

PATH TO COLLEGE: CRITICAL REFLECTIONS OF
FILIPINO AMERICAN STUDENTS

A Thesis

Presented to the faculty of the Department of
Graduate & Professional Studies in Education

California State University, Sacramento

Submitted in partial satisfaction of
the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

in

Education

(Higher Education Leadership)

by

Raul Senapilo Pasamonte

FALL
2015

© 2015

Raul Senapilo Pasamonte

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

PATH TO COLLEGE: CRITICAL REFLECTIONS OF
FILIPINO AMERICAN STUDENTS

A Thesis

by

Raul Senapilo Pasamonte

Approved by:

_____, Committee Chair
José Chávez, Ed.D.

_____, Second Reader
Geni Cowan, Ph.D.

Date

Student: Raul Senapilo Pasamonte

I certify that this student has met the requirements for format contained in the University format manual, and that this thesis is suitable for shelving in the Library and credit is to be awarded for the thesis.

_____, Department Chair
Susan Heredia, Ph.D.

Date

Graduate & Professional Studies in Education

Abstract
of
PATH TO COLLEGE: CRITICAL REFLECTIONS OF
FILIPINO-AMERICAN STUDENTS

by
Raul Senapilo Pasamonte

Statement of Problem

Filipino-Americans are the second largest group of the Asian American population as well as the second fastest growing minority group in the United States (Maramba, 2008). However, there are limited studies that have been focused on Filipino-American students' entry in higher education. This study focuses on understanding how families, school personnel, and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students' entry into postsecondary education. Particularly, this study will explore the following research questions:

- 1) What role do family members play in supporting Filipino-American students entry into higher education?
- 2) What roles do teachers and other school personnel play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?
- 3) What role do peers play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?

Sources of Data

This study shares the stories of seven first-generation Filipino-American college students who successfully gained admissions to Research University of Northern California. The data were based on the participants' responses from semi structured open-ended interview process. The study utilized triangulation to investigate and discover common themes about the role of family, school personnel, and peers in the educational success of first-generation Filipino-American students.

Conclusion Reached

Parents, peers, and school personnel played significant roles in the academic success of first-generation Filipino-American students that contributed to this study. Parents as well as immediate and extended families ingrained the aspiration to pursuit academic excellence through the achievement of higher education as way to honor the family and oneself. However, despite being supportive of the participants many parents, even though they hold college degrees from Philippines, are not familiar with the U.S. educational system. As a result, tension between the participant and their parents surfaced due to the misunderstanding of the participants' college and major choice. Despite this tension, the influence of peers and school personnel played a key role in the academic success of the participants in this study.

_____, Committee Chair
José Chávez, Ed.D.

Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my family – your love and unconditional support have made the completion of this thesis possible.

Ely – You are my inspiration to go above and beyond and achieve all that I can. Yes, we can now go to the park and watch your cartoons together!

Mayra – my love, your unwavering support and encouragement made this thesis possible. Without you, this thesis would never have been completed. I appreciate your support throughout all this process. Now, let's go plan our wedding!

Tatang and Ma – your sacrifices made it possible for me to live in the U.S. and take advantage of the opportunities that are available to me. The completion of this thesis is a symbol of your steadfast support and love you provide my siblings and I.

Kapatad Ku – thank you for all your support and the path you have paved for me. Without your example, support, and unconditional love, I would not be where I am today.

Bapang Nestor and Darang Helen – I could never thank you enough for treating me like your own kid. This is thesis dedicated to you for all the sacrificed and care you provided me.

Nieces and Nephews – I hope this thesis serves as motivation for you to pursue your dreams and aspirations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The following individuals have made the completion of this thesis possible:

Dr. Chávez and Dr. Cowan – thank you for providing advice, support, encouragement and most of all patience.

The seven students who participated in this study – thank you for sharing your inspiring stories with me. The best is yet to come for each one of you. I hope I did justice to your voices.

TRiO Quartet, SJ Crew, and other friends – thank you as you serve as my second family. Your support and encouragement pushed to complete this thesis.

UB/ETS Staff at UC Davis and other TRIO Colleagues – thank you for all that you do and your support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Dedication	vii
Acknowledgements.....	viii
List of Tables	xii
Chapter	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
Background.....	1
Statement of the Problem	4
Significance of the Study.....	5
Definition of Terms.....	6
Organization of the Remainder of the Study	6
2. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE	8
Introduction.....	8
Critical Race Theory	9
Filipino History.....	13
Filipino Immigration and Experience in the United States.....	19
Filipino-American Family Structure and Values.....	25
Filipino-American Experiences in Higher Education.....	29
External Factors Affecting Filipino-American Students Academic Success ..34	
Rationale for the Study	36

Summary	36
3. METHODOLOGY	38
Introduction	38
Setting of the Study.....	39
Research Design.....	40
Population and Sample	40
Design of the Study.....	43
Data Collection Procedures.....	45
Instrumentation	46
Data Analysis Procedures	47
Limitations of the Study.....	48
Summary	49
4. DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS	50
Introduction.....	50
Presentation of the Data	50
Findings and Interpretation of the Data	54
Summary	63
5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	66
Summary.....	66
Conclusions.....	67
Recommendations.....	70

Recommendations for Further Study	72
Appendix A. Initial Contact for Recruiting Participants of the Study	75
Appendix B. Letter of Consent	76
Appendix C. Interview Questions.....	77
References.....	78

LIST OF TABLES

Tables		Page
1.	Filipino-American Key Facts and Figures	29
2.	RUNC Undergraduate Ethnicity/Race and Demographics.....	39
3.	Demographic Information for Research Participants	41

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2010), 56.4% of Asian Americans between the ages of 25-29 received a Bachelor's degree in 2009 compared to 37.2% of Whites, 18.9% of Blacks, and 12.2% of Hispanics. The same data also shows that 21.1% of Asian Americans in the same age group earn a Master's degree compared to 8.9% of Whites, 4.2% of Blacks and 1.9% of Hispanics. The figures show that Asian Americans are highly successful in attaining higher education relative to their non-white counterparts. For this reason, Asian Americans are not often the subjects of research in higher education as they are deemed to be model minorities (Museus & Kiang, 2009).

However, disaggregated data paints a different picture of the Asian Americans. The data shows that there are subgroups, within the Asian American ethnic population, that struggle to receive higher education (Yeh, 2004). For example, in California only 9-10% of Hmong, Cambodians and Laotians earn a bachelor's degree. In contrast, 30%, 34% and 38% of Chinese, Japanese and Koreans respectively earn bachelor's degrees. The data illustrates that disparities of higher education exists within the Asian Americans (Chang, et al., 2010). Museus and Kiang (2009) argued that aggregated data of Asian Americans has led to the invisibility of certain subgroups as research subjects in higher

education, which has led to a lack of understanding of these subgroups and continued the stereotype of being model minorities.

The consequences of wrongfully labeling Asian American subgroups as model minorities extend beyond education. Suzuki (2002) argued that there are negative consequences of Asian Americans being stereotyped as model minorities. Suzuki mentioned that individuals who oppose equal opportunity policies and programs have used Asian Americans as examples of meritocracy to disperse the idea of educational inequalities of minorities. Therefore, it is imperative to understand all Asian American subgroups in order for educational leaders to combat such stereotypes especially as the population of Asian Americans is growing.

With such rapid population growth, it is important for educational leaders to understand that Asian Americans are not a monolithic group, but rather a diverse group comprised of many languages, experiences, and challenges (Buenavista, 2009).

According to the White House Initiative on Asian American and Pacific Islanders (U. S. Department of Education, 2009), there are roughly 16.6 million Asian American/Pacific Islanders living in the United States, which constitutes approximately 5.4% of the United States' population. The same report projected that Asian Americans/Pacific Islanders will make up 9.7% of the United States' population, totaling over 40 million by 2050. A subgroup that adds to the diversity of Asian American/Pacific Islander population is Filipino/Filipino-Americans.

Filipino-Americans are the second largest group of the Asian American population as well as the second fastest-growing minority group in the United States

(Maramba, 2008). The White House Initiative on Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders reported that there are 3.09 million Filipino-Americans residing in the United States. Filipino-Americans are scattered in many different states; however, most have settled on the West Coast – specifically California (Bankston III, 2006). Although the Filipino-American population continues to grow, there is limited knowledge of this group and they are often overlooked as research subjects in higher education (Espiritu & Wolf, 2001). With such a large population, it is important to focus on the educational attainment of Filipino-Americans to sustain the economic growth of the state and the country. As Mortensen (2009) mentioned, people who have a higher education have higher yearly incomes, which puts them in higher tax brackets. Therefore, it is important to support Filipino-Americans in their pursuit of higher education and this can be achieved by understanding their educational experiences.

The National Federation of Filipino-American Associations (2008) reported that Filipino-American K-12 students have high push-out rates. Push-out are factors within the schools, such as suspension, expulsion, or other disciplinary measures, might serve to push students out of school. Furthermore, Filipino-Americans are less likely to attend and remain in postsecondary education (Fuligni & Witcow, 2004), and if they do enroll in postsecondary institutions, they are more likely registered at less selective institutions (Teranishi, Ceja, Antonio, Allen, & McDonough, 2004). For the aforementioned reasons, understanding the barriers as well as the factors that lead to entry of Filipino-Americans to postsecondary education is critical.

According to a statewide report conducted by California Department of Education (2011), there are 159, 038 Filipino-American students enrolled in California's K-12 public schools. Focusing on the entry success of Filipino-American students into higher education can lead to practical strategies for improving educational achievement of Filipino-Americans and postsecondary educational opportunities.

Statement of the Problem

Asian Americans are rarely the focus of research in higher education, due to the overall success of the group and being stereotyped as members of a model minority. Even more rare are studies that have focused on Filipino-American students' entry in higher education. As the second-largest growing minority group in the United States, the educational attainment of Filipino-Americans is important in supporting the economic strength of both United States and California.

The study will focus on understanding how families, school personnel, and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students' entry into postsecondary education specifically at Research University of Northern California (RUCN). The aim of the study is to address the following research questions:

- 1) What role do family members play in supporting Filipino-American students entry into higher education?
- 2) What roles do teachers and other school personnel play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?

- 3) What role do peers play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?

Significance of the Study

Filipino-Americans are the second-largest group within the Asian American minority and the second-largest growing group in the United States; yet there is limited knowledge about Filipino-Americans. The Filipino-American population continues to grow and this population is often overlooked as research subjects in higher education (Espiritu & Wolf, 2001). This study will add to the body of knowledge of Filipino-Americans specifically in the area of access into higher education. Furthermore, the findings of this study, as interpreted through the lens of Critical Race Theory, gives voice to the Filipino-Americans students and their families who are a marginalized group (Buenavista, 2010). As these narratives are brought to the forefront, the invisibility of Filipino-Americans under the Asian model minority myth umbrella will be debunked. This study reiterates the education disparities amongst subgroups in the Asian minority groups. In turn, highlighting the disparities among the Asian subgroup may potentially invite scholars to further advance the body of literature on educational attainment of Asian subgroups. Furthermore, this study can educate student affairs officials on current issues and the latest information related to Filipino-American students.

Definitions of Terms

The following terms will be used throughout this study. The terms and their definitions are provided to ensure a thorough understanding and assist through the study.

1.5-Generation

A group of individuals who, though their parents received college degrees in the Philippines, are unable to tap into their parents' cultural capital when accessing higher education in the United States.

Academic success

Completion of high school and enrollment into a four-year postsecondary institution.

First-generation college student

Students whose parents do not possess bachelor's degrees.

Filipino/Filipino-Americans

Students of Filipino ancestry living in United States.

Research University of Northern California (RUCN)

The pseudonym for the postsecondary institution attended by the participants of the study.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

This investigation is organized by chapter. The chapters included are: (1) Introduction; (2) Literature Review; (3) Methodology; (4) Analysis of research; and (5) Conclusion. The focus of chapter one is the introduction and background information on

the focus group of the study, Filipino-Americans. Included in this chapter are the statement of the problem, definition of terms, limitations and the significance of the study. Chapter two goes in depth into a literature review surrounding how families, school personnel and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students' entry into higher education. Also, in this is a comprehensive explanation of Critical Race Theory (CRT) and its application to the current study. Chapter three describes the methodology and data collection process for the study. Eight self-selected first-generation Filipino-American college students at Research University of Northern California (RUCN) were interviewed. The interviews were transcribed and coded for themes. Chapter four is an in-depth analysis of the participants' responses and their relation to literature presented in chapter two. Finally Chapter five contains the conclusions and recommendations for further study.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative study is to understand how families, school personnel, and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students' entry into postsecondary education. Specifically, this study will address the following research questions:

- 1) What role does family members play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?
- 2) What roles do teachers and other school personnel play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?
- 3) What role does peers play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?

The answers to these questions are complex and require a holistic understanding of the role of education for Filipino-American students. The review of related literature tries to find such an understanding. Critical Race Theory (CRT) (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001), specifically narrative counterstories, was chosen for the analysis of the data. The first part of this review will focus on CRT and its tenets. Secondly, the researcher focused on providing background knowledge of the research participants through a review of Filipino history, Filipino immigration and experience in the United States,

Filipino-American family structure and values, Filipino-American experiences in higher education, and external factors affecting Filipino-American students' academic success.

Critical Race Theory

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2010), 56.4% of Asian Americans between the ages of 25-29 received a Bachelor's degree in 2009, compared to 37.2% of Whites, 18.9% of Blacks, and 12.2% of Hispanics. The same data also shows that 21.1% of Asian Americans in the same age group earned Master's degrees, compared to 8.9% of Whites, 4.2% of Blacks and 1.9% of Hispanics. The figures illustrate that Asian Americans are highly successful in attaining higher education relative to their non-white counterparts. For this reason, Asian Americans are not often the subjects of research in higher education as they are deemed to be model minorities (Museus & Kang, 2009).

However, disaggregated data paints a different picture of the Asian American group. The data shows that there are subgroups, within the Asian American group, that struggle to receive higher education (Yeh, 2004). For example, in California only 9-10% of Hmong, Cambodians and Laotians earn Bachelor's degrees. In contrast, 30%, 34% and 38% of Chinese, Japanese and Koreans, respectively, earn Bachelor's degrees. The data illustrates that disparities in higher education exist within the Asian American group (Chang, et al., 2010). Museus and Kiang (2009) argued that aggregated data for Asian Americans has led to the invisibility of certain subgroups as research subjects in higher education, which has led to a lack of understanding of these subgroups and continued

the stereotype of being model minorities. Filipino-Americans are one of the subgroups within the Asian American ethnic group that are misunderstood as they are lumped into the stereotype of being model minorities.

Filipino-Americans are the second largest group of the Asian American population as well as the second fastest-growing minority group in the United States (Maramba, 2008). The White House Initiative on Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (U. S. Department of Education, 2009) reported that there were 3.09 million Filipino-Americans that resided in the United States. Although the Filipino-American population continues to grow, there is limited knowledge of this group and, as a result, they are overlooked as research subjects in higher education (Espiritu & Wolf, 2001). Therefore, it is imperative to look at the state of Filipino-Americans with a critical lens, particularly through the framework of Critical Race Theory (CRT) (Buena Vista, 2009).

The CRT framework started as a convergent movement of lawyers, activists, and scholars in the 1970's to oppose the impending rollback of the progressive Civil Rights Movement in the 1960's (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). According to Delgado and Stefancic, CRT is based on critical legal studies and radical feminism, and is focused on "studying and transforming the relationship among race, racism, and power" (p. 2). Furthermore, Delgado and Stefancic mentioned that CRT "considers many of the same issues that conventional civil rights and ethnics studies discourses take up, but places them in a broader perspective that includes economics, history, context, group- and self-interest, and even feelings, and the unconscious" (p. 3).

Delgado and Stefancic (2001) stated that Derrick Bell is credited as one of the first scholars to advance the CRT framework. They also identified Alan Freeman, Kimberle Crenshaw, Angela Harris, Mari Matsuda, and Patricia Williams as leading scholars of CRT. Although this theory continues to grow in many fields of study and creates spinoffs, such as Asian Critical Theory (Taylor, 2009), CRT's core tenets have stayed intact. Taylor (2009) simplified the tenets of CRT as he described the first tenet, "racism is a normal facet of daily life in U.S. society" (p. 4). Taylor (2009) further described the second tenet which is interest convergence. He described interest convergence as White majorities accepting advances made by minorities only if it benefits the White majority. The next CRT tenet, which is historical context, Taylor (2009) argued, requires the recognition that there are inequities and racism that are deeply rooted in the foundation of the country. CRT asserts that historical context must be taken into account when examining current educational issues and a broad range of systemic inequities. Narrative is the next CRT tenet Taylor (2009) described, in which he said that those who are oppressed use their voices to give a different worldview to those who are in the dominant positions. Furthermore, Taylor (2009) pointed out that CRT's narrative tenet "embraces this subjectivity of perspective and openly acknowledges that perceptions of truth, fairness, and justice reflect the mindset of the knower" (p. 8). "Narrative serves another important purpose: refuting the notions of merit and color blindness" (p. 8). Solorzano and Yosso (2009) argued that using CRT as a basis of study in education pushes the "... set of basic insights, perspectives, methods, and pedagogy that seeks to identify, analyze, and transform those structural and cultural aspects of

education that maintain subordinate and dominant racial positions in and out of the classroom” (p. 132).

CRT emphasizes that racism is deeply rooted in the history of the United States. Therefore, CRT underscores the importance of grasping historical context to challenge the “master narrative” that is pushed by the dominant group. CRT practitioners contend that the dominant group in American society controls the dialogue about race and usually do not understand the plights of minorities in the United States. To change the master narrative and challenge the status quo, CRT theorists give emphasis to the use of narratives or counterstories. The use of narrative empowers the underprivileged to tell their lived experiences and worldviews to challenge and to transform the institutionalized racism that exist in society (Taylor, 2009; Solorzano & Yosso, 2009). The CRT tenet that underlies the purpose of this investigation is the voice of color, because according to Delgado and Stefancic (2001):

A final element concerns the notion of a unique voice of color. Coexisting in somewhat uneasy tension with anti-essentialism, the voice of color thesis holds that because of their different histories and experiences with oppressions, Black, Indian, Asian, Latino/a writers and thinkers may be able to communicate to their white counterparts matters that the whites are unlikely to know. (p. 9)

One of the voices in the American society that has been overlooked is that of Asian Americans. Teranishi (2002), Buenavista (2010), and Buenavista, Jayakumar, and Misa-Escalante (2009) utilized CRT in their studies of Asian Americans, particularly Filipino-Americans, to offer their narratives in the field of education. These authors

contended that Asian American voices have been silent in the educational studies because of the model minority myth. The model minority myth assumes that Asians Americans are successful because of their high representation in higher education. However, Buenavista et al. (2010) argued that because of the model minority myth, “important issues facing Asian Americans have been obscured in education research and policy” (p. 7). Therefore, using CRT challenges that Asian Americans are just one monolithic group and allows students to tell their own narratives, especially Filipino-American students.

Therefore, a holistic literature review of Filipino-American experiences is imperative to this study in order to understand how families, school personnel, and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students’ entry into postsecondary. As CRT asserts in one of tenets, historical context must be taken into consideration in order to challenge the master narrative. Therefore, the researcher reviewed literature of Filipino history, Filipino immigration and experience in the United States, Filipino-American family structures and values, Filipino-American experiences in higher education and external factors affecting Filipino-American students’ academic success.

Filipino History

The Republic of the Philippines is located in Southeast Asia and is made up of 7,107 islands that are grouped into 3 main islands – Luzon, Visayas, and Mindanao. The Philippine archipelago has one of the most diverse populations in Asia (Posadas, 1999). The first inhabitants of the islands are believed to be Aetas, or Igorots, who are still living in secluded areas of the archipelago (Osbalbo, 2011; Posadas, 1999). Many believe that

Filipino ancestry includes a combination of Malay, Indonesian, Chinese, and Arab, along with Polynesian influences (Osalbo, 2011; Posadas, 1999). Some Filipinos also trace their ancestry with Spaniards who conquered and ruled the islands for over 300 years, while other Filipinos trace their ancestry with Americans who colonized the islands after the Spanish-American War (Posadas, 1999).

Along with the diverse ancestry of Filipinos, language is another facet that adds to the diversity of the Philippine Islands. There are 12 major languages and 80 different dialects that are spoken throughout the Philippines (Posadas, 1999). The 12 major languages are also used as names of regional native groups: Tagalog, Cebuano, Ilocano, Hiligaynon, Waray-Waray, Kapampangan, Bicol, Pangasinan, Kinaray-a, Maranao, Maguindanao, and Tausug (Osalbo, 2011). The various languages in the islands have made for complex relationships between regional groups which “has left Filipinos vulnerable to foreign colonists seeking to exploit regional divisions” (Bankston III, 2006, p. 180).

During the Pre-Hispanic era, Filipinos had an uncoordinated system of education throughout the islands (Republic of the Philippines Department of Education [DepEd], 2012). Parents and tribal house tutors served as teachers, focusing predominantly on vocational training (DepEd, 2012; IQAS, 2008). In addition, there were numerous Filipinos who could write and read in Baybayin, which is ancient Tagalog script (The Government of Alberta, International Qualifications Assessment Service [IQAS], 2008). Along with the Filipino educational methods, the Filipinos’ consciousness and identity were greatly impacted by foreign colonization of the Philippine archipelago.

Spanish Colonization

The Spaniards were the first foreigners to colonize the Philippine islands. In 1521, Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese explorer, led five Spanish ships in search of a shorter path to the Spice Islands but instead landed and “discovered” the Philippine archipelago (Osalbo, 2011; Posadas, 1999; Sterngrass, 2007). Magellan was killed in a clash with *datu* (native chief) Lapu-Lapu, who resisted the Spanish rulers (Posadas, 1999; Sterngrass, 2007). Spain did not have any colonial control of the Philippines Islands until 1565, when Miguel Lopez de Legaspi led a voyage back to the islands and claimed and named the archipelago Las Filipinas after King Phillip II (IQAS, 2008; Sterngrass 2007). For over 300 years, the Spaniards ruled the Philippine Islands and imposed the Spanish lifestyle in lieu of indigenous traditions (Osalbo, 2011).

Religion is one of the conversions that most Filipinos made during the Spanish colonization. The Spaniards converted Filipinos to Catholicism and it “came to play a central role in Philippine social and political life” (Bankston III, 2006, p. 180). According to Bautista (1998) and Nadal (2009), Catholicism has such a deep-rooted influence that still today over 80% of the population practices the religion in the Philippines (as cited in Osalbo, 2011). Along with the master-servant relationship, religion became the focal point of education.

During the Spanish rule, the early Filipino educational methods of vocational training were replaced by religion-oriented education (DeptEd, 2012; Frank, 2006; IQAS, 2008). The missionaries became teachers and taught religious-based classes along with math, Spanish History and Geography, and Spanish Language (DeptEd, 2012; IQAS,

2008). However, the missionaries provided insufficient education and very few Filipinos had access to the education provided by the missionaries (DeptEd, 2012). As a result of unfair treatment by the Spanish colonizers, Filipinos took arms against the Spaniards during the 19th century (Bankston III, 2006; Frank, 2006; Sterngrass, 2007). The Filipino revolution against Spain reached its peak during the Spanish-American War at the end of the 19th century.

American Colonization

The Spanish-American War started in 1898 as the United States supported Cuba in their fight for freedom against Spain (Bankston III, 2006; Frank, 2006; Sterngrass, 2007). The United States sought the opportunity to extend its political and economic arms in Asia and sent a U.S. military squadron based out of China to attack Spanish troops in Manila (Bankston III, 2006). The Spaniards were surprised by the attack and were quickly defeated by the United States military. In order to take over the rest of the Islands, the United States promised freedom to the Filipinos if they fought on their side against the Spaniards; Filipinos jumped to this promise (Frank, 2006; Sterngrass, 2007). However, the promised of freedom never came as the United States and Spain made an agreement under the Treaty of Paris that left the Philippines under new foreign colonizers (Bankston III, 2006; Frank, 2006; Sterngrass, 2007). Under the treaty, the United States was able to purchase the Philippines, Guam, Puerto Rico, and Cuba for \$20 million dollars from Spain. The United States extended their imperial power over these countries.

Filipinos continued to struggle to live free in their own land as U.S. President William McKinley announced the permanent stay of the Americans in the island archipelago under the Benevolent Assimilation Proclamation (Bautista, 1998). The struggle for freedom for Filipinos led to the Philippine-American War in 1899 (Bautista, 1998; Sterngrass, 2007). The Philippine-American War resulted in more money spent and more casualties than the Spanish-American War (Sterngrass, 2007). According to Sterngrass (2007), there were 4,200 American soldiers died in the war; while Bankston III (2006) reported that approximately 200,000 – 400,000 Filipinos died fighting for freedom against the American imperialists. In the United States, the war was met with skepticism and criticism by influential Americans such as Mark Twain, Andrew Carnegie, Jane Adams, and former presidents Grover Cleveland and Benjamin Harrison (Bankston III, 2006; Sterngrass, 2007). After three years of war, the United States finally gained full control of the Philippine Islands in 1902, and started to reconstruct the archipelago based on American values and beliefs through the use of education.

After the war, the Americans established a free public education system, which was a way to “pacify the population and restore order,” as well as introduce Filipinos to American values and beliefs (IQAS, 2007, p. 4). The American soldiers and chaplains served as the first teachers and used curricula that were based on citizenship and patriotism to the United States. The curriculum included respecting the flag, singing the U.S. national anthem and “God Bless America,” and learning about some Filipino national heroes and American heroes, such as George Washington (Bautista, 1998; IQAS, 2007). “Thomasites,” who were American teachers, replaced the soldiers and chaplains

as more schools were established throughout the archipelago (Bautista, 1998; IQAS, 2007). English language became the primary language of instruction and imported books from the United States were used in the classrooms (Bautista, 1998). In addition to the establishment of primary and secondary schools, the Americans also founded the University of the Philippines – a postsecondary institution that was modeled after American universities (Bankston III, 2006). According to Bautista (1998), “education has been considered as America’s most important contribution to the Filipino civilization” (p. 80). The education system that the Americans established brought some opportunities as well as inequalities to Filipinos.

High-paying job opportunities in the government and private sectors were opened to Filipinos who learned English in the American-style educational system (IQAS, 2007). However, American companies still had power over the economy as raw materials from the island archipelago were marketed in the U.S. (Bankston III, 2006; Sterngrass, 2007). In addition, inequalities in land ownership and wealth were prevalent throughout the country. According to Bankston III (2006), the society of the Philippines reflected American supremacy and economic disparities during that time period.

The Americans continued their supremacy until the U.S. Congress passed the Tydings-McDuffie Act in 1934 (Bankston III, 2006; Bautista, 1998). The Philippines became a commonwealth of the United States with a promise of independence after ten years under the Tydings-McDuffie Act. However, the promise of independence was postponed as Japan invaded and occupied the Philippines in 1942 during World War II.

Although some Filipinos saw the Japanese as allies against American supremacy, most Filipinos fought on the side of the Americans (Bankston III, 2006).

After World War II, Filipinos who had fought for their freedom for hundreds of years against the Spaniards, Americans, and Japanese finally gained their independence from foreign rulers in 1946 (Bankston III, 2006; Bautista, 1998). However, American influence still continues in the areas of economics, politics, and social culture as military bases were established in the islands; English is still used for instruction in the educational system, and American pop culture is transferred through television and other media (Bankston III, 2006). The continued American influence in Filipino culture brings about mixed feelings for Filipinos, as some still remember being treated as second-class citizens, while others learn about being treated as second-class citizens in their own country. According to Bankston III (2006), Filipino-Americans share the same sentiment as Filipinos living in the Philippines as they have historically faced discrimination by other Americans.

Filipino Immigration and Experience in the United States

Early Filipinos in the United States

The first Filipinos who stepped foot on American soil were passengers aboard the Spanish galleon ships that traveled the trade routes between Philippines and Acapulco in Mexico (Osbaldo, 2011; Sterngrass, 2007; Strobel, 2001). These Spaniards called the Filipinos who worked the galleon trade as *Indios Luzones* or Luzon Indians as a way to differentiate them with the Indians of the Americas (Osbaldo, 2011, Strobel 2001). In

1587, the first Filipinos stepped foot on the shores of California's Morro Bay; they were ordered by Spaniards to survey the area (Bankston III, 2006; Bautista, 1998; Strobel 2001; Sterngrass, 2007). During the survey, the Filipinos came into contact with local Indians and a scuffle ensued, which killed one Filipino as the rest retreated back to the galleon ships (Bautista, 1998). Although the presence of Filipinos in the United States during the late 1500's was short-lived, Filipinos made United States more of a permanent home in the 1700's.

As a result of maltreatment by the Spaniards, many Filipino sailors, who were also known as 'Manilamen,' jumped ship as soon as they reached land and made their way from Acapulco to Louisiana in the 1700's (Bautista, 1998; Sterngrass, 2007; Strobel, 2001). In 1763, the Manilamen established fishing villages in the bayous outside of New Orleans (Bautista, 1998, Sterngrass, 2007, Strobel, 2001). According to Sterngrass (2007), these settlements prospered as they infused the Filipino practice of drying shrimp to be exported. Many of the Manilamen intermarried with French, Italian, and Spanish immigrants, African Americans, and Native Americans (Sterngrass, 2007; Strobel 2001). Over ten generations of Filipino Cajuns can trace their descendants to the Manilamen (Bautista, 1998, Sterngrass, 2007, Strobel, 2001). In the early twentieth century, over 2,000 people living in areas in and around New Orleans were of Filipino ancestry (Sterngrass, 2007). The early 1900s also ushered in a wave Filipino immigrants in the United States.

Pensionados

When the United States acquired the Philippines from Spain in the early 1900's, American authorities wanted to “win the support of Filipino elite, as well as teach American ideals to Filipinos” (Bankston III, 2006, p. 182). With this reasoning, the Pensionado Act was passed by the U.S. government in 1903 (Bankston III, 2006; Bautista, 1998; Frank, 2006; Sterngrass, 2007). The Pensionado Act provided pensions, or *pensionado*, for Filipino students to successfully attain postsecondary education in U.S. colleges and universities and return back to the Philippines to serve as political leaders (Bankston III, 2006; Bautista, 1998; Nadal, 2009; Sterngrass, 2007; Strobel, 2001). Many Pensionados, who were mostly Filipino men, attended and successfully attained college degrees from American postsecondary institutions such as Harvard, Stanford, Cornell, the University of California – Berkeley, and the University of Washington (Sterngrass, 2007). However, there were also numbers of Pensionados who fell short of completing their degrees due to culture shock and discrimination in American universities (Strobel, 2001). Instead of going back to the Philippines in shame for not finishing their education, these Pensionados ended up working in menial jobs in the United States (Nadal, 2009; Strobel 2001).

Sakadas, Manongs, and Alaskeros

The U.S. colonization of Philippines provided American companies a source of cheap laborers, which resulted in a large wave of Filipino immigration to United States from 1906 to 1934. Starting in 1906, the Hawaii Sugar Planters Association (HSPA),

looked to substitute the native Hawaiian workers who were dying from diseases (Sterngrass, 2007). It was easy for HSPA to recruit Filipinos to work in the sugarcane fields of Hawaii as they were considered American citizens (Bankston III, 2006; Bautista, 1998; Sterngrass, 2007). The Filipinos who worked in sugarcane and pineapple fields, were given the name *Sakadas*, or contract workers, and mostly consisted of men who had hoped to gain enough money to go back home or send money home to buy land (Frank, 2006; Sterngrass, 2007; Strobel, 2001). According to Bankston III (2006), by 1925, half of all sugarcane and pineapple plantation workers in Hawaii were *Sakadas*.

While the *Sakadas* worked in the sugarcane and pineapple plantations in Hawaii, Filipinos on the mainland worked in the agricultural fields of California and the canneries of Alaska (Bankston III, 2006; Nadal, 2009; Sterngrass, 2007; Strobel, 2001). The generation of Filipinos who worked in California and Alaska were called *Manongs* or ‘older brother’ in Ilocano, which is a dialect spoken in the Philippines. Just like the *Sakadas* in Hawaii, the *Manongs* were mostly men and lived in small ethnic communities (Nadal, 2009; Strobel, 2001). The *Manongs* took jobs that required backbreaking work, and usually included at least 10-hour workdays (Frank, 2006; Sterngrass, 2007). When not working in the fields of California or the canneries of Alaska, the *Manongs* were working as “janitors, valets, and dishwashers – and were often called ‘boys’: yardboys, bellboys, houseboys, and busboys” (Strobel, 2001, p. 23). Other Filipinos also found jobs with the U.S. Navy as mess stewards and others were employed with the Merchant Marines. There were numbers of Filipinos who immigrated and found employment on the West Coast, as Bankston III (2006) described; there was spike of Filipino population

in the West Coast from 5, 603 in 1920 to 45, 372 in 1930. However, Filipino immigration to the United States considerably decreased when the Tydings-McDuffie Act was enacted in 1934 (Bankston III, 2006). The Tydings-McDuffie Act stripped Filipino immigrant status from “nationals” to “aliens” and limited Filipino immigration to the U.S. to only 50 per year (Bankston III, 2006; Sterngrass, 2007; Strobel, 2001). It was not until after World War II that Filipino immigration to the United States increased again.

Immigration after WWII

During World War II, 7,000 Filipinos who were living on American soil volunteered to join the U.S. military and fight against Japan (Strobel, 2001). In 1946, after the war, the United States recognized the Philippines as an independent country.. However, the U. S. kept military bases in the island archipelago – Subic Naval Base and Clark Air Force Base (Bankston III, 2006). Many of the veterans of World War II and military men who were stationed on the American military bases married and had children with Filipinas (Bankston III, 2006; Sterngrass, 2001). These men were allowed to bring their wives and children when the War Bride Act was passed in 1946 (Bankston III, 2006; Frank, 2006, Sterngrass, 2007). Approximately half of the Filipino immigrants between 1945 and 1965 were war brides (Bankston III, 2006). In addition, the Filipino war veterans who had naturalized as U.S. citizens were also able to petition for their families from Philippines to come to the U.S. (Bankston III, 2006; Frank, 2006). Furthermore, “Filipino nurses were another part of the post-World War II immigration” due to the U.S. government enactment of the Exchange Visitor Program (Bankston III, 2006, p. 183). The Exchange Visitor Program was meant for foreign students to study in

the U.S. for two years and return to their homeland; however, many Filipina nurses stayed behind due to the U.S. workforce demand for nurses (Bankston III, 2006). While there were numerous Filipinos who immigrated to the U.S after World War II, a bigger wave of Filipino immigrants arrived after 1965.

Post-1965 Immigration

A high number of Filipino immigrants came to the United States after the Immigration and Nationality Act Amendments was enacted in 1965 (Bankston III, 2006). The new immigration regulation abolished the national origin immigration quota and emphasized family reunification as opposed to new immigrants. Filipino U.S. citizens and permanent residents were able to reunite with their families as a result of the Immigration and National Act Amendments (Bankston III, 2006). This wave of Filipino immigrants has continued to the present time and included many professionals such as engineers, doctors, nurses, lawyers, pharmacists, scientists, and teachers (Nadal, 2009; Sterngrass, 2007). The group of Filipino professionals who immigrated to the United States is also referred to as the “brain drain,” due to the number of Filipino professionals leaving Philippines all at once (Strobel, 2001). According to Nadal (2009), although most of these professionals found homes on the West Coast, they also found employment and settled in states such as New York, New Jersey, Illinois, Michigan, Florida, and Texas.

Sterngrass (2007) speculated, “the new wave of [Filipino] immigration shows no sign of slowing down” (p. 63). To make his point, Sterngrass (2007) cited a 50% increase of Filipinos in the United States, as the data shows that there were 913,000

Filipinos in 1990 and in 2000 there were 1.36 million. The latest U.S. census, conducted in 2010, shows that there are more than 3.4 million people in the U.S. that identify themselves as Filipinos or Filipino and another race, which shows a 38% increase from the 2000 census (National Federation of Filipino-American Associations, 2011; U.S. Census, 2012). There are also uncounted Filipinos in the United States due to undocumented immigrant status, known in the Filipino community as TNT, which stands for *tago nang tago* in Tagalog and loosely translated in English as ‘always hiding’ (Bankston III, 2006; Buenavista, 2010).

Filipinos have had a long immigrant history in the United States – the Manilamen settled in the bayous of Louisiana to escape from the hardships faced on Spanish galleon ships; the *pensionados* were sponsored to study at American postsecondary institutions in hopes of returning back to the island archipelago and teach American ideals to fellow Filipinos; the *Sakadas*, *Manongs*, and *Alaskeros* served as a cheap labor source for American corporations; and the Post-1965 immigrants consisted of families reuniting with relatives already living in the States and various professionals recruited to work in growing U.S. labor markets. To further understand Filipino-Americans’ experiences in the United States, their cultural beliefs and family roles need to be reviewed.

Filipino-American Family Structure and Values

To develop an understanding of the Filipino-Americans, it is essential to explore the values that the community preserves as a group. One of the main factors to look into when exploring Filipino culture is the influence and significance of the role of the family.

According to Nadal (2009), Filipino-American families' core values, traits, and customs include respect and loyalty as well as dependence and/or interdependence with the family. Nadal (2009) mentioned that Filipinos/Filipino-Americans are expected to place family first before other people, which he said is directly connected to the cultural values of *pakikisama* (social acceptance) and *utang ng loob* (debt of reciprocity). *Utang ng loob* refers to the value of gratitude and reciprocity of favor(s) to individual(s) who gives or have done good deeds for another individual (Nadal, 2009; Aure, 2005).

“Parents play a vital role in the development of the Filipino and Filipino-American individual” (Aure, 2005, p. 4). Bankston III (2006) stated that Filipino/Filipino-American individuals have an ultimate *utang ng loob* to their parents for giving them life and therefore, individuals are expected to give respect and show obedience to their parents at all times. Showing respect is also extended to immediate family members. Immediate family members include siblings, grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins who Nadal (2009) says may live in the same house and are not asked or persuaded to leave at anytime. In the Filipino/Filipino-American culture, the concept of extended family is valued and includes individuals who may not be blood relations (Nadal, 2009; Patacsil, 2007). The extended family may include family friends, colleagues, or former classmates and may be called *tito* (uncle), *tita* (aunt), *kuya* (big brother), *ate* (big sister), *pinsan* (cousin), *lolo* (grandfather), and *lola* (grandmother) (Nadal, 2009). Filipinos/Filipino-Americans expect the extended family to have a consultant role in any major decisions, which may include support for academic success (Nadal, 2009).

In order to maintain harmonious family relationships, Agbayani-Siewert (1994) states that there are certain values and cultural characteristics of Filipinos/Filipino-Americans utilize. In addition to *utang ng loob*, Agbayani-Siewert (1994) mentioned that Filipino/Filipino-American core values and cultural characteristics include *hiya* (shame), *amor propio* (self-esteem; pride), and *pakikisama* (social acceptance; conformity).

In Filipino/Filipino-American families and communities, *hiya* is utilized to insure social conformity (Nadal, 2009; Patacsil, 2007). Nadal (2009) defined *hiya* as:

... a loss of shame or sense of propriety; it is governed by the notion that the goal of the individual is to represent oneself or one's family in the most honorable way. The individual wants to avoid shame, by acting respectably in the community, by being successful and making one's family proud, and by avoiding anything that would bring embarrassment to the family. (p. 44)

Through Nadal's definition of *hiya*, individuals can avoid bringing *hiya* (shame) to the family and loss of *amor propio* (self-esteem and self-respect) by having academic success and earning a college education. *Pakikisama* is another social conformity that avoids *hiya* and maintain individuals' *amor propio* (Patacsil, 2007).

Pakikisama is loosely translated as social acceptance as Filipino/Filipino-American culture values the ability to get along with others (Agbayani-Siewert, 1994; Nadal, 2009; Patacsil, 2007). *Pakikisama* includes the concept of being accepted and celebrated socially, which can involve sacrificing one's desire or opinions in order to have a smooth interpersonal relationship with family or the community (Nadal, 2009; Patacsil, 2007).

Agbayani-Siewert (1994) provided an understanding of how Filipino/Filipino-American relationships are maintained through the cultural value concepts of *utang ng loob*, *hiya*, *amor propio*, and *pakikisama*. However, Strobel (2001) suggested that to understand the core values of Filipinos/Filipino-Americans, they must be seen under a decolonial, rather than colonial, mentality. “Colonial mentality is defined as a form of internalized oppression, in which the colonizer’s values and beliefs are accepted by the colonized as a belief and truth of his own” (David & Okazaki, 2006 as quoted in Nadal, 2009, p. 96). In the case of Filipinos, the colonizers were the Spaniards and Americans. Strobel (2001) argued *utang ng loob*, *hiya*, *amor propio*, and *pakikisama* concepts do not capture the core values of Filipinos/Filipino-Americans, as they are surface values and are based on Western ways of thinking. According to Strobel, *kapwa* (shared identity), *loob* (shared humanity), *damdam* (capacity to feel one another), and *paninindigan* (strength of conviction) are best suited to describe the core values of Filipinos/Filipino-Americans. *Kapwa* refers to the concept of having a shared identity (Nadal, 2009). Strobel (2001) described *kapwa* as having a “shared sense of inner self or ‘I am a part of you and you are a part of me’” (p. 59). *Kapwa* is related to the concept of *loob*, which is a concept of being familiar with oneself in relation to others (Strobel, 2001).

These cultural concepts are essential in understanding the family structure and values of Filipinos and Filipino-Americans. The role of family and cultural values play significant roles in the everyday experiences of Filipinos and Filipino-Americans, especially in the area of education.

Filipino-American Experiences in Higher Education

Filipino-Americans are the second largest group of the Asian American population as well as the second fastest growing minority group in the United States (Maramba, 2008). The White House Initiative on Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders reported that there are 2.66 million Filipino-Americans that reside in the United States (U. S. Department of Education, 2012). The same report showed that Filipino-Americans have higher rates of educational attainment as compared to the national average.

Table 1

Filipino-Americans Key Facts and Figures:

	Total U.S.	Filipino-Americans
Population	307 million	2.66 million
Percent live in poverty	13.2%	7.1%
Percent are unemployed	4.2%	5.3%
Percent haven't graduated high school	15%	7.6%
Percent only have a high school degree	28.5%	15.2%
Percent have some college education	28.8%	29.2%
Percent have a bachelor's degree	17.5%	39.2%
Percent have a graduate or professional degree	10.2%	8.8%

Given Filipino-Americans' high educational attainment, it is easy to assume that they are 'model' minorities. According to Nadal, Pituc, Johnston, and Esparrago (2010), the Filipino-American education attainment rates must be reexamined, as the data does

not show whether Filipino-Americans have earned their degrees in postsecondary institutions in the U.S. or in the Philippines. Nadal et al. (2010) contested that many Filipino-Americans immigrated to the U.S. with a college education already in hand. Furthermore, Nadal et al. pointed out that Filipino-American students face high drop-out rates in high school. Given this argument, it is easily observed that Filipino-American educational experiences are very complex and must be examined with holistic and critical lenses.

Buenavista et al. (2009) utilized CRT framework to provide a deeper understanding of Filipino-American college student experiences. In their article, Buenavista et al. reviewed some of the tenets of CRT, which include: intersectionality of race and racism, challenge to dominate ideology, commitment to social justice, centrality of experiential knowledge, and interdisciplinary perspective. The authors contend that using the tenets of CRT will bring to light the true experiences of Asian Americans in education and debunk the model minority myth, especially the educational experiences of Filipino-Americans.

Buenavista et al. (2009) made the case that CRT allows the voices of Filipino-Americans to be heard while taking “consideration of the social, political, and historical role that education has played in the contemporary experiences” of these students “within the discussions of college access and success” (Buenavista et al., 2009, p. 74). As such, Buenavista et al. touched upon the state of second-generation Filipino-Americans’ educational experiences and cited a study done by Buenavista (2009) which contested that second-generation Filipino-Americans should be considered as 1.5-generation. In

her study, Buenavista interviewed Filipino-American students to gather information regarding admissions and persistence in a selective postsecondary institution. Buenavista utilized CRT in her study and concluded that “Filipino-American educational experiences were similar to the experiences of underrepresented students of color, although Filipinos were considered liminal students of color” (Buenavista, 2009, p. 74). Buenavista describes being liminal as being in two worlds of vagueness. Buenavista (2009) revealed that Filipino-Americans students’ educational experiences are driven by their parents’ educational backgrounds, as many of them received college degrees in the Philippines, which may be equivalent to vocational studies in the United States. As such, Filipino-American parents are not familiar with the American educational system and are unable to guide their second-generation Filipino-American children in accessing postsecondary education. Therefore, the second-generation Filipino-American children are not able to tap into their parents’ educational backgrounds. As a result, Buenavista introduced the idea of having second generation of Filipino-Americans considered as the 1.5-generation. To have a deeper understanding in considering Filipino-American students as 1.5-generation college students and the educational experiences of Filipino-Americans, Buenavista et al. (2009) took into consideration their social and historical experiences.

Buenavista et al. argued “Pilipino American students’ experiences in higher education have been shaped by a unique history often excluded from higher education research and discourse” (2009, p. 74). Therefore, U.S. and Philippine historical colonial and current neocolonial relations must be taken into consideration when discussing Filipino-American educational experiences. Buenavista et al. (2009) stated that such

sociohistorical background lead Filipino-Americans to be in a state of liminality – being in two positions of vagueness. Hence, highlighting the issue of “being a second-generation college student, but not having the benefits of parents who understand how to navigate the U.S. educational system” (p. 75). When the Philippines gained independence from U.S. rule, the country moved from being a state of liminality to a state of invisibility as they became racialized as Asians, masking the U.S. and Filipino colonial history. Buenavista et al. (2009) made the case that categorizing Filipino-Americans as Asians has led to the myth that they are model minorities, which disguises their distinct stories and experiences in accessing and succeeding in postsecondary education. They also contended that because Filipino-Americans are labeled as model minorities, they are left out of institutional support for access and retention even though they face similar challenges as other underrepresented students of color.

In her article, Buenavista (2010) further examined factors that affect Filipino-American students’ college choices. Buenavista argued that regardless of generations, Filipino-American students face language barriers in school because of their parents’ immigrant backgrounds. Buenavista stated that many Filipino-American students speak a Filipino language at home and, as a result, have difficulty with English comprehension. Filipino-American students’ language barrier was a result of their parents’ immigrant backgrounds. It was exacerbated by the limited number of teachers qualified to work with students of Filipino-American background.

Buenavista (2010) mentioned that another factor Filipino-American students face in attaining higher education is socioeconomic status, which was a result of their parents’

immigration. Buenavista said that “although more than one third of Filipino adults have earned a bachelor’s degree outside of the United States, few are able to find employment that reflects their training” (p. 120). Therefore, to make ends meet, Filipino parents came up with strategies that affect their children’s education. According to Buenavista (2010), one of these strategies was consolidating of families – where a household includes members other than immediate family. However, there were some unintended consequences for Filipino-American students that came along with consolidation of families, including “stress associated with a lack of time and ability to focus on schoolwork at home due to overcrowded household, increased family obligations, and/or conflict arising among and between family members” (Buenavista, 2010, p. 120). Given that Filipino-American students are not able to take advantage of their parents’ educational background, language barriers, and socioeconomic challenges, it can be assumed that Filipino-American students’ access to higher education can be complex.

Through the framework of CRT, researchers revealed the complexity of Filipino-Americans’ experiences in higher education. These complexities included sociohistorical experiences of Filipino-Americans such as colonial/neocolonial relationship between U.S. and Philippines. Furthermore, through CRT, researchers found that Filipino-Americans may face invisibility in higher education due to the fact that they were racialized as Asians and, as such, are prejudged as model minorities. In addition, researchers argued that Filipino-American educational successes are also affected by their parents’ educational backgrounds. Socioeconomic background was also a challenge Filipino-Americans face in accessing higher education. Despite these numerous factors,

there are other factors that may affect Filipino-Americans' academic success, which includes peers and school personnel.

External Factors Affecting Filipino-American Students Academic Success

Other support systems that may be available to students that may influence their decision to go to college are those of school personnel and peers.

Role of School Personnel

There are some studies that have shown connection between teachers and students can affect students' success and other educational outcomes. According to Bell, Rowan-Kenyon, and Perna (2009), other than parents, 11th and 12th graders usually get their college information from teachers and counselors. Additionally, Choy, Horn, Nuñez, and Chen (2000) showed that students who received help from teachers or other school personnel with filling out college applications or preparing for college entrance exams were more likely to go to college than those who did not receive any assistance. Moreover, according to Yeung and McInterney (1999), students who received assistance from teachers were more likely to be academically successful; teachers had great influence on academic achievement, self-esteem, and interest in school work. Nettles, Muchera, and Jones (2000) stated that teachers who are supportive of their students facilitate great student resiliency, filling a role as a social resource.

Role of Peers

According to Choy's (2002) results from a 10-year longitudinal study on student access to, and persistence in, postsecondary education, students who came from a disadvantaged background were more likely to submit college applications if their peers were also planning to attend college. Para (2008) argued that individuals could usually find support from their families; however, when familial support was not as strong, peer support significantly came into play. Para added that an individual usually adopted their friends' behaviors, personalities, and attitudes and this could also affect feelings about school. The most valued friendship exhibits "loyalty, trust, self-disclosure, and intimacy" and these qualities amongst friends could be correlated with higher participation in school (p. 4).

A study conducted by Choy, Horn, Nuñez, and Chen (2000) showed that friends were the strongest predictor of college enrollment. Choy et al (2000) stated "If most or all of their friends had college plans, the odds of moderate- to high-risk students enrolling in college were four times higher than if none of their friends planned to go to college" (p. 53). Furthermore, Sokatch's (2006) research found that "friends' plans, are particularly powerful and robust predictors of 4-year enrollment for low-income, urban and minority high school graduates" (p. 142). CRT allows one to assume that Filipino-Americans face similar barriers as low-income, urban minority youths when it comes to accessing college; then, they can be assumed to fit the subjects that Sokatch studied. As such, Filipino-Americans can fit into a group that is very much influenced by peers.

Rationale for the Study

The college admissions process is competitive, stressful, financially taxing and requires the guidance of knowledgeable individuals. In mainstream white America, parents are the primary guides when navigating this course and teachers, peers and other factors are secondary. For the Filipino-American students participating in this study, it can be argued that they are in the state of liminality whereby they occupy two spaces. The first space is as a child of Filipino immigrants that must fill full cultural norms, while honoring the sanctity of family. The second space is as first-generation college student who cannot access the educational capital of the parent due to the incongruities of the education systems. Despite the challenge, each year Filipino-American students enter four year universities. The participants of the study offer a critical reflection of their plight acquire higher education. Their stories can provide information that parents, educators, researchers, and policy makers can utilize to better understand the plights of Filipino-American students and to improve achievement of Filipino-American students. This study focuses on understanding how families, school personnel, and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students' entry into postsecondary education.

Summary

Filipino-Americans are the second largest group within the Asian American minority group as well as the second largest-growing group behind Latinos, yet there is limited knowledge about this group. The limited knowledge about Filipino-American

students may be due in part to the fact that they are racialized as Asians, and therefore are deemed to be a model minority. Furthermore, through the lens of CRT, Filipino-Americans are in a state of liminality, living in two spheres without their control, because of their past colonial and current neocolonial relations with the United States.

Critical Race Theory provided a clear and in-depth lens in examining Filipino-Americans' educational experiences (Buenavista et al, 2009). Filipino-Americans are no strangers in facing barriers in their educational experiences. These barriers can be derived from their families' immigrant backgrounds. Many Filipino-American parents have received their college degrees in Philippines before immigrating to the United States. However, these parents are not able to assist their children's pursuit of higher education since they are not familiar with the U.S. education system. Hence, second generation Filipino-Americans can be considered as 1.5-generation college students (Buenavista, 2007). The 1.5-generation students are faced with similar obstacles as those faced by at-risk students of color when it comes to education. However, because Filipino-Americans are stereotyped as model minorities they are not targeted for college access and retention programs as those of their counterparts who are at-risk.

As the second largest-growing minority group, the educational attainment of Filipino-Americans is important in supporting the nation's and the state's economic strength. The study is focused on understanding how families, school personnel, and peers have supported Filipino-American students' entry into postsecondary education.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The focus of this qualitative study is to understand how families, school personnel, and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students' entry into Research University of Northern California (RUNC). The researcher hopes that successful interventions, enrichment, and educational support programs can be created by understanding the roles of families, school personnel, and peers in supporting first-generation Filipino-American students. Additionally, the researcher aims to shed light on the experiences of first-generation Filipino-American students and highlight another Asian subgroup that debunks the model minority myth. This study explores the following research questions:

- 1) What role does family members play in supporting Filipino-American students entry into higher education?
- 2) What roles do teachers and other school personnel play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?
- 3) What role does peers play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?

In this chapter, setting, design of study, participants and data collection procedures and data analysis procedures will be discussed.

Setting of the Study

Research University of Northern California (RUNC) is a highly competitive research university; each year only the top 12% of California high school graduates is admitted. The average weighted grade point average of the incoming class for Fall 2012 was 4.1. Admission into RUNC illustrates success in high school and this success is even more impressive from those students who come from educationally and economically disadvantaged backgrounds.

RUNC is a part of a ten research-based campus system and its 5,000-acre campus is situated in a rural/agricultural region of Northern California. The campus' undergraduate enrollment is approximately 25,000 students who have access to over 100 fields of study. RUNC's most popular and impacted areas of study include: engineering, agriculture, and social, biological, and environmental sciences. Table 2 presents the Undergraduate Ethnicity/ Race Demographics.

Table 2

RUNC Undergraduate Ethnicity/Race Demographics

Race/Ethnicity (U.S Citizens and Immigrants)	Enrollment Percentage
African American/Black	2%
Asian/Pacific Islander	38%
Hispanic	16%
White	34%

Race/Ethnicity Unknown	4%
International	3%
Total RUNC Undergraduate Students	25,096

Although the Asian/Pacific Islander is the largest race/ethnicity group on campus at 38%, one must note that this group includes Chinese, East Indian, Japanese, Korean, Pacific Islander, Vietnamese, Filipino, and other Asian subgroups. Having many Asian subgroups in one category conceals the truth regarding equal access and opportunity. By combining the Asian ethnic groups in the one category, the narratives of the subgroups are silenced, tangled and misunderstood. Also, the various challenges of each subgroup cannot be differentiated and it may be assumed that all Asians in all subgroups face the same challenges. This is particularly true for Filipino-American students, who serve as the focus of this research.

Research Design

Population and Sample

The population for this study was first-generation Filipino-American students who are attending RUNC. There were 966 Filipinos/Filipino-Americans who were enrolled at RUNC during the fall quarter of 2011. Information about whether or not the students have parents who have attained at least a baccalaureate degree from an U.S. postsecondary institution is not collected by RUNC.

The criteria for participation in the study required that all participants: identify as Filipino or Filipino-American, be first-generation college students, specify that their parents did not possess a bachelor's degree from an American postsecondary institution and attend RUNC. The study called for equal representation of males and females..

The following table (Table 3) presents demographic information about the research participants that includes sex, home city, year in college (grade at RUNC), major, place of birth, and citizenship status. Four of the participants were born in California and three were born in the Philippines. The three participants who were born in the Philippines immigrated with their family to the United States in their early teenage years and one of them has an undocumented residency status. All the participants were first-generation college students. Participants were given pseudonyms in order to protect their identity.

Table 3

Demographic Information for Research Participants

Pseudo Name	Home City	Year in College	Major	Sex	Citizenship Status
Dakila	Pittsburgh	4	Community Regional Development	M	U.S. Born
Bayani	Los Angeles	3	Asian American Studies and Human Development	M	Naturalized Citizen
Datu	Concord	3	Psychology	M	Naturalized

					Citizen
Dalisay	Daily City	3	Sociology	F	U.S. Born
Bituin	Sacramento	1	Engineer	F	U.S. Born
Amihan	Concord	2	Health Science	F	U.S. Born
Diwata	Valencia	4	Biological Science	F	Undocumented Immigrant

In order for the researcher to recruit participants in the study the following steps took place:

1. Identified all Filipino-American undergraduate student organizations at RUNC.
2. Emailed all identified groups via list serves. The e-mail introduced the researcher, stated the purpose of the investigation and specified the requirements to participate. See Appendix A: Initial Contact Recruiting Participations of the Study for specifics.
3. Interested candidates contacted the researcher and an interviewed was scheduled to accommodate participants.

All interviews were arranged for the participants over a two-week period. Prior to starting the interview, the researcher and participant reviewed and signed the Letter of Consent. See the specifics of the Letter of Consent in Appendix B. Anticipating that

sensitive information might be disclosed, the interviews took place in a private conference room at RUNC.

The descriptive sampling strategy was utilized for this research and eight self-selected first-generation Filipino-American students attending RUNC were chosen to be part of the study, which included four females and four males. The sample was further reduced when one of the participants was not able to participate in the study due to scheduling conflicts. As a result, there were seven students participated in this research. Four of the participants were females and three were males. Although the sample size was small, it was representative of a variety of family structures, immigration status of participants, socioeconomic status and time the family and/or participants have been in the U.S. However, due to the small sample size the study is not representative of the all first-generation Filipino-American student experiences. The following section will describe the design and validity of the study.

Design of the Study

This qualitative study utilized a semi structured open-ended interview process that was structured to understand the experiences of first-generation Filipino-American students' admissions into Research University of Northern California. According to Johnson and Christensen (2014), some researchers consider qualitative studies as better than other research methods because of the quality of validity and trustworthiness of qualitative studies. The utilization of triangulation strengthens the validity of qualitative study, which makes the biggest difference in comparison to other research methods. Data, methods, investigator, and theory are usually used to search for convergence or

divergence of results (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). As such, this study utilized triangulation to investigate and discover commonalities among the role of family, school personnel, and peers in the educational success of first-generation Filipino-American students. The researcher crosschecked data, methodology, body of literature, and the researcher's notes, which included descriptions of participants' interest in the study and emotions provoked during the interview process. As result of the triangulation salient themes came up and converged to answer the research questions.

To further increase the validity of the study the researcher employed the strategy of reflexivity. "The key that is used to understand researcher bias is called reflexivity, which means that the researcher actively engages in critical self-reflection about his or her potential biases and predispositions" (Johnson & Christensen, 2014, p. 300). The researcher shared similar cultural and educational background with the participants. Thus, to avoid bias the researcher thought of and made note of any preconceive notions that may affect the study's research process and results. The researcher continually made an effort to self-reflect throughout the study to avoid any biases that may affect the results of this study.

Qualitative research aims to gain a deep understanding of the experiences and perspectives of the participants. The criteria for participation in the study required the all participants: identify as Filipino or Filipino-American, be first-generation college students and attend RUNC. Therefore, due to relative small purposive sampling of Filipino-American first-generation college students at RUNC, the experiences and

perspective that these participants shared in this study cannot be used to generalize the Filipino-American first-generation college students as a whole.

Data Collection Procedures

In accordance to California State University, Sacramento's Institutional review process, the researcher filled out and submitted all necessary forms; eventually the researcher was approved to begin the study. As previously mentioned under Population and Sample, the researcher took three steps to recruit study participants. The steps included: (1) identification of Filipino-American student organizations at RUNC; (2) emailing identified groups via list serves with an introduction of the study, the researcher and requirements to participate; and (3) provided interested participants with the contact information of the researcher to schedule and arrange for an interview.

Initially, eight Filipino-American students reached out to the researcher (4 males and 4 females). However, only seven interviews were conducted due to scheduling conflicts between one of the participants and researcher. The researcher took into account what the best location for the interview would be, and concluded that a private conference room at RUNC was best in the event sensitive information was disclosed during the interview. The researcher took the necessary steps to ensure that a private room was scheduled for each interview. Additionally, holding the interviews at RUNC reduced the chances of participants not showing up for their interview appointments.

Before the start of the interview, the researcher gathered all materials necessary to conduct the interview. The materials included: one consent form for each participant, a digital recorder, a copy of the interview questions and pen and paper to make notes and

keep track of follow up and clarification questions asked to the participants. The notes also included descriptions about the participant's interest in the study and the emotions provoked during the interview process.

Shortly after the interviews were concluded, the researcher transcribed and printed the responses to the interview questions for each participant. The researcher attached to each transcription the notes taken during the interview. The following section will look at the instrumentation utilized for the study.

Instrumentation

The interview questions served as the instrumentation by which the study's research questions will be answered. Recall that the focus of the study includes:

- 1) The role of family members in supporting college aspirations.
- 2) The role of school personnel in supporting college aspirations.
- 3) The role of peers in supporting college aspirations.
- 4) The role of other resources supporting college aspirations.

The researcher developed twelve interview questions based on the areas of the investigation mentioned above. The complete set of interview questions is found in Appendix C.

Upon further examination of the interview questions one can observe the way in which the interview questions addressed the focus of the study. For example: interview questions 1-3 address the start of the participants' interest in attaining postsecondary education with the hopes of determining the most influential factor among parents, school personnel, peers or other factors. Questions 4-5 focus on the role of the parents and other

family members in the participants' decision to go to college. Questions 6-10 seek to understand the factors outside of the family, specifically school personnel and peers who supported the participants' entry to post-secondary education. Lastly, the open-ended questions 11-12 were included to allow the participants an opportunity to share any thoughts or experiences not explored through the previous questions. The following section will discuss in depth the procedures of data analysis.

Data Analysis Procedures

The next portion of the methodology includes the data analysis procedures. Once interviews were transcribed the researcher took the following steps to analyze participants' responses.

- 1) Researcher did a cold read of all transcriptions to ensure all data was accounted for.
- 2) The researcher read and looked specifically for the ways in which family members play a supporting role in student's entry to higher education. These ways were color-coded.
- 3) Within the highlights the researcher found that all participants addressed family as a reason to go to college, a support and a challenge.
- 4) For each of the subjects in the study, the researcher noted points made for each of the three areas addressed.
- 5) Then the researcher compiled a comprehensive list of all the participants' responses and looked for themes.

6) The researcher repeated steps 2-5 three more times for the other focus areas.

The second time the focus was peers, followed by school personnel, and, lastly, other factors.

Presentation of the findings and an in-depth analysis will be addressed in Chapter 4 of this study.

Limitations of the Study

All studies have limitations and researchers must be upfront in recognizing these limitations and how these limitations may affect the findings of the study. The researcher of this study identified the following limitations.

First, the criteria for participation in the study required that all participants: identify as Filipino or Filipino-American, be first-generation college students and attend RUNC. Focusing on a reasonably small participant and institutional sample size of particular ethnicity and only one postsecondary institution can limit the ability to generalize the study.

Second, the qualitative stories of the participants were restricted to students at RUNC. Stories and perceptions of other first-generation Filipino-American students who attend different postsecondary institutions may differ from those who participated in this study.

Lastly, as a first-generation Filipino-American college graduate and a student affairs professional who has a passion for educational equity and access, the researcher started this study for both personal and professional reasons. As a college graduate, the

researcher witnessed his family reap the benefits of academic success. The researcher knows the value of education and believes that attainment of college education is possible despite the challenges that come with being an immigrant first-generation college student. As a student affairs professional for over 10 years, the researcher has a keen awareness of academic challenges and concerns of first-generation college students while finding their way through education to access higher education. This experience prompted the desire of the researcher to study the factors that contribute to the success of Filipino-American students and provided the framework for understanding and appreciation of this study.

Summary

In summary, this chapter explained in depth the methodology of the investigation. The setting of the investigation was at Research University of Northern California, a competitive research postsecondary school. All seven participants attended RUNC, identified as Filipino-American and were first-generation college students. This qualitative study utilized a semi structured open-ended interview process to understand the experiences of first-generation Filipino-American at RUNC. The study utilized triangulation to investigate and discover common themes about the role of family, school personnel, and peers in the educational success of first-generation Filipino-American students. Following the interview process, the researcher transcribed the interviews, coded the transcription for each participant, and synthesized themes touched upon by the participants of the study.

Chapter 4

DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative study is to understand how families, school personnel, and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students' entry into Research University of Northern California (RUNC). Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions:

- 1) What role do family members play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?
- 2) What roles do teachers and other school personnel play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?
- 3) What role do peers play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?

This chapter presents the results from the structured interview and concludes with a discussion of the findings.

Presentation of the Data

Data from the interview are presented in order of the research question. Within each question, the data is categorized by theme (if any), and quotes from participants accompany each section.

Role of Family Members

All of the research participants mentioned that family support, specifically support from parents, as an important factor to their academic success. The participants also mentioned that other family members – grandparents, cousins, siblings, and extended family – have played a key role in their academic success. The participants also mentioned that extended families, which included grandparents and cousins, played a strong role in supporting the participants' academic success.

The following responses suggest family expectation played a strong role in maintaining aspiration for a college education:

- I think it was always the atmosphere in which we were brought up. The family atmosphere was kind of the thing to do; you had to go to college... the next step after high school for everyone in my family. (Dakila)
- I feel like there was never really like an option to not to go to college. I feel like that um, coming to America, and even in the Philippines, I think that its always been engrained, at least in my family that we always, I had to go to college no matter what. (Bayani)
- I am the first child in my family and I am also the first grandchild from my mom side of the family. There is a lot of pressure on me to do well in school and to go to college to get a better life. (Dalisay)
- Ever since I was like a little girl my mom, not just my mom, my whole family kept saying to me ‘ ah you are going to go to college, a four year, you are

going to become a nurse, you are going to get a lot of money when your mom gets old, you are going to give her gambling money, you have to repay her back.’ That pushed me to go, and I just wanted to go to experience college and to get an education and job for my future. (Amihan)

Role of School Personnel

Six of the participants credit their teachers to having a strong role in support of their academic success and pursuit of a college degree. The participants shared the following excerpts as they described the role of their teachers played in their academic success.

- ... Well me and my friends would sit in their [teachers] classrooms even at lunch and just talked to them. They would tell us where they went to college. The work that they gave us, especially in our AP classes, it was preparing us for college... and the work that they did, really encourage us to work harder and prepare ourselves. (Dalisay)
- All of them, of course encouraged me to go to college, no matter what. It was the constant asking ‘where are you going to college? What are you going to do? What are you going to major in?’
- In my senior year, all my teachers were always asking us “since you guys are seniors what are you going to do after you graduate? Go to college!”

Academic Support Programs. Academic support programs came up as a resource that supported three of the participants, specifically Upward Bound, Early Academic Outreach Program, and Math Engineering Science Achievement, were

recognized as providing support for academic success. The participants mentioned that they received college information and encouragement. Bituin mentioned:

Doing Upward Bound really showed me that I didn't have to be that quiet person sitting in the back of the room, I made an impact in other peoples lives as well as mine.

While Dalisay said

EOAP that was a really good resource for me. I always did pretty well in school but I never knew what I wanted to do, because my career choices throughout my life have always changed... I am open to a lot thing [sic]. I have a lot of diverse interest. I never had a set plan in mind, but in my sophomore year in high school, I learned about EA0P, Early Academic Outreach Program... they talk to us about college and got us prepared for everything...From then on in my high school career I was focused on getting better grades and doing extra-curricular and getting into college.

Role of Peers

The role of peers surfaced as a factor to six of the participants' academic success. The responses by the participants of the study suggest that peers played supporting roles by helping to maintain academic aspirations, or attributed with changing life choices. The role of peers in support of participants' academic success is illustrated by the following responses:

- I think having those friends around me really kept me on track that like oh, I'm going to go to college because everybody else around me wanted to go to college. I'm glad I stuck around my friends. (Bayani)
- They were definitely a good like encouraging factor because they were all pretty set on going to college too. It helped that I was surrounded by people that wanted to go to higher education [sic]. (Diwata)
- We all really supported each other in going to school. Just having their support and having them encourage me to do these things to better myself. It has shaped me wanting to go to college more, and the fact that they would be there with me. (Dalisay)
- One of my friends, she actually made the biggest impact on me to do what I am doing now, I mean the major I am doing now because I really look up to her, she probably doesn't know it. (Bituin)

The data showed that family is the primary support system in supporting first-generation Filipino-American entry into postsecondary education despite intergenerational conflicts. The data also showed that school personnel, to a lesser degree than family, also influenced and supported the participants. Relative to family and school personnel, peers also showed influence and support. The findings and interpretation of the data will be discussed in depth in the following section.

Findings and Interpretation of the Data

The purpose of this qualitative ethnographic study was to understand how families, school personnel, and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students' entry into Research University of Northern California (RUNC). Data from the semi-structured open-ended interview process, taking consideration of the body of literature; the researcher's notes which described participants interest in the study and emotions noticed during the interview process were all considered to triangulate the findings. As a result of the triangulation, salient themes converged to provide answers to the research questions. The findings and interpretation of the data are discussed based on the salient themes in the following sections

Role of Family Members

All of the research participants mentioned that family support, specifically support from parents, as an important factor to their academic success. Diwata mentioned "My parents have always been encouraging us [Diwata and her siblings] to go to school all the time. I know that they've had my [sic] they have supported me the whole way, especially my mom." Amihan, who comes from a single parent household, spoke of her mother's support and mentioned "She was always supportive of me throughout high school and now. The only advice she would give me was to try your best and I know you will do better [sic]." These quotes by Diwata and Amihan are evidence of *utang ng loob* (debt of reciprocity) and *pakikisama* (social acceptance) (Nadal, 2009). Nadal (2009) mentioned that the underlying Filipino-American core value

is putting family first before other people which can be attested to the value of *pakikisama*, being socially accepted. *Utang ng loob* refers to the value of gratitude and reciprocity of favor(s) to individual(s) who gives or has done good deeds for another individual (Nadal, 2009; Aure, 2005). Therefore, the quotes provided by these two students reflect their *utang ng loob* to their parents who may have sacrificed to provide for them; their *utang ng loob* is fulfilled by following their parents' advice and attending college so that their *pakikisama*, or relationship, will be kept intact.

Additionally, these quotes by Diwita and Amihan are evidence of avoidance of *hiya* (Nadal, 2009; Patacsil, 2007). *Hiya* "is governed by the notion that the goal of the individual is to represent oneself or one's family in the most honorable way" (Nadal, 2009, p. 44). Through Nadal's definition of *hiya*, individuals can avoid bringing *hiya* (shame) to the family and loss of *amor propio* (self-esteem and self-respect) through academic success and entry in postsecondary education. This is reason enough for all the participants in the study to pursue postsecondary education and graduate from RUNC. Academic success for the participants is one of the most praiseworthy ways of honoring the family and oneself.

The participants also mentioned that other family members – grandparents, cousins, siblings, and extended family – have played a key role in their academic success. For example, while Dakila was technically the first in her immediate family to go to college, she was not the first in her extended family. She had an older *Pinsan* (cousin) on her mom's side of the family go to a four-year college. Therefore, he had paved the way and a four-year college was the next step for her.

Pinsan Philip, Bituin's older cousin also paved the way for her, through his participation in the Upward Bound Program and by recruiting her to join the program. According to Bituin, being part of the program was instrumental to entering college and is one of the benefits of having the involvement of extended family. Dakila and Bituin's examples further validate that for Filipino/Filipino-Americans, the extended family has a consultant role in any major decisions, which may include support for academic success (Nadal, 2009).

Family expectations. Despite participants mentioning that their parents were not knowledgeable about the American educational system and the college/financial aid application process, family expectation of attaining college education surfaced as an important factor for all the participants. Regardless of the participants' families' lack of familiarity with the college process, family members still continued to encourage the participants to go to college, which can be attested to the Filipino/Filipino-American value of *lakas ng loob*. *Lakas ng loob* is loosely translated as inner strength. Nadal (2009) described *lakas ng loob* as "being courageous in the midst of problems and uncertainties" and that by being resilient Filipinos can rise above any struggles (p. 44).

According to the participants of the study, Filipino family expectation was for them to pursue postsecondary education. In retrospect, obtaining higher education ensures that the individual will be financially independent and in due time will be able to care for his or her own family, including extended family. Postsecondary education equates to better opportunities and for all. If a young person hears the same message over and over again from various family members, then he/she believes that the act of

pursing higher education is for the betterment of the family. The literature by Strobel (2001) and Nadal (2009) identified this as *kapwa* (shared identity), *loob* (shared humanity), *damdam* (capacity to feel one another), and *paninindigan* (strength of conviction). These cultural concepts are essential in understanding the family structure and values of Filipinos and Filipino-American/Filipino-Americans and best explain the experiences the participants.

Intergenerational Conflict. According to the literature some of participants in the study belong to generation 1.5. In 2007, Buenavista coined the term ‘generation-1.5’; this generation is a group of individuals whose parents received higher education in the Philippines but are unable to use their parents’ educational backgrounds when seeking higher education. The most prevalent example is parents’ lack of knowledge about the American educational system and the college/financial aid application process. Aside from this lack of knowledge other disagreements between parents and 1.5-generation students arise such as: misunderstanding of various career choices, pathways and school choices. As Datu described, when considering schools:

For me to go anywhere far, [my dad] didn’t really want it. That is why my dad wanted me to stay here, even though he didn’t really admit it, it was like that. For my mom, it was kind of like ‘whatever you want to do you know you do’ but it really came down to what my dad had to say.

Datu’s parents wanted her to attend a selective university near Concord because it was less than an hour away from home, but she wanted to attend an equally competitive

school in Southern California. In the end, Datu elected to go to RUNC, a school that was outside the Bay Area, but closer than Southern California.

Unlike Datu, Dakila was able to attend any school of his choice regardless of the distance from home. This may be due in part to the fact that Dakila is male and Datus is female, and, as such, there are different familial expectations. The only criterion for him was that school needed to be a reputable research university. His plan was to attend a community college and then transfer to 4-year university he felt that his college entrance exam scores were too low for admission at a research institution. Dakila's family thought otherwise,

I think the biggest challenge was in my family pressuring to me not to go to community college, I can do better. They really encouraged me to go UC, or to an university four year as supposed to a community college.

In this example, what was the "right" choice for Dakila was not the "right" choice for the family mostly because of the family's bias on schools. Some of Dakila's older cousins had attended reputable research institutions, hence the family relegated these research institutions to a higher degree than community colleges. If his parents had a better understanding the American school system, perhaps they would have been more inclined to explore other options for Dakila without the stressors. Fortunately, he was able to gain admission to a research institution.

It can be stated that due to misunderstandings between the parents and generation-1.5, a lot of questioning takes place. A couple participants in the study questioned

cultural career stereotypes that Filipino youth only pursue careers in engineering and nursing. One such participant is Amihan; she explains:

.... but its just my mom side of the family, almost every single woman in the family is a nurse or engineer. It is very stereotypical, and yeah I wanted to be a nurse but I don't really feel like it is my calling. I keep telling her that and that I am interested in something else.

Amihan opted to not pursue nursing but rather majored in Health Science. Her major selection was disappointing for her mother and would she frequently question Amihan about the career opportunities in the field and if these opportunities were financially profitable. Amihan's message for other students is to: "Go for your calling and passion, not what you're 'suppose' to be."

Role of School Personnel

The six participants described their teachers' roles in their academic success happened outside of the traditional classroom setting. Diwata, an undocumented immigrant who started school in the U.S. during her junior year, particularly found the support of her teachers valuable in her academic success. In describing how teachers supported her, Diwata mentioned

... the two years that I had in high school were kind of adjustment periods and it was more me finding my place in school, meeting people and teachers like that. But, the teachers that I did meet like kind of recognized the kind of student that I was because I was trying to be like really like diligent and hardworking. And so when I asked for letters of recommendation, especially for the private school, like

they were willingly like giving it to me, um and they were like supportive in like helping me with my grades in high school.

When speaking about the support he received from his teachers, Dakila mentioned, “I think they were the main drivers for me to go to college.” Dakila also found other resource that he credits for academic success as he mentioned,

I consider my sport a resource. It is definitely something all schools have, but I think through cross country and track that was the biggest resource I had as far as getting into college because of the college coaches that would approach me, that sort of access to higher educations through running, it was very beneficial.

It is evident that teachers and other school personnel serve as a social resource for the participants. The support received from teachers influenced Diwata’s resiliency. Despite having an undocumented status and being new to the country she persisted in her academic endeavors because of the encouragement and support provided by her teachers. Nettles, Muchera, and Jones (2000) mentioned that teachers who are supportive of their students results great student resiliency, therefore teachers fill in a role as a social resource.

Other factor: Academic support programs. One of the participants found support for academic success through an outreach program, Samahang Pilipino Advancing Community Empowerment (SPACE) lead by Filipino-American college students. Bayani describe SPACE as

... my saving grace in high school. So they would actually come to my high school twice a week and talk to us about college or like tutor us, mentor us, and

what not, so. I think because of them they really kept college in mind for me since I was in 9th grade through 12th grade.

Being involved in a similar outreach program as SPACE while at RUNC is a similarity shared by Bayani and three other participants. Just as Bayani received support from SPACE, he and the other participants are now outreaching to Filipino/Filipino-American high school students, providing college information, tutoring, and encouragement to pursue higher education. This effort is tied to the Filipino/Filipino-American value of *kapwa* and *utang ng loob*. *Kapwa* refers to the belief of interconnectedness to one another (Nadal, 2009). Strobel (2001) describes *kapwa* as Filipino concept of “I am a part of you and you are a part of me” (p. 59). *Utang ng loob* is described by Nadal (2009) and Aure (2005) as reciprocity of favor to an individual whom good deeds are received. *Utang ng loob* can also come through the concept of ‘paying it forward.’ Hence, Bayani and the other participants are demonstrating *utang ng loob* by giving back to their *kapwa* through the participation in Filipino/Filipino-American lead college outreach program.

Role of Peers

The responses by the participants of the study suggest that peers play a significant role in their academic achievement. In the case of Filipino-American students, they can be considered as high risk students due to having lived experience of liminality – being in two ambiguous worlds – and as 1.5-generation college student (Buenavista, 2010). Rather than having such situation as hindrance, it is evident from the participants’ responses may have utilized their peers’ influences to have academic success. Choy,

Horn, Nuñez, and Chen (2000) noted with students who had “most or all of friends had college plans, the odds of moderate to high risk students enrolling in college are four times higher than none of their friends planned to go to college” (p. 53). In the case of the participants, they utilized their peers as a social resource to be able to access postsecondary education.

Para (2008) mentioned that individuals usually adopt their friends’ behaviors, personalities, and attitudes and as well as friends’ feelings about school. The participants of the study credit their peers’ influence as the successfully navigated through secondary education and into postsecondary education. Furthermore, the statements provided by the participants showed that their friendships exhibited loyalty, trust, self-disclosure, and intimacy as they kept track, encourage, and support each other to achieve academic success. Therefore, the participants of this study showed that most valued friendship could be correlated with higher participation in school.

Summary

Responses from the seven students who participated in the study highlight the critical role family plays for Filipino-American students’ entry into high education. Additionally, teachers, peers and other support program compliment the role of the family.

Family for Filipino-Americans includes immediate and extended family. Immediate family members, parents were the greatest motivation for students to seek higher education. Seeking postsecondary education is transferable value from

Philippines that is engrained in all children regardless of where they are raised.

Academic success for the participants is one of the most praiseworthy ways of honoring the family and oneself. Furthermore, obtaining higher education ensures that the individual will be financially independent and in due time will be able to care for his or her own family, including extended family. Postsecondary education equates to better opportunities the student and for all.

The role of the extended family, specifically older siblings, aunts, uncles and cousins was to pave the way to college for younger generations. More often than not, extended family members set the bar for younger generations as to the right kind of school, major, and career. For Filipino/Filipino-Americans, the extended family also had a consultant role in any major decisions, which may have included support for academic success.

Many of the study's participant belonged to generation-1.5; while their parents received higher education in the Philippines, they were unable to use their parents' educational backgrounds when seeking higher education. The most prevalent example is parents' lack of knowledge of the American educational system and the college/financial aid application process. Aside from this lack of knowledge, other disagreements between parents and 1.5-generation students arise such as: misunderstanding of various career choices, pathways and school choices.

School personnel had a considerable influence on the study's participants. Teachers served as mentors to many of the participants in the study as they shared their experiences and provided information to the participants about the college they attended.

The constant discussion about attending college after high school influenced the participants' desire to further their education. Furthermore, the teachers served as a social resource and influenced the participants' resiliency.

The role of peers in supporting the participants' academic success is significant. The statements provided by the participants showed that their friendships exhibited loyalty, trust, self-disclosure, and intimacy as they kept track, encouraged, and supported each other in their pursuit of academic excellence. Participants' peers provided a high expectation of academic success and also served as individuals who held the participants accountable to pursue postsecondary education. Sokatch (2006) found that "friends' plans, are particularly powerful and robust predictors of 4-year enrollment for low-income, urban and minority high school graduates" (p. 142).

Parents, peers, and school personnel played significant roles in the academic success of first-generation Filipino-American students that contributed to this study. Parents, as well immediate and extended families, ingrained the aspiration to pursuit academic excellence through the achievement of higher education as way to honor the family and oneself. However, despite being supportive of the participants many parents, even though they held college degrees from Philippines, were not familiar with the U.S. educational system. As a result, tension between the participant and their parents surfaced due to the misunderstanding of the participants' college and major choices. Despite this tension, the influence of peers and school personnel played a key role in the academic success of the participants in this study.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The college admission process is competitive, stressful, financially taxing which requires the guidance of a knowledgeable individual(s). In mainstream White America, parents are the primary guides when navigating this course and teacher, peers and other factors are secondary. For the Filipino-American students participating in this study it can be argued that they are in the state of liminality whereby they occupy two spaces. The first space is as a child of Filipino immigrants that must fill full cultural norms, while honoring the sanctity of family. The second space is as first-generation college student who cannot access the educational capital of the parent due to the incongruities of the education systems.

Over time, the participants' transition to state of invisibility as they became racialized as Asians and masked the U.S. and Filipino colonial history. However, participating in the study was meaningful to the participants because it allowed for their narratives be shared and reflect upon the families' history, their unique experiences and the greater experiences that are forth coming. The use of narrative empowers the underprivileged to tell their lived experiences and worldview to challenge and to transform the institutionalized racism that exists in our society (Taylor, 2009; Solorzano & Yosso, 2009).

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand how families, school personnel, and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students' entry

into Research University of Northern California (RUNC). Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions:

- 1) What roles do family members play in supporting Filipino-American students entry into higher education?
- 2) What roles do teachers and other school personnel play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?
- 3) What roles do peers play in supporting Filipino-American students' entry into higher education?

The first-generation Filipino-American college students in this study shared their stories and viewpoint to identify factors that play crucial in their academic success. This chapter will discuss conclusions, recommendations, and recommendations for future studies.

Conclusions

This study was conducted with specific criteria requirements for participations – first-generation Filipino/Filipino-American college students – in a specific postsecondary institution. Therefore, it is imperative to keep in mind the context of the study and the ability to generalize the study. Despite this fact, this study allowed for examination of how family, school personnel, and peers have supported first-generation Filipino-American students' entry into postsecondary education. Responses from the seven students who participated in this research led to the critical and complex nature of

parental support, and the influence and encouragement of school personnel and peers, which were consistent with the findings.

In response to the research question about the role of family in the academic success of Filipino-American students, it is evident that the family plays an important role. Parents as well as extended family members provide the greatest motivation for students to seek higher education. Academic success for the participants is one of the most praiseworthy ways of honoring the family and oneself. Furthermore, obtaining higher education ensures that the individual will be financially independent and in due time will be able to care for his or her own family, including extended family. Postsecondary education equates to better opportunities the student and for all.

The students in this study also received support from extended family. The role of the extended family, specifically aunts, uncles and cousins, was to pave the way to college for younger generations. More often than not, extended family members set the bar for younger generations as to the right kind of school, major, and career. For Filipino/Filipino-Americans, the extended family had a consultant role in any major decisions, which may include support for academic success

Although the support of parents, older siblings and extended family was a significant factor in supporting the students in this study, the lack of parents' understanding of the American educational system was evident and as a result, intergenerational conflict the participants experienced was discovered. Many of the study's participant belonged to generation-1.5; their parents received higher education in the Philippines, but the participants were unable to use their parent's educational

background when seeking higher education. The most prevalent example was parents' lack of knowledge about the American educational system and the college/financial aid application process. Aside from this lack of knowledge, other disagreements between parents and 1.5-generation students arose; these disagreements included misunderstanding of various career choices, pathways and school choices.

Seeking postsecondary education is transferable value from Philippines that is engrained in all children regardless of where they are raised. Academic success for the participants is one of the most praiseworthy ways of honoring the family and oneself. Furthermore, obtaining higher education ensures that the individual will be financially independent and in due time will be able to care for his or her own family, including extended family. Postsecondary education equates to better opportunities the student and for all.

In response to the research question about the role of school in the academic success of Filipino-American students, it is evident that teachers served as social resource and influenced to the participants' resiliency in their academic success. Teachers served as mentors to many of the participants in the study as they shared their experiences and provided information to the participants about the college they attended. The constant discussion about attending college after high school influenced the participants' desire to further their education.

In response to the research question about the role of peers in the academic success of Filipino-American students, it was evident that peers played a significant role in the academic success of the participants in the study. The statements provided by the

participants showed that their friendships exhibited loyalty, trust, self-disclosure, and intimacy as they kept track, encourage, and support each other in their pursuit of academic excellence. Participants' peers provided a high expectation of academic success and also served as individuals who held the participants accountable to pursue postsecondary education.

Parents, peers, and school personnel played significant roles in the academic success of the first-generation Filipino-American students who participated in this study. Parents as well immediate and extended family members ingrained the aspiration to pursuit academic excellence through the achievement of higher education as way to honor the family and oneself. However, despite being supportive of the participants many parents, even though they hold college degrees from Philippines, were not familiar with the U.S. educational system.

Recommendations

After reviewing the literature, collecting and analyzing the data, there are several recommendations to be considered. First, educators, postsecondary institution leaders, policy makers, and anyone who works with diverse students, should grasp and pay attention to students' stories as they are a powerful tools. Students' stories should be analyzed with critical lenses and take into consideration students' cultural, socio historical, and socioeconomic backgrounds. As such, the framework of Critical Race Theory may be used to gain a deeper understanding of diverse student population and to

bring forth the stories of those with marginalized backgrounds (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001).

The next recommendation is a challenge to postsecondary institutions, policy makers, and college access and retention programs to redefine what first-generation college student means. 1.5-generation college bound students face similar educational barriers with those of underrepresented youths. Perhaps questions regarding parents' educational background that are asked on college, financial aid, or access/retention program applications should not only include whether they have degrees or not, but also include the institution's name and location of where these degrees are earned. Creating such questions will result in 1.5-generation college students participating in college access and retention programs, which may result in their achievement of academic success.

As families play a significant role in participants' academic success, the author suggests that schools provide outreach as well as college/financial aid information to parents even if they hold postsecondary degrees from foreign countries. In taking consideration to Filipino cultural values and norms, the researcher suggests schools search for college access professionals or college students with similar background to utilize as resources or serve as consultants to school administrators, or as collaborative partners.

This study and the review of literature shows that peers play a considerable role in influencing individuals to apply and attend college. Therefore, the author recommends creating a peer-mentoring program to raise awareness and motivation to attend and

complete a postsecondary education. Research supports the position that peers have great influence in the decision to attend college. A peer-mentoring program on a high school campus can help create a college-going culture for schools.

Just as peers influence college awareness, so do school personnel. Therefore, the author recommends school administrators provide college/financial aid professional development for all school personnel to keep them up-to-date on college requirements. This is important because it has been shown that by simply talking about going to college to their students, teachers and school personnel encourage the students to have high educational standards.

Recommendations for Further Study

This study is a small sample of the educational experiences of Filipino-Americans in a particular of California, therefore does not represent the general experiences of Filipino-Americans. Therefore, the researcher recommends further study of the Filipino-American student experiences to add to the limited knowledge on this population.

The literature review showed that Filipino-Americans have high push-out rates. However, there were no discussions of factors that led to Filipino-Americans dropping out of school. Therefore, the author recommends the study of factors that lead to Filipino-American students dropping out of school and what perceived factors that may lead to re-enrollment to graduate from high school. Furthermore, a study of factors retention and persistency of Filipino-American high school students may result in strategies to prevent a high drop-out rate. While this recommendation focuses on

secondary school, the author also suggests that a study be done to find out what factors lead to retention and persistence of Filipino-Americans in higher education.

Despite facing barriers as a 1.5-generation college student and being in a state of liminality, Filipino-Americans have made some academic advances. With appropriate and pertinent research, coupled with sensible, tangible, and culturally sensitive support Filipino-American students will further gain academic success that will lead to impact their families, communities, and nation that they are a part of.

Appendices

Appendix A

INITIAL CONTACT FOR RECRUITING PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY

Mabuhay!

My name is Raul Pasamonte and I currently work as an Assistant Director for the UC Davis Upward Bound Program. In addition, I am also a graduate student with the department of Educational Leadership and Policies at California State University, Sacramento. I am requesting your assistance to participate or refer participants in a research study, which will be conducted as part of my thesis for the Master's of Arts in Education: Higher Education Leadership. The study is focus on understanding how families, school personnel, and peers have supported Filipino-American students' entry into postsecondary education.

I am requesting first-generation college students (students whose parent(s)/guardian(s) did not receive a Baccalaureate degree in the United States) to participate in an interview reflecting on their educational experiences. The interviews will be conducted separately and approximately take about 30 minutes at a place on campus that is convenient for the participant. Although there might not be personal benefit from this research, participants' reflections about participants experiences will add to the limited body of research about the educational plights of Filipino-American students.

If you are able to give some me some time to participate in an interview, please contact me at (PERSONAL EMAIL). I need to complete 5-10 interviews by April 10th. Again, your support will help understand the plights of Filipino-American students.

Thank you in advance any assistance that you can provide for me.

Salamat,

Raul Pasamonte

Appendix B

LETTER OF CONSENT

Dear Student:

My name is Raul Pasamonte and I currently work as an Interim Assistant Director for the UC Davis Upward Bound Program. In addition I am also a graduate student at with the department of Educational Leadership and Policies at California State University, Sacramento. I am requesting your assistance to participate in a research study, which will be conducted as part of my thesis for the Master's of Arts in Education: Higher Education Leadership. The study is focus on understanding how families, school personnel, and peers have supported Filipino-American students' entry into postsecondary education.

I am requesting that you participate in an interview reflecting on your educational experiences. The interviews will be conducted separately and will be digitally recorded to assist the researcher in analyzing them. The recordings will be destroyed at the end of the research project and will not be shared with anyone. Your participation includes an interview on the role(s) that your parents, school personnel, and peers have played, and any other resources or experiences that you believed contributed to your success. The interview will take approximately 45 minutes, and will take place at your convenience on campus. Your anonymity will be protected and the process does not pose any risk of harm to the participants whatsoever.

You will not receive any compensation for participating in this study. Although you may not personally benefit from participating in this research, your reflections about your experiences will add to the limited body of research about the educational plights of Filipino-American students.

Your rights to privacy and safety will be protected through the use of pseudo names in the study. Any audio recordings will be destroyed after data has been thoroughly reviewed and analyzed.

If you have any questions about this research, you may contact Raul Pasamonte at (PHONE NUMBER) or send email to (EMAIL ADDRESS).

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate, or decide at a later time to stop participating. The researcher may also end your participation at any time. Your signature below indicates that you have read this page and agree to participate in the research.

Signature of Participant

Date

Appendix C

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

- 1) Can you please tell me a little about yourself (where you from, schooling, family background, current college year, major)?
- 2) What is your reason(s) for attending college?
- 3) What is the greatest challenge(s) did you faced when you decided you wanted to go to college?
- 4) Please describe the role that your parents had in your education and in your decision to go to college.
- 5) Describe any areas where your parents were not sure how to support you.
- 6) Please describe the role that your high school teacher(s)/school personnel had in your decision to go to college.
- 7) What resources/support that the school provided outside the classroom that you found significant to your success?
- 8) Please describe the role that your friends and peers played in your decision to go to college.
- 9) How many of your closest friend also went to 4-year college/university?
- 10) What could have made your journey from high school to college smoother?
- 11) What advice would you give to Filipino-American students who are still in high school?
- 12) Is there anything I have not asked you that you think is important to include in this interview.

References

- Agbayani-Siewert, P. (1994). Filipino-American culture and family: Guidelines for practitioners. *Families in Society*, 75(7), 429 – 438.
- Aure, A. P. (2005). *Impact of peer group support and ethnic identity development on the academic success of Filipino-American college students* (Master Thesis). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (UMI No. 1429263)
- American Community Survey. (2012). *Key facts and figures on Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders*. White House Initiative on Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders. Retrieved from <https://www.whitehouse.gov/administration/eop/aapi/data/facts-and-figures>
- Bautista, V. (1998). *The Filipino-Americans from 1763 to the present: Their history, culture, and traditions*. Farmington Hills, MI: Bookhaus Publishers.
- Bankston III, C. L. (2006). Filipino-Americans. In P. G. Min (Ed.), *Asian Americans: Contemporary Trends and Issues* (2nd ed.) (pp. 180-203). Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.
- Bell, A. D., Rowan-Kenyon, H. T., & Perna, L. W. (2009). College knowledge of 9th and 11th grade students: Variation by school and state context. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 80, (6), 663 – 685. DOI: 130.86.12.250.

- Buenavista, T. L. (2009). *Examining the Postsecondary Experiences of Pilipino 1.5-generation college students* (ASHE/Lumina Policy Briefs and Critical Essay No. 8). Ames: Iowa State University, Department of Educational Leadership and Policies.
- Buenavista, T. L. (2010). Issues affecting U.S. Filipino Student access to post-secondary education: A critical race theory perspective. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 15, (1-2), 114 – 126. DOI: 10.1080/10824661003635093.
- Buenavista, T. L., Jayakumar, U. M., & Misa-Escalante, K. (2009). Contextualizing Asian American education through critical race theory: An example of U.S. Pilipino college student experiences. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 142, 69 – 81. DOI: 10.1002/ir.297.
- California Department of Education. (2011). *2010-2011 Statewide enrollment by ethnicity*. Retrieved on February 16, 2011 from <http://dq.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/EnrollEthState.asp?Level=State&TheYear=2010-11&cChoice=EnrollEth1&p=2>.
- Chang, M., Fung, G., Nakanishi, D., Ogawa, R., Um, K., Takahashi, L., ... Russ, L. (2010). *The state of Asian American, Native Hawaiian, and Pacific Islander in California*. University of California Asian American and Pacific Islander Policy Multicampus Research Program. Education Working Group. Retrieved from <http://www.calstate.edu/externalrelations/partnerships/asian-pacific.shtml>.
- Choy, S. P. (2002). *Access & persistence: findings from 10 Years of longitudinal research on students*. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED466105).

- Choy, S. P., Horn, L. J., Nunez, A., & Chen, X. (2000). Transition to college: what helps at-risk students and students whose parents did not attend college. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 45 – 63. DOI: 10.1002/ir.10704
- David, E. J. R. & Okazaki, S. (2006). Colonial mentality: a review and recommendation for Filipino-American psychology. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 12 (1), 1 -16. DOI: 10.37/1099-9809.12.1.1
- Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2001). *Critical Race Theory: An introduction*. New York, NY: New York University Press.
- Espiritu, Y.L., & Wolf, D.L. (2001). The paradox of assimilation: children of Filipino immigrants in San Diego. In R.G. Rumbaut, & A. Portes (Eds.), *Ethnicities: children of immigrant America*, (pp.157 – 186). Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Frank, S. (2006). *Filipinos in America*. Minneapolis, MN: Lerner Publications Company. New York, NY: New York University Press.
- Fisher-Yoshida, B. (2009). Transformative learning in participative process that reframe self-identity. In B. Fisher-Yoshida, K.D. Geller & S.A. Schapiro (Eds.), *Innovations in transformative learning: Space culture, & the arts* (pp. 65-81). New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- Fulgini, A. J., & Witkow, M. (2004). The post-secondary educational progress of youth from immigrant families. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 14 (2), 159 – 183. DOI: 10.1111/j.1532-7795.2004.01402002.x

- Hatch, A. J. (2002). *Doing qualitative research in education settings*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Johnson, B. & Christensen, L. (2014). *Educational research: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Maramba, D. C. (2008). Immigrant families and the college experience: perspectives of Filipino-Americans. *Journal of College Student Development, 49*, 336-350. DOI: 10.1353/csd.0.0012.
- Merriam, S. B. (1991). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Mortensen, T. G. (2009). *California at the edge of a cliff: The failure to invest in the next generation is crushing the economy & crippling our kids' future*. California Faculty Association, (January 2009). Retrieved from <http://www.postsecondary.org/commondetail.asp?id=1629>.
- Museus, D.M. & Kiang, P. N. (2009). Deconstructing the model minority myth and how it contributes to the invisible reality in higher education research. *New Directions for Institutional Research, 142*. DOI: 10.1002/ir.292.
- Nadal, K. L. (2009). *Filipino-American Psychology: A handbook of theory, research, and clinical practice*. Bloomington, IN: AuthorHouse.
- Nadal, K. L., Pituc, S. T., Jonhston, M. P., & Esparrago, T. (2010). Overcoming the model minority myth: Experiences of Filipino-American graduate students. *Journal of College Student Development, 51* (6), 694 – 706. DOI: 10.1353/csd.2010.0023.

- National Federation of Filipino-American Associations. (2008). *Filipino-American K-12 public school students: A study of ten urban communities across the United States*. Washington, DC: Ogilvie, B.
- Nettles, S. M., Mucherah, W., & Jones, D. (2000). Understanding resilience: The role of social resources. *Journal of Education for Students Placed At-Risk*, 5, (1-2), 47 – 60. DOI: 10.1080/10824669.2000.9681379.
- Osalbo, J. G. (2011). *Filipino-American identity development and its relation to heritage language loss* (Master's thesis). California State University Sacramento, Sacramento, CA.
- Para, E. (2008). The role of social support in identity formation: A literature review. *Graduate Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1 (1), 97-105. Retrieved from <http://epublications.marquette.edu/gjcp/vol1/iss1/9>
- Patacsil, N. J. (2007). *Kapwa – embracing shared identity: The influence of role models on being Filipino-American* (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (UMI No. 3287796)
- Perna, L. W., Rowan–Kenyon, H. T., Thomas, S. L., Bell, A., Anderson, R., & Li, C. (2008). The role of college counseling in shaping college opportunity: Variations across high schools. *The Review of Higher Education*, 31 (2), 131 – 159. DOI: 10.1353/rhe.2007.0073.
- Posadas, B. M. (1999). *The New Americans: The Filipino-Americans*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press

- Republic of the Philippines Department of Education, (2012). *Historical perspective of the Philippine education system*. Retrieved on February 9, 2012 from http://www.deped.gov.ph/about_deped/history.asp.
- Sokatch, A. (2006). Peer Influence on the College-Going Decisions of Low Socioeconomic Status Urban Youth. *Education and Urban Society*, 9 (1), 128 – 146. Doi:10.1177/0013124506291783
- Sterngrass, R. D. (2007). *The new immigrants: Filipino-Americans*. New York, NY: Infobase Publishing.
- Solorzano, D. G. & Yosso, T. J. (2009). Critical race methodology: Counter-storytelling as an analytical framework for educational research. In E. Taylor, D. Gillborn, & G. Ladson-Billings (Eds.), *Foundations of critical race theory in education* (pp. 131–147). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Strobel, L. M. (2001). *Coming full circle: The process of decolonization among post-1965 Filipino-Americans*. Quezon City, Philippines: Giraffe Books.
- Suzuki, B. (2002). Revisiting the Model Minority stereotype: Implications for student affairs practice and higher education. In M. K. McEwen, C. M. Kodama, A. N. Alvarez, S. Lee, & C. T. H. Liang (Eds.), *Working with Asian American college students*. New Directions for Student Services, no. 97. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Taylor, E. (2009). The foundation of critical race theory in education: An introduction. In D. Gillborn, G. Ladson-Billings, & E. Taylor (Eds.), *Foundations of critical race theory in education* (pp. 3-13). New York, NY: Routledge.

- Teranishi, R. T. (2002). Asian Pacific Americans and Critical Race Theory: An examination of school racial climate. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 35 (2), 144–154. DOI: 10.1080/713845281.
- Teranishi, R. T., Behringer, L. B., Grey, E. A., & Parker, T. L. (2009). Critical Race Theory and research on Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders in higher education. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 142, 57 – 68. DOI: 10.1002/ir.
- Teranishi, R. T., Ceja M., Antonio, A., Allen, W. R., & McDonough, P. M. (2004). The college-choice for Asian Pacific Americans: Ethnicity and socioeconomic class in context. *Review of Higher Education*, 27 (4), 527 – 551. DOI: 10.1353/rhe.2004.0025.
- The Government of Alberta, International Qualifications Assessment Service, (2008). *International education guide for the assessment of education from the Philippines*. Edmonton, AB, Canada: Crowne.
- U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics, (2010). *The condition of education 2010 (NCES 2010-028), Indicator 22*. U.S Department of Education, (2009). *Critical issues facing Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders*. White House Initiative on Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders. Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/list/asian-americans-initiative/criticalissues.html>.

Yeh, T.L. (2004). Issues of college persistence between Asian and Asian American Pacific students. *Journal of Student Retention: Research, Theory and Practice*, 6(1), 81-96. Retrieved from

<http://baywood.metapress.com/link.asp?id=mg9g76ur7buk5juw>

Yeung, A. & McInerrey, D. (1999). Students' perceived support from teachers: Impacts on academic achievement, interest in schoolwork, attendance, and self-esteem. Paper presented at the International Conference on Teacher Education at the Hong Kong Institute of Education, February 22-24, 1999.

