions of parental educational involvement. The survey will take your child approximately thirty (30) minutes to complete. In addition, your child may choose to terminate participation at any time or refrain from answering a particular item. At no point will your child’s name be reported with her/his responses. The Institutional Review Board at California State University, San Bernardino and the Superintendent of San Bernardino City Unified School District reviewed and approved this study.

If you have concerns or questions relevant to this study, please feel free to contact Dr. David Chávez at (909) 880-5572. If you have any questions regarding participants’ rights, you may contact the University’s Institutional Review Board at (909) 880-5027. Moreover, if your child experiences any discomfort as a result of this study, you may contact your child’s school counselor, Dr. David Chávez at CSUSB, or the University’s Counseling Center at (909) 880-5054.

The California State Education Code #51513 requires parental notification and consent whenever questions about their children are being asked. Thus, if you are in agreement with the conditions stated above, and you grant your child permission to participate in the indicated study, please sign and date the appropriate spaces provided below. By doing this you are stating that you understand this study’s main objective and you voluntarily consent your child’s participation.

Parent/Guardian signature: ___________________________ Today’s Date: __________

Child’s Name: ___________________________

Thank you for your time and consideration!
APPENDIX B:

PARENTAL INFORMED CONSENT

IN SPANISH
Consentimiento Escrito de Padres de Familia

Estudio del Comprometimiento Escolar de Padres de Familia

Le estamos pidiendo permiso para que su hijo/a participe en un estudio del comprometimiento escolar de padres. Esta investigación es parte de un tesis requerido para recibir el título de maestría en psicología. El proyecto será conducido por Francisco D. Carranza y será dirigido por el Dr. David Chávez, la Dra. Gloria Cowan y la Dra. Jean Peacock de la Universidad de el Estado de California en San Bernardino (UECSB). El objetivo principal de este estudio es investigar el extremo a cual le afecta el comprometimiento escolar de los padres al resultado educacional de sus hijos.

La participación de su hijo/a en esta investigación será completamente voluntaria y sus respuestas individuales permanecerán anónimas. Los resultados del cuestionario serán presentados en grupo—exceptuando el nombre de la escuela de su hijo/a. Además, las notas escolares de su hijo/a no serán afectadas si su hijo/a decide participar o rechazar el estudio. Le pediremos a su hijo/a que responda a un serie de preguntas formadas en cuestionario al entregar esta forma firmada por usted a su consejero/a educacional o al oficial escolar que es responsable por los consentimientos escritos. Su hijo/a llenará el cuestionario dentro de su campo escolar.

En este estudio, le requeriremos a su hijo/a que conteste un serie de preguntas a cerca de sus precepciones del comprometimiento escolar de padres de familia. El cuestionario le tomará a su hijo/a aproximadamente media hora en terminarlo. Además, si su hijo/a no quicierra terminar el estudio, podrá decidir dejar de seguir adelante en el estudio o dejar de responder a cualquier pregunta a la hora que quiera. En ningún modo se presentarán las respuestas de su hijo/a con su nombre. El Directorio Institucional de Reviso de la Universidad del Estado de California en San Bernardino y el Superintendente del Distrito Escolar de San Bernardino revisaron y aprobaron esta investigación.

Si tiene algunas preocupaciones o preguntas a cerca del estudio, favor de comunicarse con el Dr. Chávez al número telefónico (909) 880-5572. Si tiene preguntas a cerca del derecho de participantes, favor de comunicarse con el Directorio Institucional de Reviso al (909) 880-5027. Además, si su hijo/a siente molestia a causa de su participación en este estudio, comuníquese con el consejero de la escuela de su hijo/a, con el Dr. David Chávez en la USCSB, o con el Centro de Consejería de la Universidad al (909) 880-5054.

El Código de Educación del Estado de California # 51513 requiere que un consentimiento firmado por los padres de familia sea obtenido si le están haciendo preguntas de su hijo/a. Si está de acuerdo con las condiciones describidas previamente, y le da permiso a su hijo/a participar en el estudio, favor de colocar su firma y la fecha en las líneas apropiadas abajo. En firmando, usded demuestra que entiende el objetivo principal del estudio y que le da su consentido voluntariamente a su hijo/a para participar en este estudio.

Firma de Padres/Guardián_____________________________________La fecha__________

El nombre de su hijo/a

¡Gracias por su tiempo y consideración!
APPENDIX C:

STUDENT INFORMED CONSENT
Informed Consent

Parent Educational Involvement Study

The study in which you are about to participate is part of a psychology Master’s thesis conducted by Francisco D. Carranza under the supervision of Dr. David Chávez, Dr. Gloria Cowan and Dr. Jean Peacock. This study’s main objective is to investigate the extent to which parental involvement affects children’s educational outcomes.

California Educational Code # 51513 requires that we notify your parent or guardian and obtain his/her permission before asking you to participate in any research studies. Your parent/guardian has given consent for you to participate in this study; however, your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may choose to participate or not to participate, and your choice will not influence your grades at school.

If you choose to participate in this study, you will be asked questions related to your perceptions about your parents’ involvement in your education. It will take approximately 30 minutes of your time to complete the questions and you may answer these questions at school. Please note that your responses will remain anonymous. Your name will not be reported with your responses and no one (including your parents, friends, and teachers) except the researchers will be able to read your answers. When we report the results of this study, we will report them in group form only. While you are answering the questions, if you feel any discomfort or do not want to continue answering the questions you may let us know and stop at any time.

This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at California State University, San Bernardino and the Superintendent of San Bernardino City Unified School District. If you have any concerns or questions related to this study, or if you experience any discomfort as a result of this study, you may contact your school counselor, or Dr. David Chávez at (909) 880-5572.

Again, you may choose to participate or not to participate without influencing your grades at school. If you want to participate, please place an “X” and the date in the spaces below. By placing the “X” in the space below, you have indicated that you understand the purpose of this study and you voluntarily consent to participate.

Place an “X” here: _____  Today’s Date: _______

Thank you for your time, honesty, and patience in this inquiry!
APPENDIX D:

DEMOGRAPHICS
Demographics

Please circle the answer that best applies to you. Only circle one.

1. Gender: Male       Female

2. Age in years: 12  13  14  15  16  17  18  19

Please indicate your parents' level of educational attainment. Only circle one.

1. No high school or below high school
2. Obtained a GED
3. Graduated from high school
4. Completed some college coursework
5. Graduated from a two-year community college
6. Graduated from a four-year university (BA or BS)
7. Obtained a credential after obtaining a BA or BS (teaching, educational counseling etc.)
8. Obtained a graduate or professional degree (MA, MS, Ph.D., MD, etc.)

Please indicate your current grade level in school:

1. 9th
2. 10th
3. 11th
4. 12th

Please indicate your ethnicity (Mexican-American, Salvadorian-American, etc.):__________________________________
Please circle the generation that best applies to you. Only circle one.

1. 1st generation = you were born in Mexico or other country.

2. 2nd generation = you were born in USA; either parent born in Mexico or other country.

3. 3rd generation = you were born in USA, both parents born in USA and all grandparents born in Mexico or other country.

4. 4th generation = you and your parents born in USA and at least one grandparent born in Mexico or other country with remainder born in the USA.

5. 5th generation = you and your parents born in the USA and all grandparents born in the USA.

Please indicate your current GPA here: ____________

Please indicate your parents' occupation (type of employment): ____________________________
Please circle the answer choice that best applies to you. Only circle one.

How far would you like to get in education:

1. Obtain a GED.

2. Graduate from high school.

3. Graduate from a vocational college.

4. Attend a two-year community college for self-enhancement.

5. Graduate from a two-year community college.

6. Transfer from a two-year community college to a four-year university.

7. Graduate from a four-year university (BA or BS)

8. Receive a credential (teaching, educational counseling, etc.)

9. Receive a graduate or professional degree (MA, MS, Ph.D., MD, etc.)
APPENDIX E:

PERCEIVED PARENTAL EDUCATIONAL INVOLVEMENT SCALE
Please circle the answer that best applies to you. Only circle one.

1 = never, 2 = seldom, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = always

1. My parents discuss the selection of courses with me ........ 1 2 3 4 5

2. My parents discuss the selection of school programs with me ......... 1 2 3 4 5

3. My parents discuss school activities with me ........ .... 1 2 3 4 5

4. My parents discuss school events with me ........ .... 1 2 3 4 5

5. My parents discuss the things I studied in class with me ........ .... 1 2 3 4 5

6. My parents discussed the planning of my school program with me ......... 1 2 3 4 5

7. My parents attend meetings held at my school ........ .... 1 2 3 4 5

8. My parents speak with my teacher over the phone ........ .... 1 2 3 4 5

9. My parents speak with my counselor over the phone ........ .... 1 2 3 4 5

10. My parents visit my classroom ........ .... 1 2 3 4 5

11. My parents check my homework ........ .... 1 2 3 4 5

12. My parents limit my television watching ........ .... 1 2 3 4 5
1 = never, 2 = seldom, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = always

13. My parents limit me going out . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
14. My parents expect me to graduate from high school . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
15. My parents expect me to have some college education . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
16. My parents expect me to graduate from college . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
17. My parents expect me to attend graduate school . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
18. My parents help me with my home work. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
19. My parents help me with school assignments . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
20. My parents help me with School projects . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
21. My parents provide me with a study area. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
22. My parents provide me with a computer. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
23. My parents provide me with all the school materials that I need . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
24. My parents provide me with good academic advice. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
25. My parents expect me to get good grades . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
26. My parents expect me to study hard. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
1 = never, 2 = seldom, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = always

27. My parents expect me to complete my homework ........ 1 2 3 4 5
28. My parents expect me to complete my class assignments . . 1 2 3 4 5
29. My parents notify my school when I am ill ............... 1 2 3 4 5
30. My parents notify my school when I need to be absent. .... 1 2 3 4 5
31. My parents encourage me to have good school attendance . . . 1 2 3 4 5
32. My parents encourage me to do well before I leave for school. .... 1 2 3 4 5
33. My parents encourage me to study well for exams .......... 1 2 3 4 5
34. My parents encourage me to communicate with my teacher. .... 1 2 3 4 5
35. My parents encourage me to communicate with my counselor. .... 1 2 3 4 5
36. My parents encourage me to meet all of my assignment deadlines. .... 1 2 3 4 5
37. My parents encourage me to see a tutor. ................. 1 2 3 4 5
38. My parents encourage me to participate in study groups. .... 1 2 3 4 5
1 = never, 2 = seldom, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, 5 = always

39. My parents make a study schedule for me ............ 1 2 3 4 5

40. My parents do not allow me to get interrupted when I’m doing my home work ............ 1 2 3 4 5

41. My parents make sure that I meet my home work deadline ............ 1 2 3 4 5

42. My parents make sure that I meet my assignment deadlines ............ 1 2 3 4 5

43. My parents do not allow me leisure time unless I’m done with my home work ............ 1 2 3 4 5

44. My parents volunteer in school fundraising ............ 1 2 3 4 5

45. My parents volunteer in school committees ............ 1 2 3 4 5

46. My parents volunteer their time in the classroom ............ 1 2 3 4 5

47. My parents volunteer for lunch supervision ............ 1 2 3 4 5

48. My parents volunteer for supervision at school parties ............ 1 2 3 4 5

49. My parents volunteer for supervision at school sport events ............ 1 2 3 4 5
APPENDIX F:

ACCULTURATION SCALE
Please circle the number that best applies to you. Only circle one.

1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little or not very often
3 = Moderately, 4 = Much or very often, 5 = Extremely often or almost always

1. I speak Spanish. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
2. I speak English. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
3. I enjoy speaking Spanish. . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
4. I associate with Anglos . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
5. I associate with Mexicans or Mexican-Americans. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
6. I enjoy listening to Spanish language. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
7. I enjoy listening to English language music . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
8. I enjoy Spanish language TV. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
9. I enjoy English language TV. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
10. I enjoy English language movies. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
11. I enjoy Spanish language movies. . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
12. I enjoy reading (e.g., books in Spanish). . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
13. I enjoy reading (e.g., books in English). . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Not at all, 2 = Very little or not very often</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Moderately, 4 = Much or very often, 5 = Extremely often or almost always</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I write (e.g., letters in Spanish)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I write (e.g., letters in English)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>My thinking is done in the English language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>My thinking is done in the Spanish language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>My contact with Mexico has been</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>My contact with the USA has been</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>My father identifies or identified himself as &quot;Mexicano&quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>My mother identifies or identified herself as &quot;Mexicana&quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>My friends, while I was growing up, were of Mexican origin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>My friends, while I was growing up, were of Anglo origin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>My family cooks Mexican foods</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>My friends now are of Anglo origin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little or not very often
3 = Moderately, 4 = Much or very often, 5 = Extremely often or almost always

26. My friends now are of Mexican origin .................. 1 2 3 4 5

27. I like to identify myself as an Anglo-American ............... 1 2 3 4 5

28. I like to identify myself as a Mexican-American ............. 1 2 3 4 5

29. I like to identify myself as a Mexican ...................... 1 2 3 4 5

30. I like to identify myself as an American ................... 1 2 3 4 5

Please circle the answer that best applies to you. Only circle one.

1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little or not very often
3 = Moderately, 4 = Much or very often, 5 = Extremely often or almost always

1. I have difficulty accepting some ideas held by Anglos ........ 1 2 3 4 5

2. I have difficulty accepting certain attitudes held by Anglos .... 1 2 3 4 5

3. I have difficulty accepting some behaviors exhibited by Anglos ... 1 2 3 4 5
1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little or not very often 3 = Moderately,
4 = Much or very often, 5 = Extremely often or almost always

4. I have difficulty
   accepting some values
   held by some Anglos .......... 1 2 3 4 5

5. I have difficulty
   accepting certain practices
   and customs commonly found
   in some Anglos .............. 1 2 3 4 5

6. I have, or think I would have,
difficulty accepting Anglos
   as close personal friends .......... 1 2 3 4 5

7. I have difficulty accepting
   ideas held by some
   Mexicans .................. 1 2 3 4 5

8. I have difficulty
   accepting certain
   attitudes held by
   Mexicans .................. 1 2 3 4 5

9. I have difficulty
   accepting some behaviors
   exhibited by Mexicans .......... 1 2 3 4 5

10. I have difficulty
    accepting some values
    held by some Mexicans ........ 1 2 3 4 5

11. I have difficulty
    accepting certain practices
    and customs commonly found
    in some Mexicans ............ 1 2 3 4 5

12. I have, or think I would
    have, difficulty accepting
    Mexicans as close
    personal friends ........... 1 2 3 4 5

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1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little or not very often
3 = Moderately, 4 = Much or very often, 5 = Extremely often or almost always

13. I have difficulty accepting ideas held by some Mexican-Americans . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5

14. I have difficulty accepting certain attitudes held by Mexican-Americans . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5

15. I have difficulty accepting some behaviors exhibited by Mexican-Americans . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5

16. I have difficulty accepting some values held by Mexican-Americans . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5

17. I have difficulty accepting certain practices and customs commonly found in some Mexican-Americans . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5

18. I have, or think I would have, difficulty accepting Mexican-Americans as close personal friends . . . . . . . . 1 2 3 4 5
APPENDIX G:

SELF-ESTEEM SCALE
Please circle the answer that best applies to you. Only circle one.

1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself ............. 1 2 3 4 5
2. At times I think I am no good at all ............. 1 2 3 4 5
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities ............. 1 2 3 4 5
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people ............. 1 2 3 4 5
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of ............. 1 2 3 4 5
6. I certainly feel Useless at times ............. 1 2 3 4 5
7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others ............. 1 2 3 4 5
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself ............. 1 2 3 4 5
9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure ............. 1 2 3 4 5
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself ............. 1 2 3 4 5
APPENDIX H:

DEBRIEFING STATEMENT
Thank you for participating in the parental educational involvement study. This study was designed to investigate the effects of perceived parental educational involvement, acculturation and self-esteem on the academic performance and academic aspirations of Mexican-American high school students. This study’s main objective was to reveal whether your performance in school or desires to continue your education are affected by your perceptions of your parents’ involvement in your academic development, your preference to identify with mainstream America or your culture of origin, and your global self-perceptions. Our hope is that your responses to the items truly represent how you feel. A full description of the study was not presented to you before the questionnaire in order to prevent your responses from being guided by the true purpose of the study. Please do not discuss this study with your friends because they may want to participate in this study later.

If you have any concerns or questions related to this study, or if you have experienced any discomfort as a result of this study, you may contact your school counselor, or Dr. David Chávez at (909) 880-5572. The results of this study will be available after June 15, 2002. If you would like to know the general results of this study, please contact Dr. David Chávez. Thank you very much for your participation.
REFERENCES


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Home influence on school learning: direct and indirect effects of parental involvement on high school grades. *Journal of Educational Research, 80*(6), 330-337.


