Educational Opportunity for Immigrant Children: From Preschool to Higher Education
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EDITORS’ MESSAGE

Even though almost 30 years have passed since the first issue of the AMAE Journal, many of the research problems that the authors addressed back then are still with us. We are painfully aware of the significant challenges currently facing the Latino community. Our undocumented students are languishing, with few opportunities to develop educationally. States like Arizona have made it virtually impossible for Latino students to experience their language and cultures in our schools, as policies have tried to do away with bilingual education and Chicano studies in their schools. Our prisons are full of Latinos, products of an ineffective educational system that has failed them. A recent report on minority teachers has demonstrated that we are losing these teachers at a higher rate than white teachers. The same is evident at the university level, where it is equally evident that the educational pipeline has not produced a sufficient number of professors to replace those who are retiring, and many of these your professors are struggling with the retention, promotion and tenure process. These are a few of the salient issues we continue to face as a Latino education community.

We are in a period of transition as many who joined the teaching profession and have now retired or are close to retiring. But we must redouble our efforts to create opportunities for new Latino researchers and educators to develop and prosper in their chosen profession. In doing so, we give them a chance to make a difference in our schools and communities and begin to reverse the trend of educational failure in our educational institutions. In this effort, the AMAE Journal has increased its prominence in the past few years in developing high quality, timely and relevant issues to Latino education including this year’s theme issue focused on immigrant education. This AMAE Journal seeks to support the next generation of educators and scholars to authentically and rigorously examine issues in Latino education.

In addition, we have established an advisory editorial board that exemplifies the excellence this journal strives to achieve. We are also moving forward with publishing two issues per year starting in 2012. One issue will be a theme issue and the second will be an “open” issue. We hope to provide more opportunity for researchers, academics and educators to publish important scholarly articles or essays to improve the educational conditions of Latino youth, families and communities. We are also seeking two associate editors to join the editorial team to help produce the biannual AMAE Journal. More information regarding the call for the associate editors can be found in the back of this issue. You may also find more information regarding the AMAE Journal at www.amaejournal.wordpress.com.

We are proud and thankful for the outstanding job the guest editors, James Rodríguez, Will Pérez and Patricia Pérez, did in putting together this collection of state of the art articles on educational opportunity for immigrant youth. We would also like to thank the authors who submitted to this issue both published and unpublished for their scholarship in this area. We hope this theme issue promotes an increased effort to conduct scholarship and research to challenge and improve the conditions of immigrant youth both documented and undocumented.

Sincerely,

Oscar Jiménez-Castellanos, Juan Flores, and Antonio Camacho, AMAE Co-Editors
An Introduction to Educational Opportunity for Immigrant Children: From Preschool to Higher Education

James L. Rodríguez
California State University, Fullerton

William Pérez
Claremont Graduate University

Patricia A. Pérez
California State University, Fullerton

GUEST EDITORS

This special issue of the Association of Mexican American Educators Journal presents a series of articles that focus on theoretical/conceptual, curricular, pedagogical, and policy issues that are central to the education of Latino immigrants. This special issue highlights the challenges and opportunities to create and sustain educational programs that are effective, equitable, and socially just for Latino immigrants and their families. The timeliness of this issue is marked by notable factors that define the current educational context for Latino immigrants. These factors include the ongoing debate over U.S. immigration policy, an increasingly interconnected global economy, an economic recession, and the progressive growth of Latino immigrant populations in the United States.

The struggle for equitable education for immigrants highlights the critical need to educate and enrich the policies, programs, and practices that lead to positive educational and psychological outcomes. The articles in this special issue illustrate the need for socially just and equitable approaches to the education of Latina/o immigrant students.

Towards this end, the special issue opens with an article, “Somos Iguales…Pero No Tanto: Examining the Experiences of Belonging among Undocumented Immigrant Latina/o Students,” that shares the perspectives of undocumented immigrant Latina/o high school students. Jesús Rodríguez, via in-depth interviews, captures how culture, language, and immigration status shape the sense of belongingness and educational perspectives of immigrant adolescents confronting challenges as they seek educational opportunity. Rodríguez highlights the psychosocial impacts on undocumented immigrants within a high school context.

The next article, “Access and Opportunity for Latina/o Undocumented College Students: Familial and Institutional Support Factors,” authored by Patricia A. Pérez and James L. Rodríguez, examines how familial and institutional factors promote the education of Latina/o undocumented college students attending a public Hispanic-Serving Institution. This article contributes to the conversation surrounding the state of education for Latina/o undocumented students by sharing their voices and experiences to promote greater access, opportunity, and success in higher education.

The third article, “Examining the Experiences of Undocumented College Students: Walking the Known and Unknown Lived Spaces,” by Rodolfo Jacobo and Alberto M. Ochoa, presents a conceptual framework to examine the experiences of undocumented college-aged students at a community college and a four-year university. Applying a qualitative approach, Jacobo and Ochoa identify four themes embedded in the experiences of the undocumented college students in their study, namely, identity, membership, microaggressions, and structural violence.

In the article, “The College Pathways of Foreign-Born & Native-Born Latina/o College Students at Four-Year Institutions,” Victor Saenz and his co-authors provide a quantitative study examining the academic preparation of foreign- and native-born Latinas/os entering four-year institutions. Saenz et al. report that foreign-born students are less prepared for college and are more likely to make a choice to attend a specific institution due to financial concerns.
The final article in the special issue by Rosa D. Manzo and her co-authors, “Professional Development of Secondary Science Teachers of English Learners in Immigrant Communities,” addresses the professional development of secondary science teachers to better serve immigrant students. Using teacher observations, Manzo et al. document the use of specific pedagogical strategies to improve the content knowledge acquisition of immigrant students who are English learners.

In addition to the articles presented, this special issue contains a book review and several creative writing pieces. Edelina Burciaga provides a review of William Perez’s forthcoming book from Teachers College Press, Americans by Heart: Undocumented Latino Students and the Promise of Higher Education. This review is followed by Gabriela Romero’s essay, “Reflections of Me: Divergent Educational Experiences,” which addresses the complexity of educational access for immigrant families. The special issue concludes with a selection of poems.

Finally, there are two important notes regarding this special issue that we would like to highlight. First, we originally set out for this special issue to focus on the education of Latina/o immigrants, documented and undocumented, from preschool through higher education. However, the articles submitted to the special issue focused on high school and college-aged Latina/o immigrant students with a clear emphasis on undocumented students. Nonetheless, we have left the title of the special issue in its original form to emphasize the need to focus on the continuum of developmental and educational experiences from early childhood through adulthood. Second, this special issue presents a sampling of recent and emergent research on the education of Latina/immigrants. Due to space limitations, it was not possible to include a number of noteworthy papers. To that end, we hope the articles that have been included in the special issue will encourage continued conversation and scholarship regarding the education of Latina/o immigrants. It is our hope that all students, regardless of their immigration status, experience educational excellence and equity.
Somos Iguales...Pero No Tanto: Examining the Experience of Belonging among Undocumented Immigrant Latina/o Students

Jesús Rodríguez
California State University, Long Beach

Abstract
Using data collected from a larger ethnographic study that explored the educational experiences of three generational cohorts of undocumented immigrant Latino students in a public secondary school setting, this study provides undocumented students’ perspective on barriers (perceived or real) to feeling or not feeling like a member of the school community. Qualitative interviews with twelve undocumented immigrant Latina/o students identified discriminatory factors that contributed to students’ beliefs about their undocumented status among documented Latina/o peers. Findings indicate that feelings of belonging within-group variation (1.25, 1.5, and 1.75) of undocumented Latina/o students were challenged when issues of language, age of migration and the dominant American narrative projected by their Latina/o documented peers placed undocumented students’ outside of the shared cultural group and society.

Introduction
Immigration has always played a significant role in the development of America’s narrative on social and economic expansion. While economic reasons remain a significant reason for unauthorized migration, the desire for family unification has led to an increase in the number of women and children making the dangerous journey across the border (Biococchi, 2009). Once across the border, the process of creating a new designation of space that seeks to recreate their lost world begins (Ainslie, 1998). Those children and youth entering into the United States as undocumented minors find themselves in a legal tight spot with limited educational opportunities and privileges. Many of these same children will grow up in the only country they will ever know and become a generation of youth that will face unique social, political, and legal complications that will place them as “hostages in the immigration crisis” (Lopez, 2005, p. 1373).

Age of Migration and Generational Cohorts
The relation of age of immigration and length of residence in the United States has varying effects on identity, mental health, and behavioral outcomes for Latina/o youth (Alegría, Scribney, Woo, Torres, & Guarnaccia, 2007). According to Alegría et al. (2007), those “immigrating at an early age may have greater integration into U.S. culture and potentially weaker identification with Latino cultural values” because of larger societal forces (p. 3). Their socialization process into U.S. culture is far easier than those immigrating at a later age. Despite differences in age of migration and adaptive outcomes, undocumented children and youth confront unique challenges in navigating the legal and educational contradictions which may place them at greater risk for social, academic, and mental health problems.

The term 1.5 generation is part of a much larger classification of immigrants who arrive as children and youth. It is the most commonly used term given by scholars who distinguish sub-generational cohorts within that group of undocumented children and youth. These classifications or distinct groups are based largely on their age at the time of migration formally
designating members of any ethnic group whose age of migration to the United States ranges from 6 to 12 years of age (Gonzales, 2007; Rumbaut, 2004; Rumbaut & Ima, 1988). Accordingly, differences in cultural adaptation require a more refined designation of those immigrants that came earlier than age 6 and those that came after age 12. Use of the terms 1.75 generational cohort and the 1.25 generational cohort helps explain differences in sub-groups of immigrants who migrated as children or youth. Table 1 summarizes Rumbaut’s (2004) adaptive outcomes for each cohort based on age of migration.

Table 1. Generational Cohort, Age of Migration, and Adaptive Outcomes

<table>
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<th>Generational Cohort</th>
<th>Age of Migration</th>
<th>Adaptive Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0-5 years</td>
<td>Arrive in early childhood; experience is closer to that of U.S.-born second generation; are pre-school children with almost no memory of their birth country; were too young to attend school to learn to read or write in the parental language; and are almost entirely socialized here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>6-12 years</td>
<td>Arrive in middle childhood; are pre-adolescent, primary school age children who have learned to read and write in the parental language; and whose education is largely completed in the United States.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>13-17 years</td>
<td>Arrive in their adolescent years; arrive with or without their families of origin; attend secondary schools after arrival; or enter the workforce directly after arriving; and are much closer to the first generation of immigrant adults in terms of developmental life stages.</td>
</tr>
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Students' Sense of Belonging: Factors that Motivate Educational Aspirations

The concepts of belonging and school membership comprise a body of literature that addresses the extent to which students feel personally accepted, respected, included, and supported in the school social environment (Goodenow & Grady, 1993; Perry, 1999). A number of studies highlight the problems resulting from adolescents not feeling like they are a part of their school (Battistich & Hom, 1997; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991; Finn, 1989; Gibson, Gandara, & Koyama, 2004b). If the need to belong is not satisfied, the predicted outcomes include diminished motivation, poor performance, impaired development, alienation, and feelings of disconnectedness (Osterman, 2000). The construct of belonging is defined by Osterman (2000) as “‘relatedness,’ ‘support,’ ‘acceptance,’ ‘membership,’ or ‘sense of community’” (p. 326).

Studies have found a correlation between the role of peers in schooling and the academic performance and aspirations among U.S.-born and immigrant high school aged youth (Gándara, O’Hara, & Gutierrez, 2004; Gibson, Bejinez, Hidalgo, & Rolon, 2004; Gibson, Gandara, & Koyama, 2004b; Raley, 2004; Stanton-Salazar, 2004), especially of Mexican descent (Gibson et al., 2004). For the Latina/o student, a network of social support/peer influence (relations) may serve as critical components in their educational aspirations, academic/social success, school performance, and overall achievement.

Social-capital or peer social capital “connects the student to peers and peer networks that provide resources and other non-tangible forms of support such as pro-academic norms and identities to the Latino student” (Gibson et al., 2004, p. 130). Such capital can lead the student to the knowledge and resources needed to “decode the system” and “participate in power” (Delpit, 1995; Stanton-Salazar, 1997). As a result, peer experiences and social networks can provide a variety of experiences (positive or negative). These experiences are converted into “capital” when they serve to promote academic or post academic success.

Those students who lack the peer social capital necessary to decode an institution’s system will fall further behind. Latina/o students, like other ethnic groups, tend to select their peers from within, resulting in a lack of contact with peers from other ethnic groups (Gándara & Contreras, 2009; Gibson et al., 2004). The result of such socialization is limited contact with those who may be more socially advantaged. These students who aspire to high achievement are, at times, accused by their lower-performing peers (in this case the same ethnic group) of “acting white” or like a “schoolboy” (Gándara & Contreras, 2009). A pervasive perception among ethnic-minority adolescents equates school with assimilation into the dominant culture along with a rejection of their own language and culture (Gándara, O’Hara, & Gutiérrez, 2004). The result is low achievement because the thought of assimilation (or any form of engagement with the dominant culture) is met with resistance.

While Latina/o students may report an overall sense of belonging in school, Gibson et al. (2004) found that these same students are “highly uncomfortable in those school settings and situations that bring them into direct contact with peers who they feel neither accept nor respect them” (p. 130). This peer social capital from non-Latino peers may serve as a support system that guides, informs, and even models aspects of schooling absent from their own environments. “Academic segregation,” on the other hand, is capable of preventing such relations from evolving (Gándara, 1995). For minority youth, the experience of school membership or bonds with peers and staff serve as the pre-condition to accessing these and other school resources.

Latina/o Critical Theory as a Guiding Framework

A Latina/o Critical Theory framework was used to guide the study. More specifically, key fundamental themes of the theory were used to conceptualize and operationalize the study. The first theme guiding this study is that while race may be critical or even central, it is not experienced in isolation nor is it sufficient as an explanatory factor. An interjection of information provides the critical race theorist with a perspective to examine the interplay between power and authority within minority movements and communities (Montoya, 1994).
This study examines within-group differences among documented and undocumented Latina/o students.

A second guiding theme is to challenge traditional claims of the educational system: meritocracy, equal opportunity, color-blindness, and objectivity (Austin, 2000; Montoya, 1994; Solorzano & Delgado Bernal, 2001). As a result, this study draws on the lived experiences of students using story-telling (“cuentos”) or consejos” (wisdom sayings) as a means of reconciling the culture of home with the dominant American culture. A third theme, drawing on the lived experiences of group members, addresses the need for a centrality of experiential knowledge using stories as a powerful way to name a type of discrimination.

Overview of Sample and Procedures

Data analyzed come from a larger ethnographic study that explored the educational experiences of three generational cohorts of undocumented immigrant Latina/o students in a public secondary school setting by addressing the following questions:

1. What are the educational, social, and emotional experiences of the undocumented immigrant Latino student in a high school setting?
2. What are students’ beliefs about their undocumented status in school?
3. What do undocumented students perceive as barriers to their schooling experience?

In this paper, I use interview data from the larger study to focus on the identification of discriminatory factors that contributed to students’ beliefs about their undocumented status and any barriers (perceived or real) to students’ sense of school belonging.

Although Plyler (1982) held that undocumented children are entitled to a free and public education, there are unique challenges to selecting students that belong to a clandestine population. As an insider with a shared language and culture, researcher trust was established with several organizations committed to issues that affect the immigrant Latina/o community in order to solicit possible leads and resources to assist with the study. Eventually, a lead to the Head Counselor in a public high school in Los Angeles emerged. Under the guidance of the researcher, the Head Counselor, alone, became responsible for identifying participants that fulfilled the sample characteristic assigned by the researcher.

Participants were selected from Leonardo Gutierrez High School (pseudonym) in Los Angeles, California. Purposeful sampling was used because the individuals who fit the study’s criteria were capable of forming an understanding of the research problem by virtue of the shared experience of being undocumented and Latino (Creswell, 2007). Because of the sensitivity in working with this student group, the Head Counselor was required by the university’s Internal Review Board to complete its Online Education Module on the Protection of Human Subjects as a means to ensure confidentiality.

The study was designed to contain a sample of six males and six females (two from each category below) so that there might be a balanced variation of gender, age of migration, and college-ready status.

1. Undocumented Student Less than Twelve Years in U.S./Non-College Ready
2. Undocumented Student Less than Twelve Years in U.S./College Ready
3. Undocumented Student More than Twelve Years in U.S./Non-College Ready
4. Undocumented Student More than Twelve Years in U.S./College Ready

Information on the student was not accurate or fully revealed until the interviews began, which provided for an unbalanced sample (Table 2). The 12-year boundary ensured that at least some of the students would fall under one of the three cohorts.
Table 2. Participant Characteristics (N = 12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Name</th>
<th>Gender/Age</th>
<th>Age of Migration/Cohort</th>
<th>College Ready Status</th>
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<tr>
<td>Juana</td>
<td>F/17</td>
<td>10/1.5</td>
<td>College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guillermo</td>
<td>M/18</td>
<td>8/1.5</td>
<td>College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AJ</td>
<td>M/18</td>
<td>6/1.5</td>
<td>College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daisy</td>
<td>F/17</td>
<td>12/1.5</td>
<td>College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FV</td>
<td>M/18</td>
<td>12/1.5</td>
<td>Non-College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carolina</td>
<td>F/17</td>
<td>16/1.25</td>
<td>Non-College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carla</td>
<td>F/18</td>
<td>13/1.25</td>
<td>Non-College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jessica</td>
<td>F/18</td>
<td>14/1.25</td>
<td>Non-College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erica</td>
<td>F/17</td>
<td>14/1.25</td>
<td>College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alicia</td>
<td>F/18</td>
<td>15/1.25</td>
<td>College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carlos</td>
<td>F/17</td>
<td>3/1.75</td>
<td>College Ready</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>F/17</td>
<td>9 months/1.75</td>
<td>College Ready</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

College Ready and Non-College Ready Status

The characteristics that determined college-ready status or non-college ready status was determined by a 3.0 grade point average, which determines college eligibility, based on the statewide general A-G course requirement and any advanced placement courses. Those classified as non-college ready had a grade point average below a 3.0, had not completed or were not near completing the A-G requirements, and / or had not fulfilled the AB-540 requirements of having attended a California high school for three or more years. The status of “college-ready / non-college ready” as a criterion for participant selection is a limitation because the terms were used to designate only those students who met the graduation criteria for eligible entry into the California State University (CSU) or the University of California (UC) system even though statewide requirements vary for entry into California’s community colleges and some private colleges and universities.

In addition to the criteria described above, all participants were:

1. Undocumented;
2. Latina/o from Mexico or Central America because these groups account for roughly 80 percent of the U.S. undocumented population (Passel, 2005); and
3. Students in their third or fourth year of public high school education because it is here that, for many, the issue of legal status is confronted as they begin the process of applying for college or work.

Only those students that the counselor knew were comfortable discussing their legal status openly were selected. His knowledge of such students came from his contact with these students and information provided to him by other counselors on his staff. As Head Counselor, he had the authority to access their academic progress and overall achievement patterns prior to compiling a pool of potential participants. To protect the identity of the participants, several steps were taken to ensure confidentiality.
Interviews

All student interviews were conducted by the researcher in the Head Counselor’s office, which provided a safe, non-threatening environment. Interviews were conducted in Spanish if requested by the student. The interviews were audio-recorded and lasted approximately 40-60 minutes, with handwritten notes taken during the interview and used to supplement any discrepancies or clarifications in the audio.

Data Analysis

The interviews were transcribed verbatim by a paid transcription service and two graduate assistants. Each interview was verified by the researcher. Using Latina/o Critical Theory as a lens, significant statements emerged which formed the themes from which exemplars were used to support and illustrate the findings and interpretations of each section. From these categories, four key themes emerged to communicate the findings with the participants’ quotes from the transcriptions to, in their own words, support the findings.

Results

The four themes addressed in the larger ethnographic study were: 1) the experiences of displacement, rejection and care for the family; 2) an undocumented immigrant youth subculture; 3) feelings of belonging in the educational setting; and 4) a conceptual model of a shared immigrant narrative. This paper addresses part of the larger narrative on the educational experiences of undocumented immigrant Latina/o students in a public secondary school setting. Undocumented youth in this study were faced with negotiating how and where they fit in within their own ethnic group. How he or she integrated into the school community was complicated by a set of factors that challenged their place in the educational and social setting. The central findings addressed in this paper that emerge as sub-sections to the theme of feelings of belonging in the educational setting include language as a form of discriminatory treatment and the concept of somos iguales (we are all the same).

Language as a Form of Discriminatory Treatment

According to Valenzuela (1999), “immigrants experience more overt discrimination; including at the hands of many insensitive Mexican American youth—than any other group” (p.24). While it may be important to create a community where students are free to be “themselves and where their Mexican identity is valued and supported” (Gibson et al., 2004, p. 140), some participants in the study, especially the recent immigrants, could not understand why someone from their own ethnic group would tease them about where they came from and how they spoke. Such feelings of marginalization were heightened when issues related to language were involved.

Siento que ellos cuando lo miran Latino como que empiezan a decir cosas de nosotros. Siento que empiezan a decir cosas de mí porque soy Latina o piensan. No sé… porque a veces estoy escuchando música en español y como que se quedan viendo a uno como, “¿Quién es esa que está escuchando música?” Si me siento a veces como que diferente mas ahorita como cambiamos las clases (Carla, 1.25 / Non-College Ready).

(I feel that when they see one as Latino, they begin to say things about us. I feel that they are saying things about me because I am Latina or they think so. I don’t know…because sometimes I listen to music in Spanish and it’s like they are watching me thinking, “what is she listening to?” I feel different especially now that we switched classes [semester changes].)

Like other 1.25ers and some 1.5ers, language (not speaking English well or at all) served as a trigger to initiate being treated differently. This form of discrimination (linguicism) formed the basis for making some members of the 1.5 cohort and all members of the 1.25 cohort feel separated from their Latina/o peers.
FV defined this sort of discriminatory treatment as a form of racism. When asked if the racism came from individuals who were not from Mexico or from others who were also Latino, FV replied:

El “racismo” viene de los dos. Yo pienso que hay aquí personas que llegaron de México y llegaron chicos y han crecido aquí y porque llegaste de México y ya que ellos ya hablan el idioma, yo pienso que quieren hacer diferencias entre él y tú. Cuando un idioma o algún color de piel no hace la diferencia en una persona (FV, 1.25 / Non-College Ready).

(The racism comes from both. I believe there are people here who arrived from Mexico as small children and grew up here and now just because you come from Mexico older and they already spoke the language [English], I think they want to show the differences between them and us when a language or skin color makes no difference to the person.)

AJ and FV remained closest with those whose age of migration was similar to their own. Speaking Spanish openly made them and others in the same generational cohort a target for teasing. Carolina, a 1.25 member, jokingly commented that although she felt very comfortable speaking Spanish on campus with her girlfriends, she admitted to feeling embarrassed when her group of friends became too loud and when even her own friends (some of whom were born here) had trouble following even Carolina’s Spanish.

Porque cuando voy con una bola [de amigas] y vamos hablando español, digo, “Esos paisas que no saben inglés.” Yo pienso que así piensan. Yo por eso no hablo tan recio (Carolina, 1.25 / Non-College Ready).

(When I go with a group (of friends) and we’re speaking Spanish, I say to myself, “They’re probably thinking, ‘those paisas that do not know how to speak English.’” At least that is what I think they are thinking. That is why I do not speak (Spanish) so loudly.)

For FV and Carolina, language appeared as a key indicator of discriminatory treatment between those Latinas/os born in the United States and members of the 1.25 and 1.5 generational cohorts even though differences in achievement between them and their 1.25 and 1.5 peers were not striking. The only differences, according to the Head Counselor, were where each student fell in completing the statewide A-G requirements for UC/CSU transfer.

Framing the achievement patterns for the Latino student within a larger historical and social context (burdens of poverty, economic exploitation, segregation, and discrimination) is one way to understand the disproportionate pattern of educational achievement and attainment among Latino youth. These larger issues not only affect the Latina/o student outside of the school setting, but they are likely to have a significant impact on their experiences in school.

The School Setting as Más Igual (“More Equal”)

Gándara and Contreras (2009) describe the educational setting as the “first response system for any kind of social, medical, or psychological problem or disability” and the one most lacking in resources (p. 86). Observational data gathered from the campus visits offered a glimpse into the students’ world and its surrounding communities. Participants felt safe in the school despite a history of violence in the surrounding neighborhoods. The climate of the campus, a large multi-story complex with bungalows on the periphery of the grounds, was a hive of controlled energy. The hallways were wide and clean with culturally relevant student artwork displayed on both sides of the hallway walls. The principal and other adult supervisors/teachers were regularly observed engaging the students in conversations. Several teachers wore t-shirts with the phrase: “CAHSSEE: SI PUEDES” (CAHSSEE: YES YOU CAN). It was an encouraging (and constant) reminder that every student could pass the California High School Senior Exit Exam creating for a culture of “high expectations” among the teachers.

Carolina expressed feelings of comfort while in school—a sentiment shared by all participants. According to the Head Counselor, the school served as “a safe-haven for these kids” (personal communication, February
When participants were asked if they believed they had access to all the resources possible to succeed in their education, they all believed they had. For Carolina, the campus was the one place where the school was more equal than other settings despite having experienced some negative feelings towards her treatment.

La escuela es como más igual. Es más igual para todos. Pero a veces como afuera, creo que no como no tengo papeles. Agarro mi lonche gratis, me prestan libros, voy aquí a la enfermería. Todo lo tengo. Puedo ir al gym que está aquí. Todo. (Carolina, 1.25 / Non-College Ready).

(The school is more equal. It’s equal for everyone, but at times, like outside, I think it is not the same for everyone because I do not have papers. I get my lunch free, they let me borrow books, I can go to the infirmary (clinic) that is available on campus. I can also go to the gym here. I have everything here.)

According to Carolina, she had access to the same resources others had regardless of status. An essential sameness prevailed and was a dominant theme for the 1.25 members.

For the 1.25 members, life on the campus was igual (the same) because of access to resources, pero no tanto (but not that much) because of treatment by members of their own ethnic group, language, and the full rights and privileges afforded only to documented students (e.g. financial aid, job permits, and possible internships). Students like Carolina and Jessica (1.25 generation) appropriated a discourse on equality constructing the space of the school as a “microcosm of the nation” or at least an idealized nation (Levinson, Douglas, & Holland, 1996).

In his study of a secondary school in Mexico, Levinson et al. (1996) established that class and ethnic differences within school were often ignored or downplayed while the educational differences beyond the school became more salient (p. 212). He found that a “discourse of essential sameness (“todos somos iguales,” “we are all equal”) was used to distinguish the schooled from the unschooled. Carolina and Jessica believed that access to the same resources for the same students created a sense of equality among the school community. Yet, they also believed that this same equality should be extended to every person beyond the school, making a subtle case for access to higher education, jobs, and possible citizenship.

**Conclusions**

Issues of language, age of migration, and its intersection with citizen Latina/o English speakers served to identify discriminatory treatment experienced among members of the 1.25 and 1.5 generational cohorts and their documented Latina/o peers. Language, however, remained the form of “linguistically related racism” for undocumented youth in both the 1.25 and 1.5 generations of this study (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1992). Linguicism is “prejudice multiplied by power used by members of dominant language groups against nondominant language groups” (Chen-Hayes, Chen, & Athar, 1999, p. 20). For the 1.25ers and 1.5ers, language was the only difference separating them from their documented peers. Because of their age of migration, 1.25ers remained especially vulnerable to this discriminatory practice.

As one indicator of discrimination, the emotional and social experiences of undocumented Latino youth posed the question of how subtractive schooling (Valenzuela, 1999) was taking place not at the institutional level, but at the hands of other Latina/o youth as 1.25 and 1.5 members begin the integration process into the dominant culture. The method of the framework shifted from a critical perspective of the Latina/o looking outside of his or her ethnic group as a means to pull back the layers of oppression and racist attitudes to the Latina/o looking inward at his or her own ethnic group as participants in the dominant narrative.

Yet, the Latina/o students remained bound by a common culture, language and story. They maintained a strong cultural identity even when faced by the dominant American narrative projected by their Latina/o documented peers. Challenging the dominant ideology was Carolina’s statement: todos iguales...pero no tanto.
somos iguales pero no tanto (we are all the same, but not that much). While the school provided the necessary means to succeed academically, the real life resources (affordable access to higher education, jobs, a feeling of safety and security because of undocumented status) were not provided no matter how hard they worked. Her storytelling, like that of the others, opened a door into an ignored or alternative reality by providing a snapshot of the recovered memory and story of the undocumented experience.

References


Access and Opportunity for Latina/o Undocumented College Students: Familial and Institutional Support Factors

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Abstract
This article focused on the educational experiences of Latina/o undocumented college students attending a public Hispanic-Serving Institution. Familial and institutional factors that promote educational opportunities are explored. A total of 15 semi-structured interviews serve as the data source for this exploratory, qualitative study. Interview transcripts were coded into central themes within the broader categories of familial and institutional agent support and influences. Findings indicated that familial support factors included “non-traditional” forms of encouragement. Specifically, familial factors sorted into the themes of 1) listening and understanding; 2) goal-setting; and 3) motivation. Meanwhile, support factors from institutional agents were mixed in regard to effectively facilitating the college-going process. Recommendations for policy and practice are presented in light of the findings. This article contributes to the conversation regarding the education of Latinas/os by sharing their voice and using their experiences to promote greater access, opportunity, and success in higher education.

Introduction
The U.S. is in the midst of significant demographic shifts that are transforming its population. California is on the leading edge of this transformation as it is no longer a white majority state with Latinas/os representing the second largest ethnic group (32.4%) behind Whites (46.7%, U.S. Census, 2010). As California’s ethnic population shift continues, debates over immigration policy are ongoing. These debates are focused on Latina/o populations, and the subsequent impacts are primarily felt by Latinas/os. The relatively youthful demographics of Latinas/os, their historical underrepresentation in higher education, and deep cuts to education funding place them in a precarious position and there is a critical need for resources, access, and opportunity throughout the educational spectrum (Gándara & Contreras, 2009).

In this article, we focus on the educational experiences of undocumented Latina/o college students attending a public university in California. More specifically, we explore familial and institutional factors that promote educational access and college opportunity. Our aim is to contribute to the conversation surrounding the state of education for Latinas/os by sharing their voice and using their experiences to promote greater access to higher education.

Support for Latina/o Undocumented College Students

Demographic shifts have given rise to increased attention to the educational plight of Latinas/os. This is particularly evident in research on Latina/o college students. The heightened focus on immigration policy has resulted in a scholarship vein highlighting the educational experiences of undocumented college students. In a qualitative investigation, Contreras (2009) examined the role of in-state tuition laws in facilitating higher education for undocumented Latina/o students in Washington State. The Washington State in-state tuition law, or HB 10791, makes undocumented students who have lived in the state at least three years and have graduated from a Washington State high school eligible to pay in-state tuition rates. Contreras (2009) focused on the role of legal status in the higher education experiences of undocumented Latina/o students as well as

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1 Several states have their own in-state tuition legislation
any differences that emerged based on institutional type. Contreras (2009) found that critical themes emerged, including, constant fear, financial difficulty, a hostile campus climate, resiliency, and the hope to give back to their communities. Additionally, Contreras (2009) found, although guidance differed by institutional type, across institutions there appeared to be a general lack of knowledge of HB 1079. Those most apt to be knowledgeable about HB 1079 were of a Latina/o background or diversity office personnel. Lack of general college knowledge and financial aid information has been a consistent research finding (Contreras, 2011).

Based on his work with high-achieving undocumented students, Pérez (2010a) puts forth several recommendations for student services personnel to better serve students. He noted that outreach, facilitating transfer, providing financial aid assistance, and social support and services will support undocumented students through higher education. Further, the author asserted that training for institutional agents was essential to properly addressing the needs of undocumented students, including specialized training for school psychologists and counselors in order to provide much-needed social and emotional aid (Pérez, 2010a).

Pérez (2010b) highlights that outreach professionals can create “opportunity,” or college access, by giving students the option to attend a postsecondary institution vis-à-vis college information. Further, familial and peer networks and contacts were found to be instrumental in Latina/o students’ college decision-making process. For example, Pérez (2010b) noted,

Older siblings served as mentors who were able to guide their younger siblings through the college choice process. In each case older siblings were also undocumented and could refer their younger counterparts to pre-established contacts who were former or current advisors, professors and mentors who could assist them. These contacts were unquestionably helpful and supportive to the younger siblings in their own college-going endeavors (p. 26).

At the community college level, Oseguera, Flores and Burciaga (2010) concur with findings by Pérez (2010b) that student affairs personnel played key roles in access to higher education for undocumented students.

Meanwhile, Pérez, Espinoza, Ramos, Coronado, and Cortes (2009) underscored the importance of parent and peer networks as well as extracurricular activities in the higher education academic success of undocumented students in California. More specifically, in a study on the role of social and environmental risk factors on academic resilience, Pérez et al. (2009) argued that supportive relationships with friends and parents, along with school engagement, facilitated educational success (as defined by high school GPA, high school awards received, and number of Honors/AP courses taken). For those students most at-risk, access to resources helped to buffer adversity (Pérez et al., 2009).

In a quantitative study looking at the persistence rates of Latina/o students eligible for instate tuition policies and their U.S. counterparts at a selective, public university in Texas, Flores and Horn (2009) noted that while their findings were limited they shed light on the role of instate tuition assistance to facilitate persistence rates among undocumented students. Specifically, they highlight that undocumented students had similar persistence rates in comparison to their U.S. counterparts. However, Flores and Horn (2009) offer, “While we document the academic role, the social forces that impact the college student, especially as defined by organizational, psychological, and sociological frameworks, remain unexamined with current data” (p. 71). That is, those influences attributed to social networks and institutional agents would not have been captured in their study.

Existing research on Latina/o undocumented students emphasizes the important role of institutional support and state policy in supporting students into and through higher education. In addition, the function of student affairs professionals and familial networks is also outlined in previous research. However, less of the existing research points to the manners in which these players assist undocumented Latina/o students. In their own voice, this exploratory, qualitative study sheds light on strategies and influences to assist more Latina/o students through higher education. Ultimately, per Pérez (2010b), research focused on the higher education endeavors of undocumented students “will inspire more focused research that will ultimately improve practice” (p. 24).
Social Capital

Within education, social capital underscores the relationships between students, families, communities and teachers, and their potential to support and motivate students toward academic success. Social capital theory captures the effects of the school, parents and community on a students’ learning environment (Coleman, 1988; Croninger & Lee, 2001; Putnam, 1995; Stanton-Salazar & Dornbusch, 1995). Yosso (2005) incorporated this concept within her larger community cultural wealth framework, defining social capital as “networks of people and community resources.” However, research highlights that possessing social capital does not always equate with a positive outcome (Portes, 1998). Per school-based social capital, counselors, teachers and other personnel have the potential to assist and encourage students onto some form of higher education but this assumes students have access to these resources in the first place (McDonough, 1997; Stanton-Salazar, 1997). Through a social capital lens, this study captures important network influences and agents on the college-going experiences of undocumented Latina/o students. Herein, the goal is to increase the number of Latinas/os pursuing higher education.

Significance of Study

This study sought to understand familial and institutional support factors Latina/o undocumented students used to progress through the educational pipeline to access higher education. Using in-depth, one-on-one, semi-structured interviews as the primary data source as well as a protocol developed to capture social capital influences within families and educational institutions, this investigation contributes a more holistic understanding of the Latina/o undocumented college student plight. Interview questions included when and why students decided to attend college; whether family, peers, and/or institutions/agents encouraged college going; and the role of immigration status in their college-going experience. To better understand the Latina/o undocumented college opportunity experience, this investigation was guided by the following question: What role did familial and institutional factors play in the college opportunity process for undocumented Latina/o students?

Methods

Participants

The total sample for this research investigation included fifteen participants (seven female, eight male). All participants attended a public, four-year postsecondary institution located in the diverse state of California. The site was selected for its location within the state and for its reputation as being an “undocumented student friendly” postsecondary institution. The postsecondary institution has also been designated a Hispanic-Serving Institution since 2004.

For consistency purposes, all participants met the following criteria: a) came from a Latina/o ethnic background; b) were first-generation college students where neither parent (or guardian) had attained an Associate’s or Bachelor’s degree in the U.S.; c) were transfer-bound or transfer students; d) came from a low-SES background as determined by parent’s occupation(s) and educational background; and f) were undocumented students. Prospective students were identified and recruited through word of mouth, class announcements, fliers where necessary to recruit additional participants, and recommendations. Students were informed about the study, the purpose of the investigation and that anonymity would be maintained in any reported results.

Instruments and Data Collection

The primary data collection instrument was an interview protocol based on social capital theory to better understand the college opportunity experience of the participants through one-on-one, semi-structured interviews. Data was collected between March 2008 and May 2010. Most interviews took place at the participants’ respective campus and each interview lasted approximately one hour. According to Creswell (2003), interviews provide the
opportunity for participants to speak to a particular topic more in-depth. Interviews were conducted by a bilingual research team composed of undergraduate research assistants and one of the authors. Interview data were tape-recorded and transcribed by the research team members. Participants were given the option of reviewing the transcriptions and results and editing in whole or in part any text they saw fit. This process was useful in making sure that we did not misinterpret the results or misconstrue what a student was attempting to get at (Maxwell, 1996).

**Data Analysis**

Data was managed, coded and analyzed by the authors. Coding and analysis resulted in several topical themes within two broad categories: (1) family support and influences and (2) institutional agent support and influences. Although social capital was used as a framework to guide this investigation, the authors were also open to alternate explanations or theories to interpret findings (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992).

**Results**

**Family Support and Influences**

In general, this exploratory study revealed the presence of informal, familial support factors. Familial support factors identified were embedded within the home/family context as opposed to the educational context. Within the theme of family support and influences, three sub-themes emerged: a) listening and understanding; 2) goal-setting; and 3) motivation. These themes provide an indication of the psychological support provided by families. This support is somewhat defined and limited by the pragmatics of the living situation.

As previous research has documented (Pérez, 2010b), undocumented students may not live with their immediate families. That is, their families are living in their countries of origin while they find themselves in the U.S. In this study, while some undocumented students were separated from their immediate families, this did not mean that they did not feel supported in their academic endeavors. In such cases, familial support came in the form of encouragement through regular phone calls where listening was instrumental. Jaime shares,

> Everything was on the phone. I called my mom every time and I would say mom I just enrolled for Math 185, that’s calculus, and she’d say “oh I’m glad, I’m happy for you, just keep going.” She wouldn’t actually see me doing it. I would always say what I did in school like I got nominated for something in a certain club and she would just listen to me but she wouldn’t really understand what I was saying and my family was really supportive even though they were in Mexico. They were always supporting me, listening to the things I have to say and that’s how I got the support from my family. Mostly not physically seeing them but knowing that they were there.

Jaime felt supported by his mother because she offered encouragement and motivation through their conversations. It was not necessarily important to him that she understand what he was conveying- he was content that she was happy he was continuing with his education.

The second theme related to familial support and influences involving goal setting. The following excerpts highlight the abstract and powerful function of setting goals that involved positive objectives rather than concrete outcomes:

> Viviana: “My family, just knowing that they don’t have a stable job, that breaks my heart all the time so that obviously encouraged me from a young age [to pursue a higher education]- that I wanted to have a stable job. I don’t want to get paid a lot but I want a stable job because I saw that.”

> Jaime: “She went to get some money from the bank and she said ‘Well, when you grow up I want you to...
be like that guy, like the bank teller. Wearing a suit and being somebody in life. Not just a construction worker.”

Iliana: “Well my dad... he is an accountant, he has a degree in accounting [from a Mexican university] and... but he’s not with us right now and my mom always told us that we should follow my dad’s steps and go to school and get our education so we don’t struggle throughout life looking for a job so we don’t work... we don’t live paycheck by paycheck like she does right now; so we don’t work with our hands but with our mind.”

In the previous examples, students discussed that family encouraged pursuing an education, “being somebody,” stable employment, steady pay, and discouraged manual labor. Interestingly, family never explicitly stated to obtain a college degree, rather they encouraged this abstract idea of pursuing an education.

The final theme related to familial support and influences including motivation in the form of encouragement and expectations. In many cases, students were encouraged to pursue higher education because they had older siblings who had attended or were attending some form of postsecondary education whether in the U.S. or in their native country. Family members also motivated their children to attend college by sharing stories of dreams deferred and serving as living examples of the consequences of not going to college. For example, Mateo shared,

When I was young, every day at dinner it was the same thing, ‘Look at how tired I am today. I don’t want you to have to come home this tired,’ and it was always from when I can remember, and also I really appreciated the fact that they [family] always told me I was smart and that also kept me motivated and I really appreciated that from my family because it was support that I wasn’t receiving at school. So I think if it wouldn’t have been for my parents, I don’t think I would have been as motivated [to attend college].

Similarly, Moises offered,

I remember my father taking me to school telling me “you know what do your best, try to learn as much as you can” and he also told me his stories that he couldn’t. He wanted to go to get ahead and go to la secundaria [middle school] and college or further but he couldn’t- he had to work and support his family.

Indeed, family and most notably parents, played active roles in the lives of these undocumented Latina/o students whether physically present or not.

**Institutional Agent Support and Influences**

Although data related to support from institutional agents were mixed, for the most part students spoke very highly of and referenced influential high school teachers and/or proactive college counselors that made it possible for the students in this sample to attend higher education. For example, Vanessa asserted,

I started this program at high school, JROTC, where I met this instructor, which was my tutor, my friend... he was in a sense like my father because he challenged me. He was the one that would challenge me in everything- so going to college was not a big thing once I met him and once I knew my potential that I could do it.

Another student spoke very highly of his English as a Second Language instructor who also doubled as his Introduction to Leadership instructor. He argued,

One of my professors from ESL classes, the English as a Second Language, I think that he was very influential in my life. I’m not sure why maybe his passion for teaching or the way he structured classes. All of the examples he gave, we would pretend that we were in really life, not just in class.
Antonio asserted that his community college counselor was very helpful. He stated, “…she opened the door to me…she said ‘you know what you can do it, you can go ahead.’ She actually helped me fill out the application…”

However, because of their precarious immigrant status position and previous academic experiences with school personnel, some students remained skeptical. Lourdes offered, “I knew that he was trying to help me out but once I got into college and I wouldn’t see much of him I started wondering if he was just a counselor trying to get people into [Community] College and not helping them all the way through…Because I had all my trust in him and he was the first that taught me everything and I thought that he was going to guide me a little bit and he never really did.”

Unfortunately, as a result of a lack of information amongst institutional personnel, one student discussed paying an exorbitant fee when initially starting college. For example, Claudia mentioned that she was forced to pay $5,000 as an international student because her high school counselor was unaware of in-state tuition policies. Meanwhile, Ana Rosa noted that the information she received from her community college was insufficient:

“I feel that it wasn’t really accurate because he helped me with the application process and I wish he would have told me how the system worked; you know what activities or services were at school and I didn’t get that information.”

As a result of such experiences, Miguel made it a habit to triangulate college information. Miguel noted that he would ask different people the same questions and draw his own conclusions based on their responses. This would also help him decide who was giving him accurate information and if he needed to move on and ask another person for guidance.

**Discussion**

This study used interviews with undocumented Latina/o college students to understand familial and institutional supports. This study provides a greater understanding of the role and nature of family and institutional factors in the educational experiences of Latina/o undocumented college students attending a Hispanic-Serving Institution. For example, familial factors identified in this study were, for the most part, informal, and embedded within the family/home context. Institutional factors were more formal and embedded within the educational context. The contrast between familial and institutional factors indicates a discontinuity or lack of connectivity regarding support for Latina/o undocumented students.

In addition, while recent focus has been placed on understanding the group, Latina/o undocumented students remain an understudied population. As a result, they continue to be targets of misconceptions and stereotypes often resulting in exposure to ineffective educational, prevention, and intervention programs that are culturally insensitive.

The current exploratory study aimed to provide critical information that can inform future studies and that can be translated into effective, culturally appropriate programs and services for students and their families. Key stakeholders including high school personnel, outreach officers, policymakers, and politicians can be better informed how Latina/o undocumented students specifically, and Latina/o students in general, transition into postsecondary education. This study highlights experiences in the higher educational process that can be used to promote educational achievement among Latina/o undocumented students. In understanding how Latina/o undocumented students are influenced by key support systems, resources and information can be targeted to enhance their educational opportunities and promote higher levels of achievement.

**Familial and Institutional Support and Influences**

The results presented in this paper indicate that families play an instrumental role in facilitating and
motivating students to pursue higher education. However, as Olivérez (2006) reported, parents support their undocumented children pursuing higher education but do not know how nor have the resources to assist them appropriately. Whenever possible, college information shared with students must be shared with their families, especially siblings given the finding that students were encouraged to attend college if a sibling was attending or had attended a postsecondary institution. Institutions must take advantage of the strong familial network to further encourage college-going-- generally cohesive family units and extensive fictive kin networks (i.e., compadrazgo) that can be targeted with college knowledge. Further, encouraging the family and especially young children to share college knowledge will increase the social capital of the family unit as well as the larger familial network.

Unfortunately, the extent to which there is still a lack of general knowledge related to undocumented students among institutional agents at the high school and college levels, given the extensive research noting the importance of such information (Pérez, 2010a; Pérez, 2010b; Perez et al. 2009), is frustrating. Students in this sample who have made it to higher education are still not receiving or only receiving limited critical information. How can information be provided to undocumented Latina/o students that are most vulnerable? While students are eager for information, critical information and knowledge is not reaching this population widely and regularly.

The role of in-state tuition policies has been outlined in a distinctive study by Flores (2010) who explored whether in-state tuition policies increased college enrollment rates relative to institutions without such policies for undocumented Latina/o students. Using a national dataset, Flores (2010) found that in-state tuition policies increased the likelihood that undocumented Latina/o students would enroll in college. Indeed, compared to their peers in states without in-state tuition policies, undocumented Latina/o students were 1.54 times more likely to enroll in college given in-state tuition programs. However, this assumes that institutional agents have the proper information to share with their students. These statistics would be much more robust if more personnel were armed with college knowledge related to undocumented students.

**Recommendations for Policy and Practice**

The findings shared in this paper point to the need to develop policies and programs that take into account Latino students’ cultural values and norms in order to more effectively address educational goals. Such programs should address heterogeneity among Latina/o populations and particularly among undocumented students and families. Credential, licensure, certificate and/or professional development programs for teachers and counselors must incorporate research and models on Latina/o populations into their curriculum and pedagogy. Given the findings reported in this paper and within the context of the existing literature on Latina/o undocumented students, we offer the following recommendations.

- Programs for students and families, that take into account Latino cultural values and norms, should be developed to promote familial knowledge, engagement, and involvement.

- Licensure and professional development programs should be developed for high school and community college counselors and teachers that include components that enhance knowledge and skills to better serve Latina/o undocumented students.

- The development of programs and mechanisms that increase the connectivity between families and institutions that promote consistency and continuity in the support provided by family members and institutional agents.

Policies and programs that incorporate these elements are more likely to promote greater educational access, opportunity, and success.
References


Examining the Experiences of Undocumented College Students: Walking the Known and Unknown Lived Spaces

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Abstract
This article examines the experiences of selected undocumented college-aged (UCA) students attending a community and four year college, and the trauma they live on a daily basis. A conceptual framework is provided for examining the tensions experienced by undocumented students. The framework is suggested as a tool to analyze the explicit and implicit lived spaces of UCA Latino students living in the United States. Using qualitative mixed methods, as an exploratory study, undocumented college students identified four themes that uncover the journey they travel in their desire to improve their life possibilities and negotiate access to educational and societal institutions.

Introduction
The criminalization and virtual internment of undocumented youth in the United States is the result of historical prejudice and a failed immigration policy that condemns youth into a lifetime of uncertainty (Acuña, 2007; Chávez, 1991; Pizarro, 2005). The impact of past injustices and a failed immigration policy is painfully clear in K-12 schools and colleges where undocumented students live in constant fear of their status been disclosed and where, despite their educational success, their dreams and professional objectives are currently futureless (Olivas, 2004; Rincón, 2008).

Sources estimate that there are some two million undocumented children in schools in the United States with an estimated 65,000 graduating from high school every year with no more than 5% attending college (CNNU.S., 2009; Horwedel, 2006;). Existing law established by the Supreme Court case Plyler vs. Doe in 1982 gives undocumented immigrant students the right to a K-12 education under the 14th amendment. The court, however, never extended that right to higher levels of education (Horwedel, 2006; Olivas, 2004).

Over the years both federal and state court’s decisions have not only limited the undocumented students by capping their education but also produced a bitter debate throughout the United States on the issue of access to higher education and undocumented students. Horwedel (2006) and the UCLA Center for Labor Research and Education (2007) have estimated that there are some 50,000 undocumented college-age students in United States colleges, with over one-third living in California. Given the data, we may deduce that Mexican youth are highly represented in this group (Díaz-Strong, Luna-Duarte, Meiners, & Valentín, 2010). For undocumented students the main issues of access to higher education are both legal and financial. Passel and Cohn (2009) also document that at least 39% of undocumented students live below the federal poverty line and 40% lower than legal immigrant families.

Overview of the Literature
The debate over the rights of immigrants, especially from Mexico, is not new. The educational rights of Mexican origin children in general, and of the undocumented in particular, have historically been at the center of the debate (Chávez, 1991; Zinn, 2003). A clear pattern of discrimination against the Mexican origin population and the marginalization of their children are historically evident (Acuña, 2007; Zinn, 2003). Thus, important questions for understanding the present conditions facing undocumented Latino immigrants are: What has been the historical anti-Mexican sentiment and U.S. immigration policy? And, how have immigration policies hindered...
undocumented college-age (UCA) students’ access to higher education?

The vast majority of UCA students did not make the personal choice to enter illicitly into the country (Chávez, 1991; Zinn, 2003). Instead, they were caught in the historically complex web of American immigration policy. Legal and undocumented immigration from Mexico to the United States has been constant for over one hundred years, recurrently triggered by the American appetite for inexpensive labor. Along with the demand for labor came a failure to implement a viable and just immigration policy that meets the labor demands of the nation and provides access to post secondary education, while keeping immigrants and their families together (Acuña, 2007; Diaz-Strong et al., 2010; Jacobo, 2006).

The Amnesty Act of 1986, known as the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 (IRCA), not only proved the need to secure foreign labor but also created much of the turmoil we are currently experiencing (Díaz-Strong et al., 2010). The law granted amnesty to undocumented immigrants who entered the U.S before January 1st 1982, and resided here. While the law placed some two million people on a path to citizenship it did little to rapidly unite families, thus creating a wave of unauthorized children into the United States. These children eventually went to school and were the target of Proposition 187 in California. The goal of Proposition 187 was to bar undocumented immigrants from receiving social services, health care and public education, under the “Save Our State” initiative. The law was overturned by federal courts but not without adding to the legacy of anti-immigrant sentiment in the United States (Acuña, 2007). A consequence of the Amnesty Act was the influx of undocumented children to the United States to be with their families with the hope that one day the laws would change (Díaz-Strong et al., 2010). In this regard the present continues like the past.

Today, when undocumented children enter school, they face a world of uncertainty and fear. During their high school years as they apply for work and college they must confront the reality that they are unauthorized in the United States and could very well be detained and deported. For many UCA students, the years can go by without ever being detained. Nevertheless, they consistently struggle having to negotiate their living spaces and schooling (Soja, 2007). They live hidden lives.

Immigration raids have a direct impact on undocumented youth as they experience severe emotional strain and trauma and suffer from extreme isolation, are vulnerable, and are easily exploited (Capps, Chundy, & Santos, 2007). Students tend to live in fear and shame, feelings that are often fueled by political discourse and biased media in the United States (Díaz-Strong et al., 2010; Jacobo, 2010). The psychological stress experienced by undocumented youth builds up as they enter high school and college. The recent defeat of immigration reform at the federal level, including the Dream Act in 2010, further alienated UCA students as their legal and academic status continues to be unresolved. The Dream Act of 2010 was proposed federal legislation that would grant high school students with good academic standing legal status in the United States. Legal status would also be extended to undocumented immigrants of good moral character who wanted to serve in the armed forces or attend college.

The support and resistance toward accessing higher education for UCA students can be seen in the conditions placed upon them by states in our nation. Since 2001, 11 states have passed laws that allow undocumented students to qualify for in-state tuition in public universities in their state of residence (California, Illinois, Kansas, Nebraska, New Mexico, New York, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin) under the criteria that they need to have attended for at least three years and graduated from a high school in their state of residence. This has created uproar in many American communities who see such laws as pandering to undocumented students. Against such access, since 2006, Arizona, Alabama, Colorado, Georgia, Missouri, and Oklahoma, North and South Carolina, have voted against in-state tuition for undocumented students or banning undocumented students from attending (Díaz et al., 2010; Frum, 2007). More recent studies of UCA students have begun to document the path and challenges faced by these students, specifically with regard to college persistence (Muñoz & Maldonado, 2011), their resiliency (Pérez, Espinoza, Ramos, Coronado, & Cortez, 2009), their struggle for opportunity (Pérez-Huber, Malagón, & Solórzano, 2009), and their struggle for human dignity and equality (Rincón, 2008).
Examining the Experience of Undocumented College Students

To examine the pressures and social-psychological forces that shape the daily-lived experiences and negotiated spaces of UCA students pursuing higher education, a conceptual framework developed by the authors is provided. The framework in Figure 1 emerged from our work with K-12 Southwest school districts near the Mexican border, viewing and experiencing the daily presence of the Border Patrol in border communities, through our engagement in higher education institutions and direct interaction with college-aged undocumented students in our courses. Also supporting the framework is critical theory (Kincheloe, 2008; McLaren, 1997) that is concerned with issues of power, justice, and specifically diverse forms of oppression. Critical theory as “a perspective searches for new theoretical insights and interconnected ways of understanding power and oppression and the way they shape everyday life and human experience” (Kincheloe, 2008, p. 49). In the context of one’s legal status in a global economy the struggle of contesting one’s residency is both a political, psychological, and social struggle (Aronowitz, 2003). Figure 1 illustrates two dimensions and four quadrants that allows one to reflect on how undocumented college students navigate their lived spaces on a daily basis. The first dimension (vertical) consists of explicit and implicit modes of behavior—behaviors that are seen by others who interact with the individual (explicit) and behaviors that are not see by others (implicit). The second dimension (horizontal) is the legal status of the individual or the unauthorized status of the person living in the United States. The legal dimension is expressed from a legal continuum—at one end are unauthorized and unregulated social policies where the individual is able to negotiate his/her lived space by being very familiar with his/her surroundings. At the other end are unauthorized and regulated social policies, where the individual in public spaces runs the risk of being apprehended for not having legal documentation.

To examine the lived spaces of undocumented youth/students living in the U.S., the framework offers four quadrants of analysis. In the first quadrant (unauthorized and unregulated legal social policy and explicit lived space) the UCA student experiences ambivalence and incomprehension, a state of living in a part of the community where s/he feels familiar and has a high degree of awareness of civic behavior while understanding his/her legal status and interacting in low risk social activities that are part of the daily social dynamics of the community. While experiencing a sense of “zone of comfort” in the community, the undocumented youth/student nevertheless has the constant worry or trauma of not being “legal” and living under stress. Involvement in church activities or family gatherings at a park are enjoyed but not without the fear of legal ramifications. S/he lives in a space of ambivalence (Miao, Esses, & Bell, 2000).
Under the second quadrant (unauthorized and unregulated legal social policy and implicit lived space) the undocumented youth experiences encapsulation, a state of constant fear only known to him/her or an intimate other. The UCA student is constantly aware and on the lookout and negotiating the lived spaces that offer him/her a sense of control. Trauma under quadrant II is expressed as an emotional distress. Teachers and peers are unaware of a student’s legal status in an implicit lived space. Therefore, a school fieldtrip designed to be educational and fun can elicit feelings of fear and apprehension in the unauthorized student as legal and physical barriers may be present. S/he lives in a space of encapsulation (Clark, Aaron, & Beck, 2009).

Under quadrant III (unauthorized and regulated legal social policy and implicit lived space) the undocumented youth experiences dissonance, a state of living in trauma and out of harmony within the community and within the self. The inability to share the legal status with others creates conflict, a feeling of helplessness, and depression. A simple college night out with friends to establishments that require a driver’s license for identification becomes an emotional test for unauthorized individuals. S/he lives in a space of dissonance (Goldsmith, Barlow, & Freyd, 2004).

Under quadrant IV (unauthorized and regulated legal social policy and explicit lived space) the undocumented youth experiences rejection, a state of living outside of the community where he/she feels excluded from civic participation. In this quadrant, the individual suffers the trauma of having no legal assurance and exclusion from...
social integration and civil social identity. Not being able to take part in the political process during this historic period serves as an example of such exclusion from social and civic integration. S/he lives in a space of rejection (Pehrson, Brown, & Zagefka, 2009).

Methodological Approach

Qualitative mixed methods were used in ascertaining the concerns and issues faced by UCA students (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Specifically a three-phase approach was taken. The first phase consisted of submitting an Institutional Research Board (IRB) proposal to a CSU university to identify a pool of UCA students enrolled in the community college and/or the CSU systems of California. Upon receiving IRB approval that involved participant consent, recruitment process, structured interview processes, protocols on data collection, a pool of over 30 candidates were identified and four were selected, by years in the U.S. and level of college, for this exploratory study. All were from Mexico, using fictitious names, they consisted of one male (Roque) and three females (María, Brenda, and Norma), two attending a community college and two in a four-year college (CSU). All four entered the U.S. unauthorized between the ages of 2 to 5 years old. The second phase consisted of using case study methodology that included semi-structured interviews, personal autobiographies, and face-to-face meetings. The four UCA students were invited to participate in an open-ended discussion using a focus group approach on their lived experiences as undocumented college-aged students. The focus group lasted three-hours and was recorded with their permission. The third phase was an interactive process of data analysis consisting of data content analysis, data display, data coding, data reduction, and generation of themes and thematic interpretation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Themes were identified and shared with the UCA students for accuracy and content validity.

Examining the Experiences of Unauthorized College-Aged Students

Four salient themes were derived from the interviews and focus group discussion, with each pointing to a social-psychological force that shape the daily-lived experiences of UCA students. These themes were: Identity and Membership, Micro-Aggressions, Trauma, and Structural Violence. In some direct or indirect form the themes correlated with all of the four concepts that described the psychological feelings of the participants as they described how they navigate their regulated and unregulated lived space, namely living in Ambivalence, Encapsulation, Dissonance, and Rejection. A brief discussion of each of the four salient themes, as expressed by the four UCA students, provides a glimpse of their identified thematic tensions (ambivalence, encapsulation, dissonance, rejection) that they negotiate on a daily basis:

**Theme one:** The identity and membership theme emerged as the inability to have legal documents to have access to services or entry into facilities and preventing deportation. For example, consider not having any legal form of identification that grants access to travel, credit or simply driving from point A to B. The impact of not having a driver’s license goes far beyond not being able to drive a vehicle. In a culture were a driver’s license has become consistent with identity, to be denied one is to live in constant worry of how to access services and entry into institutions.

Maria tells of her ordeal with identity and belonging after experiencing a traumatizing event that involved the police department.

I had never been treated like a criminal. This incident was a huge wakeup call for me. Yes, I did come to this country illegally but I was never treated like I was. For the first time in my life, I felt what it’s like to be seen different in someone else’s eyes because I was not born in the United States.

While Maria negotiated her legal status throughout her life it was a specific episode with police and the lack of a driver’s license that made her confront the reality of regulated social policy and the issue of identity. Travel and driving have become heavily politicized in the United States in recent years with numerous
states denying the unauthorized population a driver’s license and installing check points on the road. The issues of legality and identity can have more perverse effects. Brenda commented of the recurrent reminder of her legal status and identity at work by her boss:

I decided to confront the owner one day and ask him why I was not getting paid all the hours that I had worked. He replied, “You have no right to tell me what to pay you because you are an illegal immigrant and if you don’t like it I can fire you.” I felt so terrible that day and I went home crying, but I did not let my mom see me or know why I was crying.

Membership was not only described at the macro-level as having no voice in society, but also at the micro-level. The impact of not having a legal document prevents UCA students from a fundamental component of the American economy such as applying for a job, obtaining credit, having a passport to travel, or simply accessing a gym membership. While the denial of membership to a gym might appear to some as insignificant it has a direct limitation on one’s access to institutions or organizations (encapsulation). Such rejection, however, goes beyond the seeking of fitness. Membership denial to a gym based on the lack of valid forms of identification transcends into the realms of inclusive and exclusionary policy in a society (Passel, 2005). In other words, who can become a member of a group, and how can the privilege of membership be proven resides in one’s ability to have legal identification. In the United States a social security number or the preferred form of identification of membership is a requirement that UCA students do not possess. In the case of Roque, he states:

I was able to get a part-time job when I graduated high school. The interview was one of the most nerve racking situations I have ever been in since I had no legal documentation. While I worked I was always scared to mess up on the job in any way, because I thought that would be enough reason to review my background and possibly discover that I’m illegal. Fortunately I was able to work and save money for college.

Theme two: Micro-aggressions are psychological, social, political, economic acts that go unrecognized by the general public. UCA student alertness is a constant preoccupation at every hour of the day given one’s unauthorized status in the United States. Being on the alert is not without consequences. The reality of living always vigilant of their surroundings, negotiating acts of disrespect and aggression, adapting to restrictions by legal conditions, and negotiating the conflict produced by their legal status generates trauma, fear, and emotional stress (dissonance, rejection). To respond to the daily psychological trauma (ambivalence, encapsulation, dissonance, rejection) Latino UCA students create an array of coping skills that positively or negatively confronts complex situations produced by their unauthorized status. Brenda personalizes the issues of micro-aggressions in her own social circle. She survives by being silent while enduring the emotional pain.

All my life I have heard people use words that caused me to feel uncomfortable and have reduced my humanity. At work for example, when I worked at a restaurant or even with the family members of my ex-boyfriend I would hear people use the word “wetback” when they talked about Mexican immigrants. I felt anger but also helpless unable to say anything.

Norma comments on the fear of living in what to her amounts to living in a militarized zone.

Going to the store becomes a stressful situation as we see the constant presence of the border patrol around our community and even the knowing that on the trolley there are cameras documenting passengers. My mother often comes home paralyzed with fear of being apprehended. My mother constantly reminds us to be vigilant, to be on the alert, and to know the streets and routes that we need to travel.

Prejudice and fear permeate Norma’s family as they seek to live and work in their ethnically and linguistically diverse community.
Theme three: Trauma, described as living always wary of one’s surroundings, can be emotionally draining and psychologically distressing (Clark et al., 2009). Various types of psychological trauma impact how undocumented youth negotiate their daily-lived situations. Trauma is defined from a psychological perspective as the feeling of fear, stress, depression, exclusion and apprehension as a result of having unauthorized legal status (Goldsmith et al., 2004).

In the case of Norma, apprehension, deportation, and family separation by immigration authorities generated conditions of trauma or posttraumatic disorder syndrome. Norma recalls the emotional depression she suffered when her mother was taken to a women’s prison. Norma’s grades in college dropped, as did her overall health when ICE arrested her mother. She recounts.

In January of 2007 my mother received a letter from the district attorney’s office stating she was being charged with three felonies because she used false documentation to obtain a job. Thereafter a series of never-ending court appearances proceeded. We had to get a lawyer, who ended up taking advantage of us. He did nothing to help my mother instead his actions landed her in jail one more time, but this time for nearly a month in late August of this year. It has been a horrible nightmare.

The participants in the focus group expressed how they all had been impacted emotionally by their legal status in the United States. At one time or another all have experienced the fear of being apprehended and deported. Two had vivid memories of crossing the border (ages 4 and 5) and of loved ones being apprehended. Deportation for them would mean the end of all their hard work, dreams and aspirations. It would mean the separation from their family and forceful adaptation to a country that while they were born there, they know little about.

Structural violence as a theme was expressed as facing institutional barriers that limit the opportunity to fully participate and access their education. Brenda lamented the labeling of her legal status:

Every where I go, anything I see and everything I do, is controlled by being illegal in the United States. On television, in the streets and even in my dreams that word “Illegal” terrorizes me, even in a college class or in high school with my counselor the word is mentioned, I feel as if there was something wrong with me, as if I was guilty always guilty of something I had no control over.

In the case of Maria, she tells about her anxiety and anger in living in a very conservative community where the simple act of seeking an apartment is directly attached to legal status.

A few months ago we could not find a place to live. We reside in a city that has a policy that requires proof of legal residency in order to rent an apartment. I will never forget my mother crying not knowing where we would live.

Despite the many obstacles and tensions faced by UCA students, their personal fears, sense of belonging, identity, and the psychological and social traumas, one finds them resilient and unwilling to be denied their future and very determined to succeed. They understand the value of higher education and are hopeful that the laws of this country will allow them to live out of the shadows of the law. Waiting for change, UCA students navigate the parameters constructed by the legal and explicit and implicit lived space dimensions of society. The constant navigation of lived spaces creates experiences that correlate with feelings of ambivalence, encapsulation, dissonance, and rejection.

Conclusions

In synthesis, the Jacobo and Ochoa conceptual framework (see Figure 1) is useful to examine the lived spaces of UCA students and as a tool to analyze the explicit and implicit lived spaces of UCA Latino students living in the United States. This conceptual framework highlights how they negotiate their tensions as illustrated by the four themes derived from interviews and dialogue in this exploratory study, namely: Identity and Membership, Micro-
Aggressions, and Structural Violence. The voices of UCA students reminds us that under federal policy they have a right to access a free public K-12 education, yet, once they reach college age they are abandoned by the public educational system (Passel, 2005). Given the size of the undocumented immigrant population in the United States, now estimated to number some 11 million (Passel & Cohn, 2009) a significant public policy debate exists that centers on (1) whether undocumented students should be entitled to attend public postsecondary institutions, (2) whether they should be eligible for resident or in-state tuition, (3) who should have the authority to determine this, and (4) what are the economic and social returns from investing in undocumented immigrants’ higher education.

Frum (2007) further asserts that passage of the federal DREAM Act is the best solution currently on the table, since it would allow access to federal student loans and enable eligible students to obtain legal permanent residence. Yet, the reality is that neither higher education nor immigration policies are made in a political vacuum, and what may be good in the long term from a public policy perspective may not be possible as a political position due to the politics of the next election cycle. Lastly, Rincón (2008) points to the ideological challenges of educational access by proposing that collectively we reframe the debate on the rights of undocumented immigrants from a lens focused on economics and assimilation to one that emphasizes the struggle for human dignity and equality. Such dialogue may help close the deep ideological divides in the existing immigration debate and advance educational policies that reduce inequality in our nation.

References

Examining the Experience of Undocumented


The College Pathways of Foreign-Born and Native-Born Latina/o College Students at Four-Year Institutions

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Abstract

With the continued growth of Latinas/os in higher education, it has become more important than ever for university leaders, administrators, and policy makers to understand the complex factors that lead to their participation and success. It is also important to acknowledge that a good proportion of these Latina/o students are foreign-born. This study explores key differences between foreign-born and native-born Latinas/os as they enter four-year institutions in key areas such as academic preparation and reasons for choosing college. Employing longitudinal trends data from the CIRP Freshman survey, we utilize chi-square analysis to explore differences across key groups (by place of birth and gender) over three decades. Our results suggest that foreign-born Latinas/os lag behind their peers in academic preparation, have greater concerns over financing college, and are likely to choose college due to low tuition. Our findings demonstrate each group’s unique profile upon entering four-year institutions and provide a historic glimpse of how these student populations have changed over three decades.

Introduction

Continuing challenges exist for foreign-born Latina/o students who want to pursue a college education in the United States. Many of these students—brought here by their immigrant families—are provided with quality educational experiences within our K-12 schools, and many work hard to prepare themselves for the rigors of post-secondary education. However for many, their hopes of accessing higher education are effectively out of reach, inhibited by a lack of affordable opportunities and a complex policy debate surrounding the rights of immigrant students. This ongoing policy debate focuses primarily on the rights of undocumented immigrant students in higher education, and it tends to overshadow any discussion about the opportunities of all other Latina/o immigrant students within our higher education systems, be they documented or not. In addition, there is little research that explores the college pathways of foreign-born Latina/o students, as most scholarship in this area focuses on all Latina/o students and rarely disaggregates by characteristics such as place of birth or national origin.

This study aims to bridge this void in research by identifying academic, financial, and familial factors that facilitate access to higher education for foreign-born and native-born Latina/o students that enroll in four-year institutions. Latina/o students are often aggregated in research; however, there are critical distinctions to be examined between foreign-born students—those Latinas/os born outside of the U.S. who immigrate with their families—and their native-born peers, or those born in the U.S. We examine key points of conversion and diversion in the experiences of these two Latina/o student groups as they arrive at four-year colleges. Employing longitudinal trends data from the CIRP Freshman survey, we utilize chi-square analysis to explore differences (by place of birth and gender) over three decades. Areas examined include: academic preparation, financial concerns, and reasons that influence their college choice. Based on the analysis, we offer policy implications on the unique experiences of foreign-born Latina/o entering college students.
Background and Policy Context

The 2010 U.S. Census reported that the Latina/o population has grown to an estimated 50.5 million, representing almost 16.3% of the U.S. (Passel, Cohn, & López, 2011). In fact, half of the country’s overall population growth between 2000 and 2010 was due to Hispanics alone, and their percentages increased in every state of the union (Pew Hispanic Center, 2011). The Latina/o population is very young, as over 17 million Latina/o children are under the age of 18 (Ibid.). Also, an estimated 11.1 million are unauthorized immigrants, the majority located in states like California (2.5 million) and Texas (1.6 million) (Ibid.). This new demographic reality underscores the need to better understand the population of foreign-born and native-born Latina/o students as they navigate their college pathways, especially in states where Latina/o immigrants are concentrated (e.g., AZ, CA, FL, NM, and TX).

Over the past three decades, national immigration policies have directly and indirectly impacted the opportunity of immigrant foreign-born Latina/o students to access higher education (Olivas, 2004). Twelve states (CA, IL, KS, MD, NE, NM, NY, OK, TX, UT, WA, and WI) have instituted policies over the last decade to allow immigrant students to pay in-state college tuition regardless of their legal status (Undocumented Student Tuition, 2011). Other states (e.g., AZ, CO, GA, & IN) have responded by banning in-state tuition for undocumented students (Ibid.). At the federal level, an attempt in 2010 to pass the Development, Relief and Education for Alien Minors Act, or the DREAM Act, was led by Senator Richard Durbin (D-Illinois) as S. 729 (S. 729, 111th Cong., 2009), but it was unsuccessful.

The future of the DREAM Act may remain uncertain, yet challenges persist for foreignborn Latina/o students as they navigate their college pathways. This federal and state policy context serves to underscore the urgency of examining the postsecondary pathways of Latina/o immigrant students. While the study is unable to focus explicitly on undocumented college students, even focusing on the category of foreign-born Latina/o students represents an important contribution.

Literature Review

Social science research focused on Latina/o college students is rarely disaggregated by place of birth. Latina/o foreign-born and native-born students come equipped with different skill sets, funds of knowledge (González, Moll, Tenery, Rivera, Rendón, Gonzales, & Amanti, 1995), and future aspirations. Immigrants, particularly those that are undocumented, have several barriers in pursuing and completing higher education. Foreign-born Latinas/os worry about career opportunities afforded to them after graduation because of their inability to work in the U.S. legally (Abrego, 2006). Moreover, regardless of immigration status, most students are concerned about costs affiliated with attending college (Santiago, 2007). Many Latinas/os, both foreign-born and native-born, attend high poverty, high minority schools that limit their educational opportunities. Such challenges are exacerbated if Latina/o students’ parents lack a formal education, if students come from low-income families, are held back in school, and/or have a low GPA (Swail, Cabrera, & Lee, 2004).

Latino parents, however, maintain strong support for educational goals by instilling in students the concept of an educación (Auerbach, 2006; Reese, Balzano, Gallimore, & Goldenberg, 1995) and motivating students through the use of consejos, or words of wisdom (Delgado-Gaitán, 1994; Fráñquiz & Salazar, 2004; Villenas, Godínez, Delgado Bernal, & Elenes, 2006). Some researchers have documented how Latina/o parents can draw upon their funds of knowledge (González, et al., 1995) in order to help students navigate the American educational system, despite the fact that they may lack proficiency with the English language or have little familiarity with the American educational system themselves (Ceballo, 2004). Also, the college decision-making process is directly tied to parental and sibling influences. For instance, in Ceja’s (2004) study on the college choice process of Chicanas, participants consistently noted parents as influential in their academic success. Pérez (2010) also identified parents as essential in this process, but also found peers and siblings to be influential. Nevertheless, pursuing social and economic mobility through education is a prominent feature of the contemporary immigrant experience (Tseng, 2006). As a result of this desire, Latina/o immigrant students tend to have higher levels of motivation to climb the academic ladder.
Immigrant students also have to contend with deficit thinking on the part of educators and administrators (Valencia, 1997, 2010; Valenzuela, 1999). Suárez-Orozco and Suárez-Orozco (2002) note that many teachers view their immigrant students as less intelligent than their native peers even though the teachers believe that their immigrant students are more eager to learn. With immigrant students facing an uncertain future in higher education, this brief literature review is useful in framing our study, which focuses on the academic preparation, financial concerns, and the college choices of Latina/o foreign-born and native-born students in an effort to better understand and support them through their college pathways.

**Methodology**

This study focused on institutions that participated in the CIRP Freshman Survey in the years 1985, 1994, and 2004 from five states: Arizona, California, Florida, New Mexico, and Texas. These states were chosen due to their large Latina/o immigrant populations. These years were selected in order to maximize the number of four-year institutions that participated in the CIRP Freshman Survey. This group of states includes three that offer in-state tuition to immigrant students (CA, NM, and TX), one that prohibits it (AZ), and one that has failed on its attempt to pass similar legislation (FL). Given this geographic and policy context, two interrelated research questions guided our analysis related to differences between foreign-born and native-born Latina/o students entering college over the last three decades:

1. How do they compare on academic preparedness as they enter college?
2. What are key differences that influence their financial concerns and college choice?

**Data and Analysis**

The primary data source for this study was CIRP Freshman Survey trends data, collected annually since the late 1960s by the UCLA Higher Education Research Institute. The CIRP Freshman Survey is administered every summer to incoming college freshmen at hundreds of four-year institutions across the country, and it is the nation’s longest running study of entering college students. The survey items cover a variety of pre-college experiences, motivations, aspirations, life goals and objectives, and expectations for college. The data are collected according to a sampling strategy that ensures broad representation of four-year institutions to reflect a national normative profile of the entering first-year population at all four-year public or private colleges and universities across the country (Pryor, Hurtado, Sáenz, Santos, & Korn, 2007).

The CIRP Freshman Survey trends data offer a unique historical context with which to examine entering college students over the last four decades. Our study parallels a recent trends report of Latina/o students in higher education (Hurtado, Sáenz, Santos, & Cabrera, 2008). Due to limitations in the types of demographic questions that have been asked in this survey, we cannot explicitly identify students’ undocumented status or their country of origin, but we are able to distinguish between foreign-born and native-born Latina/o students. Focusing on four-year colleges represents a limitation given that a slight majority of Latinas/os are enrolled in the two-year sector, yet there is important value in examining this context given the prevailing degree attainment goals (e.g., President Obama’s 2020 Goal) that call for more four-year degrees. Another limitation lies with our use of the Latina/o label, as there are many terms that can be used to refer to individuals of Latina/o or Hispanic origin in social science research. Throughout the study we employ the term Latinas/os and Hispanics interchangeably to describe students that are of Mexican, Puerto Rican, or other Latina/o descent, acknowledging that this imperfect grouping could serve to mask important variances that inevitably exist between such sub-groups. These limitations do affect the specificity of our analyses with respect to national origin, but we are nonetheless able to make meaningful comparisons between foreign-born and native-born entering Latina/o college students.
Our analyses of the CIRP Freshman Survey trends data for the three survey years of 1985 (n=4,915), 1994 (n=17,421), and 2004 (n=40,870) focuses on documenting significant between-group differences through descriptive summaries and chi-square analysis. We employ this analysis to examine key comparisons by gender across these sub-groups. Table 1 displays a frequency distribution of these sub-groups. a good place to begin.

### Table 1. Sample by Place of Birth & Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Foreign-born Males</th>
<th>Native-born Males</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Males</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>1148</td>
<td>1372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Males</td>
<td>1793</td>
<td>6142</td>
<td>7935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Females</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>1458</td>
<td>1653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Females</td>
<td>2703</td>
<td>8673</td>
<td>11376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>4915</strong></td>
<td><strong>17421</strong></td>
<td><strong>40870</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Notes: Data are from respondents to the CIRP Freshman survey, and sample sizes are weighted to reflect the national normative profile of entering freshmen for the given year. Data include respondents from institutions in five states (AZ, CA, FL, NM, TX) across three years: 1985, 1994, and 2004. For additional information on these data, see: Hurtado, S., Sáenz, V. B., Santos, J. L., & Cabrera, N. L. (2008). Advancing in higher education: A portrait of Latina/o college freshmen at four-year institutions: 1975–2006. Los Angeles: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA.

Appendix A displays the results of selected chi-square analysis in tabular format. Our results are focused on differences in academic preparation for college, financial concerns, and factors that influence where they decide to go to college. We were unable to employ more advanced analytic techniques due to the fact that these data are aggregate in nature and do not allow for unit-level analysis.

### Results

**Demographic Portrait**

The proportion of entering foreign-born Latina/o students at four-year institutions has been increasing over the last several decades, although there has been a decline in the last few years. A closer look at CIRP Freshman Survey trends data corroborates this, as the proportion of foreign-born Latina/o students was under 4% in 1971, reaching a high of 12% in the mid-1990s and then settling back at about 7% in 2008 (See Figure 1).

In addition, we have mapped onto this enrollment timeline some key federal immigration policies that in some cases have coincided with sharp increases or decreases in enrollment. The movement of the trend line suggests such policies may have some effect on college enrollment rates of foreign-born Latina/o students, although further research would be necessary to further extend such a conjecture. The general trend since 1971 indicates a steady increase in the proportion of foreign-born Latinas/os entering four-year colleges, providing an important demographic context with which to consider our analysis of survey differences between these students and their native-born Latina/o peers.
Academic preparation

As students transition from high school to college, it is vital that they are academically prepared and college-ready. Research suggests that immigrant students in high school often demonstrate stronger academic motivation when compared to their native-born peers (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2002). This may be because immigrant students often have an increased desire to do well for their parents, repaying them for the sacrifices they made to provide students a better life (Tseng, 2004). This increased level of academic motivation, however, does not always translate to higher academic achievement, in part because the greater familial interdependence that immigrant students experience can result in increased family obligations (Fuligni & Pedersen, 2002; Sy & Romero, 2008; Tseng, 2004). Tabular results for our analysis can be found in Appendix A.

High school grade point average. The difference in high school GPA between both native-born and foreign-born students is significant in 1994 and 2004 but not in 1985, indicating that native-born Latinas/os are academically outperforming foreign-born Latinas/os in high school in more recent years. Additionally, the proportion of foreign-born students that received top grades increased by more than 12% in two decades. Differences by gender present more of a mixed picture. Even though in each year, native-born students outperformed their foreign-born peers, it was only significant in 1985 for males. Male foreign-born and native-born high school GPAs have converged, while their female peers have diverged. Similarly, females outperformed males in self-reported GPAs in both native-born and foreign-born populations each year and were significant. These findings provide support for a gender gap in Latina/o academic achievement, regardless of citizenship status (Saenz & Ponjuan, 2009).

College Choice. The analysis revealed several significant findings when comparing college choice to gender and citizenship. In 1994 native-born males and foreign-born females were more likely to enroll in their top two choices than their peers, while in 2004 it was foreignborn females and males who were more likely than their native-born peers. The data is limited, however, in that it does not indicate what the actual choices of these individuals were. It may be that foreign-born Latinas prefer public, four-year institutions that are more affordable and closer to home than their native-born Latina peers. Latinas’ sense of obligation and decision-making process are directly tied to parental and sibling influences, trends corroborated in prior research by Ceja (2004) and Pérez (2010).
Time spent studying. The analyses indicate that foreign-born Latinas/os actually spend more time per week doing homework or studying than do native-born Latinas/os. In this instance, foreign-born Latinas/os’ commitment to succeed may have taken priority, perhaps enabling them to more efficiently manage their time between studying and familial obligations. Another explanation for these findings may be that foreign-born Latinas/os recognize that they need to devote more time and energy to their studies due to a difference in motivation that has also been noted in prior research (Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2002).

Financial Concerns

Financial and social capital factors can affect access to pre-college opportunities—such as access to AP courses, access to reading materials, etc.—that can positively impact students and lead to increased college success (Contreras, 2005). Differences in financial and social capital between foreign-born and native-born Latinas/os could help to account for some of the differences in achievement and graduation rates between these two groups.

Level of aid & Concern over financing college. In our analysis, parents of native-born Latina/o students were better able to provide higher levels of assistance than foreign-born counterparts. By gender, male foreign-born Latinos had higher levels of aid than foreign-born Latinas, making the challenge to be successful in college even more difficult for foreign-born students. Lower levels of parental aid can impact foreign-born Latina/o students in a variety of ways, including college choice, time to graduate, and necessity of procuring a job in college (Hurtado et al., 2008).

It is important to note that for foreign-born Latinas/os, a third to more than a half across the three cohort years noted that financing college was a major concern. Foreign-born Latinas also had higher levels of concern than their male counterparts. However, these findings should not underestimate the fact that native-born Latinas/os are also concerned about affordability. The majority of these students had at least some concern about financing college with a substantial amount having major concerns. Along with possibly lacking the income to pay for school, their concern could also be linked to the student and their families’ ability to work in the U.S.

Reason to go to college: Low tuition. Financial concerns are also exhibited when looking at the influence of low tuition on the college choice process for entering Latina/o students. Foreign-born Latinas/os consistently reported that low tuition at an institution was more important than did native-born Latinas/os. Interestingly, when comparing across the cohort years, both foreign- and native-born Latinas/os reported the increasing importance of low tuition in choosing a college. For both groups, the proportion viewing the importance of low tuition as “very important” more than doubled from 1985 to 1994. As the costs of college have increased, along with financial aid focusing more on loans and less on scholarships and grants, the draw for an institution with low tuition intensifies.

It is useful to consider these findings in conjunction with the amount of aid from family and concern about financing college that foreign-born Latina/o students indicated. A student who anticipates little to no family financial support would be concerned about paying for college and would look to perhaps attend a school with lower tuition. This becomes even more challenging when coupled with the limited opportunities to access federal and/or state funds due to their immigrant status.

Desire to live close to home. Our analysis found that foreign-born students were more likely to want to live closer to home. Both female and male foreign-born Latina/o students were more likely to attend a college or university that is less than 50 miles from their home. Females, both native- and foreign-born, were also significantly more likely than their male counterparts to opt to attend a university closer to home. This finding is significant as it is consistent with prior research on why Latinas/os opt to live close to home while pursuing their degree, namely due to the reasons of access, location, and affordability (Santiago, 2007). Being close to home allows students to commute, work, study, and above all fulfill their family obligations.
Conclusion and Implications

This study found several key differences between foreign-born and native-born entering Latina/o college students attending a four-year institution within the five target states (AZ, CA, FL, NM, & TX) that could affect the success of these students in college. These range from differences in their academic preparedness to the level of aid they receive from their families to the key influences on their college choice.

Our results suggest that differences persist between the academic preparation of foreign-born Latinas/os and their native-born peers as they enter four-year institutions over the last three decades. These differences warrant further investigation to aid in improving the quality of support that is currently provided to foreign-born Latinas/os in accessing, enrolling in, and graduating from college. Further, families of foreign-born Latinas/os have a diminished ability to financially support them through college, which could lead to higher expectations to work while in college. All of these factors affect a student’s concern about financing their education, a concern that remained strong across all groups across the three decades. Though financial barriers exist for both groups, foreign-born Latina/o students as a whole experience them with higher frequency and with more severity.

Parental and family encouragement, the distance between college and home, and participation in religious services are decisive factors in how students, and in particular foreign-born Latina/o students, approach their first year in college (Santiago, 2007). Our findings demonstrate that parents and family members can be a strong positive influence on a student’s college career. College administrators should evaluate how to integrate family members into programming, such as orientation and financial aid programs. Additionally, a substantial proportion of both foreign- and native-born Latina/o students report living close to home as an important influence in their college choice. Accordingly, institutions should actively engage their surrounding Latina/o communities in light of this finding though aggressive recruitment and outreach services that engage the entire family.

Finally, our study findings suggest some important implications for policy and practice:

1. Increase opportunities for affordability and funding of higher education that target immigrant students. As the cost of higher education keeps increasing, financial aid subsidies for Latina/o immigrant students need to continue to come from local, state, and federal sources. Current legislation in states like CA, NM, and TX that provide in-state tuition for their residents regardless of citizenship status, along with providing some form of state financial aid, has provided many foreign-born (and undocumented) students the opportunity to attend college. More states, especially those with increasing immigrant populations, should seek to enact similar legislation to make higher education more accessible. The federal DREAM Act needs to continue to be a strategy to make college more affordable and attainable for all eligible students.

2. Degree completion should lead to the ability to work legally. Some immigrant students who are attending higher education in the U.S. face the prospect of being unable to utilize their degree because they may not have the legal right to work. Foreign-born Latina/o college students represent perhaps America’s most under-utilized source of human capital. In using a human capital argument, a strong economic rationale could be a politically palatable strategy to build support for enhancing the higher education opportunities for all immigrant Latina/o students.

3. Increase focus on Latino male students, regardless of native-born or foreign-born status. The difference in participation in higher education by Latinas and Latinos at the undergraduate level is staggering (Saenz & Ponjuan, 2009), and though the focus has been to increase the participation of women due to past gender inequities, there is now an imperative to increase
the participation and academic success of all Latino men as well. Increased mentorship opportunities and specific programs conducted by schools to raise participation and degree aspiration are necessary to clarify the pathways to higher education that may seem out of reach. Ultimately, institutions must realize that focusing on Latino males is a key strategy towards making significant gains in their goals around increasing college completion, as there is more room for growth.

4. Provide more funding for Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSIs). HSIs educate the majority of Latinas/os in the country and awarded over 40% of bachelor’s degrees to Latinas/os in 2003-2004 even though they made up 7% of all four-year institutions (Santiago, 2007). HSIs are located in areas with high Latina/o populations and generally serve the local region. As the findings demonstrate, foreign-born Latina/o students are more likely to stay close to home, so it is imperative to increase funding at schools where they attend: HSIs. Such funding increases should not be left to Title V efforts at the federal level, as states can be more strategic in targeting these institutions as the chief economic engines in regions where the Latina/o population growth is strongest (i.e., AZ, CA, FL, NM, & TX).

5. Tap into family structures. Families provide a strong support system to students and also induce students to be hard-working, to stay motivated, and to ultimately be successful. It is vital that higher education institutions and primary and secondary schools connect with parents and students’ immediate and extended families to provide information regarding opportunities for immigrant Latina/o college students. Institutions should work to demystify the higher education pathways available to these students, and the sharpest strategy for this intervention is to engage Latina/o families and communities proactively and purposefully.

References

Abrego, L. J. (2006). “I can’t go to college because I don’t have papers”: Incorporation patterns of Latino undocumented youth. Latino Studies, 4(3), 212-231.


The College Pathways of Foreign-Born


Appendix A. Results of Chi-Square Analysis by Year, Place of Birth, and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High School Grade Point Average</th>
<th>1985</th>
<th>1994</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A+ to A-</td>
<td>B+ to B-</td>
<td>C+ or less</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Females</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>58.1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Females</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Males</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>12.5**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Males</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>8.9**</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College Choice</th>
<th>1985</th>
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<th>2004</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First</td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>Third or less</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Females</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
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<tr>
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<td>75.5</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>80.4</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>73.8</td>
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<td>5.1</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Hours Spent Studying (last year of high school)</th>
<th>1985</th>
<th>1994</th>
<th>2004</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 Hr or less</td>
<td>16+ Hours</td>
<td>5 Hr or less</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Females</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11.7*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Females</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>11.1*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Males</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>18.5**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Males</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>8.8**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Concern for Financing College</th>
<th>1985</th>
<th>1994</th>
<th>2004</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Some</td>
<td>Major</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>Foreign-born Males</td>
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<td>57.7</td>
<td>29.5**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Males</td>
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<td>52.9</td>
<td>22.6**</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Importance of Low Tuition in College Choice</th>
<th>1985</th>
<th>1994</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Impt</td>
<td>Some Impt</td>
<td>Very Impt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Females</td>
<td>56.2</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>20.5*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Females</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>9.9*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Males</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>5.4**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Males</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>10.3**</td>
</tr>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Importance of Closeness of College to Home</th>
<th>1985</th>
<th>1994</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Impt</td>
<td>Some Impt</td>
<td>Very Impt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Females</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>33.5*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Females</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>18*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign-born Males</td>
<td>67.4</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>4**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native-born Males</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>13.4**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.01; ** p < 0.001. Notes: Data are from respondents to the CIRP Freshman survey, and sample sizes are weighted to reflect the national normative profile of entering freshmen for the given year. Chi-square tests were run between foreign-born and native-born and gender within each year. Data is not available for some years. Only selected comparisons are displayed here. Additional trends tables available upon request from the lead author. Data includes institutions from five states (AZ, CA, FL, NM, TX) across three years: 1985, 1994, and 2004. Sample sizes are available in Table 1. For additional information on these data, see: Hurtado, S., Sáenz, V. B., Santos, J. L., & Cabrera, N. L. (2008). Advancing in higher education: A portrait of Latina/o college freshmen at four-year institutions: 1975–2006. Los Angeles: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA.
Professional Development of Secondary Science Teachers of English Learners in Immigrant Communities

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Abstract

This is a research study of secondary science teacher professional development, in which 30 teachers learned about and implemented a series of teaching strategies aimed at increasing the participation and learning of English Learners in schools serving largely Latino immigrant communities within California’s Central Valley. This study focuses on six of the 30 science teachers. Through a professional summer development workshop, teachers were exposed to science content that included the use of pedagogical strategies that intended to improve knowledge acquisition for students in immigrant communities. The pedagogical approach used for enhancing teacher skills was the 5E model. The methodology used to examine the pedagogical approach was qualitative teacher observations. Results indicate that all 6 teachers and their students increased engagement and explanation abilities, and students had opportunities to explore and elaborate their understanding of science content when teachers implemented the 5E model.

Introduction

Across the United States, more than 12% of residents are immigrants. However, in California this percentage is more than 25% of the population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). As a result it is not surprising that, based on recent data, it is estimated that the number of students in K-12 schools who were classified as English Learners (ELs) was more than six million (Migration Policy Institute, 2010). Furthermore, school-aged ELs are highly concentrated in states with high rates of immigrant families (Garcia, Jensen, & Scribner, 2009), and Spanish is the language most often spoken in these states, including: Arizona, California, Illinois, New Mexico and New York. In California, with more than 1.6 million school-aged ELs, 84% of these students speak Spanish as their primary language (Migration Policy Institute, 2010). Additionally, nearly all Spanish-speaking ELs in California are of Latino descent, with the majority of Mexican heritage (Educational Trust, 2006). It is important to note that students classified as ELs are not always foreign born (Hernández, Denton, & Macartney, 2008).

ELs, and in particularly Latino ELs in California, are performing below proficiency on standardized reading and mathematics tests (IES, 2009), and the gap in reading and mathematics achievement between Whites and Latino ELs has not improved substantially since 1971 (Kewal Ramani, Gilbertson, Fox, & Provasnik, 2007). In science education, the results are more troubling. A recent study by the Institute of Educational Sciences (2009) reported that 78% of all California students scored below basic and at basic in the state’s standardized science test and 51% of Latino students scored at basic or below basic. There are several possible explanations for the poor performance of California students in science. One explanation is that, if EL students are challenged by reading and science relies on reading comprehension, then students will also struggle with science (Gibbons, 2006; Rodriguez, 2010). In other words, if EL students cannot access the text, they cannot fully participate in classroom discussions. An alternative explanation, one that we find to be more probable, is that science is challenging for ELs because science teachers in general are not making the kinds of adjustments needed to ensure that ELs have access to texts and are able to participate in the class learning experience (de Oliveira, 2010; Lee & Luykx, 2005; Lee, 2005).

Although, California has attempted to address multicultural education and immigrant communities through Cross-Cultural, Language, and Academic Development (CLAD), its real intent is to prepare teachers to work with ELs. The CLAD certificate prepares all current and future K-12 classroom teachers in three domains: second language acquisition theory, theory and methods of teaching ELs, and approaches to multicultural education, all of which are presented as standards that must be addressed in separate courses or integrated
within existing teacher education courses (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2011). The CLAD certification makes no distinction between the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers, or among secondary teachers in the various discipline areas. Accordingly, a secondary science teacher, for example, typically takes the same coursework for the CLAD as an elementary teacher. What this means is that in most cases, teachers are prepared with the theory and methods for teaching ELs in general, but not within particular academic disciplines or immigrant communities. Despite the CLAD certification, the broader issues and needs of immigrant students and ELs have not been addressed. In this same vein, most professional workshops focus on English teaching strategies to enhance content learning for EL students and immigrant communities. Research by EL specialists who are also science educators supports the contention that ELs can be successful in science when the teachers have relevant competencies for supporting student learning in ways that engage students, enable them to explore the meanings of scientific concepts through hands-on discovery, and scaffold protracted language in which students verbalize what they are learning (Lee, Lewis, Adamson, Maerten-Rivera, & Secada, 2007; Ramírez-Marín & Clark, in press).

Unfortunately, many secondary teachers, even those with CLAD certification, remain unable to teach academic content in ways that facilitate learning for ELs. Bryan and Atwater (2002) suggest one of the reasons for this is that high numbers of preservice science teachers enter teaching with little or no cross-cultural or bilingual experiences, and they complete their programs with the same worldview they had upon entry. In other words, although they have taken CLAD coursework, their understanding of ELs’ language and cultural backgrounds remains limited (Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005). This phenomenon, coupled with minimal preparation for teaching science to ELs, we contend, contributes greatly to the continued failure of teachers to engage ELs in ways that make learning science relevant, meaningful, and challenging.

**Purpose of the Study**

The study described in this article stemmed from a larger study conducted under Addiction Research and Investigation for Science Education (ARISE). The ARISE project was funded through the National Institute of Drug Abuse (NIDA) within the National Institutes of Health (NIH). An essential feature of the ARISE project was to provide professional development to science teachers teaching in public schools with large numbers of ELs. One of the goals of the ARISE project was to address the science achievement gap that exists between ELs and English-speaking students attending public schools in California’s Central Valley. In the state of California, almost 15% of the entire EL student population resides in this area. Ninety-three percent of ELs in the Central Valley speak Spanish as their primary language (Goodban, Hedderson, Ortiz, & Branton, 2004). The other seven percent of students speak Asian or Southeast Asian languages. The curriculum used in the schools follow the state standards for English-speaking students, makes little or no adjustments for the diverse language and learning needs of ELs and provide minimal access to college preparation courses or educational resources geared to preparing ELs for post-secondary education (Reyes & Salinas, 2004).

The purpose of the ARISE science teacher intervention was to provide middle school and high school science teachers with a long term professional program aimed at preparing them to teach ELs through a constructive approach to science, one that also was especially attuned to the learning needs of these students. A by-product of the workshop was to integrate an established approach to EL science instruction for middle to high school teachers known as the 5E model. As a result of a professional development workshop and program that encompasses the 5E model, the question that motivates this study is whether or not secondary science teachers effectively utilize this model in science instruction with ELs.
Methods

Participants

The ARISE program recruited 30 CLAD-certified science teachers from 7th through 12th grade for the yearly professional workshop during the academic school year of 2009-2010 from public schools across California’s Central Valley. A sub-set of 6 teachers were selected for classroom observations after they participated in the professional workshop and one teacher served as a pilot observation to ensure that the observers knew how to classify instances of the 5E strategies. The San Joaquin County Office of Education site coordinator distributed brochures with information about the project and a registration link to superintendents and academic directors in the Central Valley. They then distributed the information to science teachers in their districts. Teachers who voluntarily signed up were contacted by the ARISE site coordinator with details about the project. Teachers who agreed with the requirements then submitted an application and a refundable check to UC Davis. Participants received their refundable check and a stipend at the end of the workshop and at end of the program.

The mean age for the six participants was 41.8 years old. Approximately 29% of the participants were males and approximately 71% were females. Figure 1 illustrates the ethnic composition of the students for the six teachers in the study. Table 1 indicates the percentage of socioeconomically disadvantaged students and EL students in ARISE teacher classrooms.

Figure 1. Student Ethnic Composition

![Student Ethnic Composition](image)

Table 1. Socioeconomically Disadvantaged Students and English Learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socioeconomically Disadvantaged</td>
<td>62.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Learners</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Number of Students Per School</td>
<td>1,800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Procedure

The teachers underwent a nine-month program, launched by a five-day intensive Neuroscience and Cultural Nuanced Learning Summer Institute of 6 hours per day. Teachers learned about the 5E model and science instructors for the institute modeled the 5E model in a course that focused on neuroscience and addiction. The 5E model of instruction is organized around the following components: 1) Engagement, 2) Exploration, 3) Explanation, 4) Elaboration and 5) Evaluation for making science accessible to English learners (Carr, Sexton, & Lagunoff, 2007). The 5E model is based on a constructivist approach to science teaching and learning, and it incorporates many of the elements found to be relevant for teaching secondary ELs (Faltis, Arias, & Ramirez-Marín, 2010). This model suggests that EL students will improve their science learning if teachers use the 5E teaching strategies. Engagement seeks to access learners’ prior knowledge and organize students’ thinking toward learning new concepts by interacting with students to build their prior knowledge using comprehensible language and scaffolds to extend their interaction (Hansen, 2006). Exploration seeks to examine students’ existing understandings (including misconceptions), and abilities to help them generate Student Ethnic Composition exploratory questions about what they are studying (Keenan, 2004). Explanation focuses students’ attention on particular aspects of their engagement and exploration inquiries, with an eye toward developing conceptual understanding of processes, concepts, and ways of explaining the inquiry process (Gibbons, 2006; Stoddart, Pinal, Latzke, & Canaday, 2002). Teachers also learn ways of explaining concepts and processes, using visual support and verbal scaffolding to support student explanation. Elaboration is when teachers challenge and work to expand students’ conceptual understanding and language abilities (See Edelsky, Smith, & Faltis, 2008, for examples of how teachers support and stretch language during science inquiry interactions.) Evaluation helps students assess their own understandings and learning abilities and provides opportunities for teachers to evaluate student learning throughout the learning process.

As indicated earlier, science faculty modeled the 5E strategies daily to teach neuroscience and addiction content to the teachers. Examples used by science presenters included the following techniques: think- pair-share, word banks, scaffolding exercises, and electronic quizzes using clickers for immediate evaluation of science content knowledge. These activities were done to demonstrate to teachers how the 5E model can be implemented in their own classroom to help ELs grasp the science content (Carr, Sexton, & Lagunoff, 2007).

At the start of the school year, the 30 science teachers who had attended the Summer Institute enrolled in a series of six follow-up workshops to reinforce their neuroscience and addiction content knowledge, EL strategies, implementation of the 5E model, research design, develop an Integrated Instructional Unit (IIU) and construct a research poster to be presented at a research symposium. The IIU is based on the content presented at the ARISE workshop. More specifically, the IIU includes lecture or presentation, individual student reading material, multimedia, and directions for a laboratory experience that incorporates opportunities for inquiry.

Addiction Research and Investigation for Science Education teacher participants also received additional coaching from the San Joaquin County Office of Education site coordinator who visited teachers and provided support in the development of projects and implementation of the 5E model. On average each teacher’s classroom was visited three times by the site coordinator and observed once by three researchers. In addition, teachers were paired with a university science faculty who acted as a mentor and provided support for the research project throughout the tenure of the program. Mentors provided teachers with guidance in the design and implementation of their research project. Furthermore, and most importantly, the faculty mentors served as a gateway into science for and as a source of inspiration to the EL students. At the end of the school year, students presented their research projects orally with visual and textual support.
Data Collection and Analysis

To collect data for this study, classroom observations were conducted by three trained researchers who observed together each of the six selected teachers to document the degree to which teachers employed the 5E model in their classrooms. The observation tool (template) was based on a checklist of indicators that described activities that illustrated the use of the 5E model by the teachers (Carr, Sexton, & Lagunoff, 2007). For example, teachers were assessed on engagement by the extent that they could bridge their students’ past knowledge with the current science learning objectives. Classroom visitations were scheduled during February to March 2010, in order to observe 1.5 hours of classroom science content presented by the six selected ARISE teachers. The observational techniques also included an environmental scan of the classroom prior to instruction in order to gauge classroom layout and the content students were able to access to support their learning. For example, science visuals such as posters and scientific models were included in the environmental template used for assessment. Data examination consisted of content analysis and analytic induction, which is an analysis of the units of measurement (Merriam, 1998). In this case, the units of measurement we focused on were frequency and variety of messages presented to students using the 5E model. The researchers checked for consistency of the coding of their 5E observations, and analyses showed nearly 90 percent agreement for each classroom observation.

Results

Observations of student-teacher interactions indicated that ELs appeared to be more responsive to science content material when teachers relied on the 5E strategies. In addition, it was observed that the 5E strategies were employed when teachers engaged students with topics that had meaning for them. That is, if teachers built on past knowledge and bridged this knowledge to current science content, students were more engaged with learning activities. Figure 2 illustrates the observed frequencies of each of the 5E strategies in the six classrooms. As indicated in Figure 2, the engagement and explanation strategies were the two most used by teachers. Explore, elaborate and evaluate were moderately used in the classrooms. It was observed that teachers who were able to employ the engagement strategy early on during the class period were also able to employ more of the 5E strategies. On the other hand, teachers who used the engagement strategy less often were less likely to implement the rest of the strategies.
An example of how one of the teachers used the 5E strategies comes from Mrs. Belmont’s (pseudonym) Chemistry class.

*Engage:* Mrs. Belmont asks students what would happen if a match were lit near a gas container. She tells them that chemistry is a “lifestyle thing” that can be applied to many instances, such as the process that goes on when their mom is cooking. Mrs. Belmont reminds students to write down notes, as she continues to use examples from the students’ own life experiences, such as fog on the roads during wintertime. *Explain:* Mrs. Belmont explains the concept of depression point by using the mechanical engine example that all students can easily see. Once she uses the example, students begin referring to this example. Next, she explains the similarity between the mechanical engine example and the way that solutes relate to the melting point of water. *Evaluate:* After explaining a concept, Mrs. Belmont asks students a question about what she had just presented to evaluate their understanding of the concept reviewed. She also asks students to discuss the ideas to each other to see if students understand the concept. *Elaborate:* Mrs. Belmont asks students to explain in their own words to each other what they understood, and how it made sense to them. This strategy not only served as a way to have students interact about science ideas, but also helped them extend their understanding. *Explore:* When students do not know how to answer a question or are unsure of the concept, Mrs. Belmont asks them to review their notes and come up with questions they have about the concept. This strategy encourages students to explore the concept more deeply, by posing questions that are of interest to them, and to provide interpretations of their learning.

The findings from the classroom observations also indicated that when teachers were not able to engage students in the lesson, there were fewer instances of the other strategies. For example, one of the teachers in the project, Mrs. Thompson (pseudonym), spent about 25 minutes to get students’ attention on the goals and procedures for collecting and analyzing pond water. Mrs. Thompson was finally able to engage students in collecting samples, to have them explore the types of living organisms that were present in sample, and explain what kinds of organisms might live in ponds. However, when Mrs. Thompson and students returned to the classroom for the lab analysis, she again had difficulty focusing the students’ attention on the task at hand, and students were not fully engaged with the next steps. While this example shows Mrs. Thompson was capable of using several of the 5E strategies, it was a challenge for her to keep her class on task in the classroom. Our observations of other teachers showed that each of the teachers varied in how they incorporated the 5E model during instruction. Finally, as indicated in the literature that supports the use of analytic induction techniques in classroom observations, hypotheses may change after several observations. We originally expected equal distribution of all 5E techniques by ARISE teachers. However, as the data above suggest we found that this distribution was unequal across teachers and across categories.

**Discussion**

The most important finding from this intervention was that the six science teachers who participated in the study were able to incorporate the features of the 5E model into their instruction with EL students. We also learned that while the use of the 5E strategies varied across teachers, all teachers incorporated elements of the 5E strategies some of the time during their instruction, which created opportunities for students to explore science concepts on their own, to explain what the concepts meant to them and to the teacher, and to elaborate on their own learning by working with each other. Teachers were most able to engage students to interact about and interpret new information, and to encourage students to explain what they were learning, which juxtaposed against the magnitude of challenges these teachers faced with teaching science concepts to their EL students in ways that made sense to students, was a huge step in the right direction. As we mentioned in the introduction, while most secondary teachers have pedagogical content knowledge in their subject matter disciplines, few possess the knowledge and practices needed to ensure that EL students participate fully in and benefit from classroom learning about subject matter content.
Our findings indicated that the 5E model for science instruction provided experienced science teachers who were unfamiliar with teaching ELs one critical piece of the complex puzzle of teaching EL students academic content. One piece of the puzzle is admittedly not enough, as teachers also need to continually work on providing opportunities for students to interact about important concepts, interpret the information being taught, and present what they have learned (See Chapter 6 of Valdés, Capitelli, & Alvarez, 2011).

Further research is needed for a deeper understanding of the factors that impact successful and unsuccessful integration of the types of pedagogical models science teachers use. As the professional development literature indicates, it is not easy for teachers, especially at the secondary level, to take knowledge presented in a workshop and put it into practice in the classroom (Wilson & Berne, 1999; Stoddart, Pinal, Latzke, & Canaday, 2002), especially when the new knowledge asks them to change the way they understanding teaching (Clarke, 2007; Lucas, 2011).

Based on the type and duration of this intervention, it was not possible to examine the capacity of these teachers to sustain the 5E model in their classroom. Moreover, we could not differentiate by time of arrival the differential impact of this model. This certainly warrants further attention to better understand the efficacy and resiliency of this model as a long term teaching strategy for these types of teachers and variations among immigrant students. These variations stem from each students prior formal schooling quality and experiences in their home country prior to their enrollment in schools in the United States (Faltis & Coulter, 2007). Moreover, given that this is a qualitative and exploratory analysis of these data thus far, there are limitations of generalizability to the group. These limitations are a result of the following: sample bias and size, duration of teacher observations, no access to student outcome data, and no inclusion of pre-program teacher observation data. Nevertheless, the study does shed light on how science teachers adopt evidence-based EL science teaching pedagogy, and the extent to which professional development programs may facilitate the use of these programs in their classrooms. In addition, it is critical to highlight that professional development programs alone may be necessary, but not sufficient in fully developing EL science teachers’ appreciation of their immigrant students’ funds of knowledge as well as the local context in which they teach. Future research should include these considerations in order to develop a fuller and deeper understanding of teaching and learning within this immigrant communities.

References


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BOOK REVIEW

Americans by Heart: Undocumented Latino Students and the Promise of Higher Education

Edelina Burciaga
University of California, Irvine

*Americans by heart: Undocumented Latino students and the promise of higher education* is an in-depth exploration of the experiences of Latino undocumented immigrant young people. Pérez’s primary focus is on the factors that shape the pathway to college for undocumented Latino students. The book captures the challenges and risks associated with growing up undocumented in the United States, and also highlights how undocumented Latino students cope with these challenges. Perez’s compassionate and informative book is a welcome addition to the growing body of research about undocumented immigrant young people.

The undocumented immigrant population is currently estimated at 11.2 million. Approximately 3.2 million are children and young adults under the age of 24 (Passel & D’Vera 2011). The Supreme Court decision in Plyler v. Doe (1982) guarantees undocumented young people a public education through high school. It is during the critical transition out of high school that many undocumented Latino students begin to fully appreciate the full impact of their legal status and what it means for their future opportunities. Undocumented students are eligible for in-state tuition in 13 states. However, because of their legal status undocumented students are not eligible for federal financial aid; they are only eligible for aid in two states, creating a significant barrier to higher education access. In addition, as undocumented young people transition into adulthood, various rites of passage that many citizens take for granted—such as applying for a driver’s license, securing a first job, and voting—each emphasize the salience of their legal status.

Drawing on data collected through surveys, in-depth interviews, and ethnographic fieldwork over the course of two years, Pérez paints a rich picture of the lives of undocumented Latino students in high school and college across the United States. One hundred and ten undocumented Latino students were surveyed for the study. Fifty-four of the survey participants were interviewed. The majority of these students lived in California, the state with the largest undocumented immigrant population. However, Perez and his research team were able to recruit students from Texas, Virginia, Georgia, Missouri, New York, and Washington D.C., providing a much needed national perspective on the experiences of undocumented Latino students. Approximately 62% of the college participants were female, which is comparable to the overall female college enrollment rate for Latinos. The high school group was gender balanced, with 50% of the participants being female. On average, undocumented Latino student participants arrived in the United States at the age of seven, and had spent approximately 13 years in the United States. The average age of participants was about 20 years old.

Weaving together the narratives of undocumented Latino students and theories of social psychology, immigrant incorporation, resilience, and political participation, Perez develops a comprehensive conceptual framework for understanding undocumented student achievement and Texas and New Mexico offer state aid to undocumented students. college access. Perez’s conceptual framework expands the explanatory power of these theories through application to the experiences of the undocumented Latino student population. For example, previous research on resilience in young people suggests that personal characteristics such as good communication skills, a positive self-concept, and caring attitudes increase a young person’s chances of dealing with difficulties more effectively.

2 Texas, California, Illinois, Kansas, New Mexico, Nebraska, New York, Oklahoma, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, Maryland, and Connecticut offer in-state tuition rates to undocumented students.
Perez finds that the same is true for undocumented Latino students, but the ways that undocumented Latino students demonstrate these characteristics differ slightly because of their undocumented immigrant status. For instance, the undocumented Latino students that Perez interviewed described various experiences of being told that their educational aspirations should be limited because of their legal status. Perez finds that one protective factor undocumented Latino students develop can be characterized as a “motivation to prove others wrong.” Rather than accept a limited educational future, undocumented Latino students draw on this motivation to continue to pursue their academic goals.

Perez argues that undocumented status is just one of a complex set of factors that influence the pathway to college for undocumented Latino students. While their legal status poses a challenge and a risk, undocumented Latino students who are able to develop a strong social support network of family, peers, and teachers are also more likely to develop a commitment to education, referred to as academic engagement. Perez finds that participation in activities like volunteerism, activism, and community service not only allows undocumented Latino students to give back to their communities, but may also provide them with a sense of empowerment. A strong social support network, the experience of growing up undocumented, civic engagement and other forms of extracurricular participation, and educational aspirations all work together to influence the pathway to college for undocumented Latino students. Jacinto, a college student, expresses the following:

I remember just trying to do the best. I love learning and I love school. In high school, I decided I wanted to do more for my education so I would study really hard and get good grades. I was on the honor roll for 4 years. I remember really wanting to go to college. I knew that if you were in clubs and you had good grades, then you had a higher chance of getting into college. So that's what I did. (p. 48)

The unique value of Americans by heart lies in its description of undocumented Latino students not only coping with but also exceeding the academic, social and legal limitations imparted by their status. We learn that personal characteristics, individual motivations, and institutional support are integral to undocumented Latino student success. A significant portion of the book details the personal and individual motivations of undocumented Latino students. However, Perez adds depth to his analysis by specifically examining the role that community colleges play in moving undocumented Latino students along the educational pipeline. Because of the financial constraints many undocumented Latino students face, community colleges are often the first step on the pathway to a four-year university. Perez highlights the important role that community colleges can play in the continued educational success of undocumented Latino students by emphasizing the significance of informed staff, caring faculty, academic support programs, and a welcoming campus climate. This analysis adds an important layer to the discussion about undocumented Latino student success because it moves the discussion beyond personal and individual motivation and addresses how schools as institutions can support undocumented Latino students.

Perez is a leading scholar in the growing field of research on undocumented Latino students. Perez’s first book We are American introduced researchers and educators to the educational experiences of undocumented Latino students. However, in Americans by Heart, Perez’s analysis of the experiences of undocumented Latino students is richer, and more theoretically grounded. Perez’s contribution to this growing field of research is to examine holistically the lives of undocumented Latino students from high school through graduation from college, and beyond. Perez details nearly every aspect of the undocumented Latino student experience including their academic and civic engagement as well as their family, peer, and school supports. This provides a much-needed perspective on the lives of undocumented Latino students across the educational continuum. It’s focus on the social psychological aspects of the undocumented Latino student experience is a nice complement to research about the socio-legal and immigrant incorporation experiences of this population and I highly recommend for both researchers and educators working with undocumented student populations.

References

**SHORT ESSAY**

*Reflections of Me: Divergent Educational Experiences*

**Gabriela Romero**  
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign

My first memory: The line of streetlights illuminated our journey from Morelia into San Ysidro. I pretended to be asleep and next to me my younger brother Niño was sleeping. We were in a car with a couple of strangers. I have no memory of my parents before being put into the car with the unknown faces. I also don’t recall being reunited with my parents after we had entered the U.S. I had fallen asleep and it wasn’t until my mother’s voice that we were awakened.

**Voice:** “While most immigrants enter the country with optimism and an energetic work ethic, many of their children are at risk of being marginalized and ‘locked out’ of opportunities for a better tomorrow. Why will many immigrant children graduate from Ivy League colleges while others will end up in federal penitentiaries?”

Elementary **School:** Mrs. Calderon thought the best of me. I was “one of the smart ones.” She comforted me when Juan called me four eyes when I wore my plastic, purple, glasses, which the school had paid for.

The following year, Niño was placed into Mrs. Calderon’s class. Years later, he told me that Mrs. Calderon always talked about how smart I was and how it made him feel, as if he had disappointed her.

**Me:** ¿Por qué dices eso?  
**Niño:** Porque… eres mas inteligente que yo.

**Voice:** “In schools, where students’ success hinges on their perceived intelligence, Latina/o students have been described variously over the years as ‘mentally retarded,’ as ‘linguistically handicapped,’ and, euphemistically, as ‘at-risk’”

Middle **School:** It was an awkward moment developing as an adolescent pre-teen. I felt that I never belonged. I had experienced bilingual education up until I entered Lincoln Middle School and my anxiety emerged.

Meanwhile, my brother, Niño was diagnosed and placed in Special Education for his dyslexia with no ESL classes.

**Voice:** “The dropout rates for English language learners are 15-20% higher than the overall rate for non-English language learners. This lack of academic success is also the cause for referrals of English language learners to special education.”

High **School:** Sometimes I would try to convince myself that I really had an illness, which exacerbated the anxiety I felt every moment in THOSE classes. They were the classes all the

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3 (Suarez-Orozco, C. & Suarez-Orozco, M. M., 2001, p. 3)  
4 (Bender, S., 2003, p. 105)  
5 http://www.misd.net/bilingual/ellsandspedcal.pdf
White kids took. They were not ESL classes. They weren’t AP courses, but college track nonetheless. Every day I went to THAT White, middle class high school, where even the two Black kids had white parents, I did not belong.

Niño was moved out of Special Education and placed in ESL classes and soon after dropped out and began to work as a laborer.

Voice: “Hispanic youth are almost four times more likely than White students and twice as likely as African American students to drop out of school”

Undergraduate School: I graduated high school with honors and went to a university in the Northwestern United States. I worked diligently on my studies. I worked for the Multicultural Center for four years and my last year I was co-coordinator. I had regained my self-confidence. I majored in Ethnic Studies and Spanish. I was exposed to my history, to truths and misinterpretations, to social theories and to social justice…and injustices. And Niño?

Voice: “While many immigrant children succeed, others struggle to survive”

Graduate School: I graduated from college with a double major and a minor—all with honors. I received fellowships as a master’s student. I continue to be a fellow as a PhD student. And Niño?

Voice: “What happens in schools today will to a large degree determine the future of all our children”

A letter to my brother:

I see you as a reflection of me, even as others including our father see us as polar opposites. He has placed us at two opposite ends of success and failure. However, it’s not only our father that has differentiated us. Ultimately, it is the US public school system that perpetuates the haves with the have not’s, even within the same family.

I remember the pictures of you in pee wee football and one with a saxophone. But, I can’t remember you actually playing either one.

We were not there for you.

You fixed my computer.

You fixed my car.

It pains me to see you suffer, to see you struggle. I don’t know how we lost sight of you. I was supposed to be the role model. I was supposed to guide you. Be there for you. Soy tu hermana mayor.

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7 (Suarez-Orozco, C. & Suarez-Orozco, M. M., 2001, p. 2)
8 (Suarez-Orozco, C. & Suarez-Orozco, M. M., 2001, p. 15)
Todos quisiéramos una escuela perfecta para nuestros hijos, donde hubiera maestros capacitados para cada necesidad de los niños, donde hubiera suficientes áreas verdes donde ellos pudieran jugar, donde cada niño sobresaliera en sus estudios, pero sobre todo, desearíamos que cada niño del mundo tuviera una oportunidad de estar en una escuela donde aprendieran las bases para sobresalir en la vida.

Y esto nos llevaría a un mundo mejor, ya que cada niño estaría preparado para enfrentar la vida de una manera digna.
Confusion is my Dress

Gabriela Rodríguez
California State University, Fresno

Que me internen, mama, yo ya no puedo y yo ya no quiero más seguir, que me internen ma

Escribe mija.

ESCRIBE!!!

Para que no se te rompa el Corazón.

Pedacitos, son pedacitos. Pero todavía existen. Si un día se derrotan o desuelven, como pápel en un vaso de agua, un día se colarán y volverán. I am ….. NOT… yes you are. I am not I am I

I think in English. I even count in English. I lose track when I try in Spanish. I think that even more interestingly I think in English and that must mean something, what would the thought process be like to think in Spanish?

Sincerely yours,

Preocupada, desesperada y intolerable, for I am a scholar, or at least I was trained, and I learned and thus want.
Undocumented Education

Heidi M. Coronado
Claremont Graduate University

Perdida, Herida
Crossing man-made borders

Triste, Desesperada
Feelings inside my heart

Cansada, Con fuerza
Mis ancestros me guían

Nameless, Invisible
Dicen que no existo

Persistent, Empowered
Estoy aquí en la lucha

Resilient, Limitless
Sigo mi camino

Rooted, Connected
Con mi alma y mi cultura

Educated, Powerful
Brindando esperanza a mi comunidad

Valiente, Una líder
Por los que vienen conmigo
And those who follow behind
AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES

Edelina Burciaga is a doctoral student in the Department of Sociology at the University of California, Irvine. Her research interests include educational inequality, immigration, social movements, and law. She is currently conducting a study about undocumented student activism and the DREAM movement.

Fatima Castañeda was born in Guadalajara, Jalisco, Mexico and raised in South East Los Angeles. She earned both her B.A. in Speech Communication and her Multiple Subject Teaching Credential from CSU, Long Beach and her Ed.D. from UCLA. She teaches courses in second-language acquisition and classroom management and also supervises elementary teacher candidates. Dr. C (as she is known to Oxy students) has a variety of scholarly interests, including diverse learners and parent education. Prior to coming to Oxy, Dr. C served as an elementary school teacher, literacy coach, and bilingual coordinator for the Los Angeles Unified School District.

Heidi M. Coronado is currently a Ph.D. Student at Claremont Graduate University. She holds a Bachelors degree in Cultural Psychology, a Masters of Arts in Educational Psychology with emphasis on multicultural education and diversity, a Masters of Science in Counseling, as well as a pupil personnel services credential, and a bilingual multiple subject teaching credential. She has played many roles in the educational system and has worked in various educational settings from kindergarten to the university level as a teacher, counselor, parent educator, college instructor, and community activist. Heidi’s work focuses on the areas of Latino immigrant and indigenous youth Ethnic Identity development and educational access. Other of her research interests include, Chicana epistemology, border studies, narrative research, and critical pedagogy.

Lisceth Cruz is currently a doctoral student in the School of Education at the University of California, Davis, with an emphasis in School Organization and Educational Policy. Her research interests include educational issues affecting disenfranchised, underserved and vulnerable student populations. She is also interested in issues affecting English Language Learners and education. In addition to her doctoral work, she is committed to increasing the number of underrepresented and underserved communities in graduate and professional school. To achieve this she facilitates a quarterly course demystifying the application process. Students finish the class with completed applications to the schools of their choice. She earned an M.A. in Mexican American Studies at San Jose State University.

Christian Faltis (Ph.D. Stanford University, 1983) is the Dolly and David Fiddyment Chair in Teacher Education and Professor of Language, Literacy and Culture in the School of Education at University of California, Davis. He is author and editor of 16 books, and more than 60 scholarly journal articles and book chapters on bilingual education and Latino students. His most recent book is Education, immigrant students, refugee students, and English learners, (2010, with Guadalupe Valdés). In 2001, he was recognized by AERA as a Distinguished Scholar of the Role and Status of Minorities in Education. Prior to coming to the University of California, he was on the faculties of education at Arizona State University and University of Nevada. He was a Fulbright Scholar in Honduras and Visiting Scholar at UC Berkeley, Graduate School of Education. Currently, he is Editor of Teacher Education Quarterly.

Rodolfo Jacobo is an assistant professor in the Multicultural Studies Department at Palomar Community College. He has taught Chicana/o Studies at the college level for over 10 years. His research interests and writings cover the areas of ethnically diverse student development, borderlands history, and immigrant communities and social justice. In 2009, he was the recipient of the California State Assembly Certificate of Recognition for Community Service.
Rosa D. Manzo grew up in Fresno County as an English Language Learner. Her educational experience led Rosa to initiate a mentoring program, the Westside Initiative for Leadership, in order to combat the lack of educational opportunities in rural communities. She obtained her B.A. in Psychology with a minor in Education Studies from the University of California, Los Angeles. Her research interest include rural education, Bilingual education; issues in education affecting English Learners, and Science education. Rosa is currently a doctoral student in the School of Education at the University of California, Davis.

Melissa Martínez is an assistant professor in Educational and Community Leadership in the Department of Counseling, Leadership, Adult Education, and School Psychology at Texas State University in San Marcos, Texas. Arianna Medina live in South Gate, CA.

Alberto M. Ochoa is professor emeritus in the Department of Policy Studies in Language and Cross Cultural Education in the College of Education at San Diego State University. Since 1975, he has worked with over sixty school districts in the areas of language policy and assessment, community development, school-community organizational development. His research interests include public equity, desegregation, language policy, critical pedagogy, student achievement, and immigrant parental leadership development.

Patricia Pérez earned her Ph.D. in 2007 from the UCLA Graduate School of Education and Information Studies. Her dissertation focused on the college choice process of Chicana and Chicano community college, transfer and university students in public postsecondary institutions in California. In 2010 she was selected for the CSUF Faculty Recognition award in Scholarly and Creative Activity. In 2011 she was awarded the CSUF College of Humanities and Social Sciences- Teacher Scholar Award in Sponsoring Student Research and Creative Activities. Dr. Pérez’ most recent publications include “The college choice process of Latina/o undocumented students: Implications for recruitment and retention” published in the Journal of College Admission and “Building a Latina/o student transfer culture: Best practices and outcomes in transfer to universities” (with M. Ceja) published in the Journal of Hispanic Higher Education. Born and raised in Santa Paula, California, Dr. Pérez is a first generation college student who received a B.A. in Chicana/o Studies from UCLA and an Ed.M. from Harvard University.

William Pérez is an associate professor of education at Claremont Graduate University. His research examines the social and psychological development of immigrant and Latino students. He brings a depth of research experience to bear on the complex problems of academic achievement and higher education access. His research has been funded by the Haynes Foundation and the Fletcher Jones Foundation.

Angélica Rodríguez is a doctoral candidate in the Education Policy & Planning Program in the College of Education at the University of Texas at Austin.

Gabriela Rodríguez is a MA candidate in the Department of Communication at California State University, Fresno where she also received a BA in Communication.

James L. Rodríguez is associate professor in the Department of Child and Adolescent Studies at California State University, Fullerton. His research is focused on the intersection of language, culture and learning within dynamic contexts, particularly among Latina/o children, adolescents, and families.

Jesús Rodríguez is a lecturer in the Department of Advanced Studies in Education and Counseling on the campus of California State University, Long Beach. His research interests include immigration, minority education and critical theory. He serves as a facilitator for the AB-540 Ally Training Project on the campus of California State University, Long Beach with the goals of training faculty and staff in creating a welcoming and supportive campus environment for undocumented immigrant students and in increasing their knowledge and effectiveness about the needs, concerns, and issues of undocumented immigrant students and their families.
Gabriela Romero is a doctoral student in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Her research interests include how women of color feminist theories inform identity, language and critical pedagogy in bilingual and multicultural education. She has been a research assistant on a five-year grant focused on improving bilingual and ESL education through pre-service and in-service teacher training.

Enrique Romo is a doctoral candidate in Higher Education Administration in the College of Education at the University of Texas at Austin.

Victor B. Saenz is an assistant professor in the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Texas at Austin. He is faculty associate with the Center for Mexican American Studies and a faculty fellow with the Division of Diversity & Community Engagement. He is also a faculty affiliate with the UCLA Higher Education Research Institute.

Adela de la Torre (Ph.D. University of California, Berkeley, 1982) is the principal investigator for the Addiction Research and Investigation for Science Educators Project. Her book manuscripts and book chapters focus on the narrative and cultural expressions that interpret and motivate health and educational behavior of Mexican origin people. Her NIH grants engage science teachers in the Central Valley and their low-performing, Mexican-origin students who are English Learners through pedagogical strategies that integrate language and culture in science education to improve student outcomes in the classroom. This university-school-based partnership has provided an important entry point for her research team to develop targeted school based strategies for local educational reform.
CALL FOR PAPERS

Association of Mexican American Educators (AMAE) Journal Special Issue


Guest Editors: Emma Fuentes, Patricia Sánchez, Pedro Noguera, and Antonia Darder

According to the US Census, Latinas/os are the fastest growing segment of the US population and account for more than half of the total population increase since 2000 (US Census, 2010). Within the US Latina/o population itself, now a full 40 percent are foreign-born. Communities and schools across the nation have undoubtedly experienced these changes in their local populations. In addition, the states that have historically had the highest number of Chicana/o and Latina/o residents—California, Texas, and Florida—continue to have the largest influx of Latina/o immigrants.

Demographic shifts can often bring attacks on immigrants; yet history tells us that communities need not move to have discrimination, alienation, and social violence brought upon them: the border crossed many Latinas/os in 1848—an event that continues to shape Brown relations in this country. This special issue aims to highlight the multiple ways in which Latino communities respond to and resist both historical legacies of hostility as well as current aggressive political, legal, and cultural assaults. Within this context, Latinas/os across the United States enact new forms of social and political agency and claim authority to assert their voices through organizing and knowledge sharing. We see this collective sense of strength and resilience in the actions of Latinas/os who are creating new spaces from which to enact change.

We expect this call for papers to continue to build collective knowledge and highlight the various ways Latinas/os are adapting to and surviving difficult times. We are particularly interested in manuscripts that address Latina/o social agency in all its forms. It is also our hope for this issue to provide a forum for scholarship that addresses the political urgency of the growing assault on the Latino community, as well as the spaces of hope and possibility present in their activism and resistance. We welcome manuscripts that offer theoretical perspectives; research findings; innovative methodologies; pedagogical reflections; and implications related to (but not limited to) the following areas:

- Student agency which addresses questions of motivation and resiliency;
- Teacher agency which explores how educators navigate obstacles and overcome barriers in their schools, districts, local or state contexts;
- Parental and community agency in support of children and schools and in overcoming racial discrimination and political oppression;
- Historical and contemporary contexts of Latina/o resistance and agency;
- A Chicana/o-centered or Muxerista perspective on social agency;
• The struggle in Arizona (and elsewhere) to combat restrictive and anti-immigrant measures such as SB 1070 and HB 2281;
• Youth coalitions related to the DREAM Act movement.

Submissions suitable for publication in this special issue include empirical papers, theoretical/conceptual papers, essays, book reviews, and poems. It is important to note that the special issue is interested in the broader Latina/o experience and not solely focused on the experiences of Mexican Americans (per the title of the journal).

The selection of manuscripts will be conducted as follows:

1. Manuscripts will be judged on strength and relevance to the theme of the special issue.

2. Manuscripts should not have been previously published in another journal, nor should they be under consideration by another journal at the time of submission.

3. Each manuscript will be subjected to a blind review by a panel of reviewers with expertise in the area reated by the manuscript. Those manuscripts recommended by the panel of experts will then be considered by the AMAE guest editors and editorial board, which will make the final selections.

Manuscripts should be submitted as follows:

1. Submit via email both a cover letter and copy of the manuscript in Microsoft Word to Emma Fuentes (ehfuentes@usfca.edu).

2. Cover letter should include name, title, short author bio, and institutional affiliation; indicate the type of manuscript submitted and the number of words, including references. Also, please indicate how your manuscript addresses the call for papers.

3. Manuscripts should be no longer than 4,500 words (including references). The standard format of the American Psychological Association (APA) should be followed. All illustrations, charts, and graphs should be included within the text. Manuscripts may also be submitted in Spanish.

Deadline for submissions is April 15, 2012. Please address questions to Emma Fuentes (ehfuentes@usfca.edu) and Patricia Sánchez (patricia.sanchez@utsa.edu). This special issue is due to be published in December 2012. Consequently, authors will be asked to address revisions to their manuscripts during the summer months of 2012.
2011 AMAE Journal Review Sheet

The following review sheet is to be used for the evaluation of manuscripts considered for the 2011 AMAE Journal. Please feel free to make embedded comments/suggestions within the article. The edited manuscript will be forwarded to the submitting author. The name of the reviewer/evaluator will remain anonymous to the submitting author.

Reviewer/Evaluator: ____________________________ Date: ____________________________

Email: ____________________________ Phone: ____________________________

Article Title:

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

The article addresses the 2011 Call for Papers including one or more aspects of the educational experiences of and opportunities for Latina/o immigrant students

The article is timely and relevant to current issues

The article is well focused, concise and has few or no deviations from topic.

The article is accessible and valuable to practitioners

The writing is clear, organized, meets APA style, and is of high quality

Overall Score on the Rubric: _____/25

Do you recommend inclusion of this article in 2011 AMAE journal?

- Yes, as submitted □
- Yes, but with minor revisions □
- Yes, but with significant revisions □
- No □

*Comments/ suggestions to improve the article (for the author):

*Comments/ suggestions about the article (for the guest editors) (these comments will not be shared with the author):
CALL FOR ASSOCIATE EDITORS (2)
Association of Mexican American Educators (AMAE) Journal

The Association of Mexican-American Educators (AMAE) Journal is seeking two associate editors to join the co-editors, Oscar Jimenez-Castellanos, Arizona State University and Antonio Camacho, AMAE President and LAUSD.

The AMAE Journal is a national refereed, peer-reviewed journal. Starting in 2012 the AMAE journal will be published biannually. It will publish one theme issue and one open issue per year. The AMAE Journal provides immediate open access to its content on the principle that making research freely available to the public supports a greater global exchange of knowledge. A distinguished editorial advisory board is established to provide counsel to the AMAE Journal editors. It is indexed in ERIC and EBSCO databases.

The Association of Mexican-American Educators Journal was developed with the expressed purpose of providing a forum for addressing research and academic issues of importance to the education of Mexican-American/Latino children and families to help inform researchers and academics in higher education. In addition, we hope to inform other stakeholders such as administrators, policy-makers and civic leaders. In this way, the AMAE Journal is organized and focused to make an immediate impact at different educational levels to inform different constituencies from academia to policy makers on the conditions of Mexican-American/Latino students and their families.

An ideal associate editor is well versed in salient issues related Latino education and successfully published in various national peer reviewed journals and experience reviewing journal manuscripts. It is important for this person to be organized, committed, task oriented and possess good communication skills. The associate editors are expected to work collaboratively with AMAE Inc., AMAE co-editors and AMAE advisory board to produce two journal issues per year. We are particularly interested in tenure-track assistant professors, and/or tenured associate professors.

The two associate editors will help oversee manuscript screening, review, editorial, and publication process of each journal issue as required by co-editors. They will participate in editorial board phone conference calls as needed.

If you are interested, please submit the following information to jimenezcastellanos@asu.edu by February 15th 2012.

1. Cover page
2. Submit a 1-2 page statement describing your qualifications and why you are interested in this position.
3. Full Curriculum Vitae

For more information visit www.amaejournal.wordpress.com <http://www.amaejournal.wordpress.com> or contact Oscar Jimenez-Castellanos at jimenezcastellanos@asu.edu

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APPLICATION TO JOIN AMAE

Association of Mexican American Educators, Inc.
634 South Spring Street, Suite 602 • Los Angeles, CA 90014
(310) 251-6306
www.amae.org

Local Chapter: (Check One)

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____ Fresno ______ Inland Empire (San Bernardino) ______ LA Harbor
____ Madera ______ Oxnard ______ Parlier
____ Pajaro Valley (Watsonville) ______ Porterville ______ San Fernando Valley
____ South Central LA ______ North Central Valley (Patterson) ______ Santa Maria
____ Santa Monica/W. Side LA ______ Visalia

I'm not sure. Place me.
I'm too far from any existing chapter. I'm interested in starting a chapter in my area. Call me

Date _______________ New Member ______ Renewal ______

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Dues cover a period of one year from the date of receipt. Local chapters have additional dues to support local activities (Check with the local leadership). For the moment, you may register with State AMAE, and your information will be forwarded to the AMAE Chapter closest to you.

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<th>Type of Membership</th>
<th>State Dues</th>
<th>Chapter Dues (if known)</th>
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<td>REGULAR: open to all certificated/Credentialed personnel (Teachers, Counselors, Principals, Vice- principals, Learning directors, etc.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>RETIRED: open to retired, &quot;regular&quot; AMAE members (See above).</td>
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<td>PARAPROFESSIONAL/ASSOCIATE: open to non-certificated (classified) personnel and Community people, not in education, supporting our goals.</td>
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<td>STUDENT: open to full time students in the field of education (18 yrs. +)</td>
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<td>INSTITUTIONAL: open to institutions (businesses, schools, school districts).</td>
<td>$500</td>
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Mail this form with your check or money order to the address listed above. Welcome to AMAE.
To expedite the registration process, you may register and pay online. Visit our web page: http://www.amae.org.

$5 of state dues shall be credited to AMAE-PAC unless you check no ______

AMAE is a 501c(3) organization
MISSION STATEMENT

The mission of the Association of Mexican American Educators, Inc. is to insure equal access to a quality education at all levels for the Mexican American/Latino students where cultural and linguistic diversity is recognized and respected. We advise state/local boards and legislators, administrators and faculty and work in partnership with the community and parents for the benefit of our students. We advocate the immediate recruitment, training, retention, support, and professional development of Mexican American/Latino educators and others committed to the education of our students.