The Influence of Equitable Treatment on Latina/o High School Students’ College Aspirations

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Abstract
This study examined the influence of equitable treatment on Latina/o students’ college aspirations. Logistic regression was used to identify variables associated with Latina/o high school students’ aspirations to attend college within the context of theory concerning the college search, choice, and enrollment processes. Data were drawn from a nationally representative sample of Latina/o students in the ELS:2002 dataset. Results indicated that Latina/o students were more likely to aspire to attend college if they perceived equitable treatment for different groups of students during high school.

Keywords: Latina/o children and families; secondary; post-secondary education; adolescent; quantitative research; race/racialization
The Influence of Equitable Treatment on Latina/o High School Students’ College Aspirations

Latina/o students are the fastest-growing racial/ethnic group among all public K–12 students, with enrollments projected to increase to 29% of all students by 2025 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). However, as the Latina/o population in schools grows and becomes increasingly represented in K–12 schools nationwide, Latinas/os remain underrepresented among the U.S. population holding college degrees (Pew Research Center, 2016). In fact, although the Latina/o high school dropout rate has dropped by 20% over the past 10 years (Pew Research Center, 2016), Latina/o students are still less likely to graduate from high school (Snyder, de Brey, & Dillow, 2016) or to complete a bachelor’s degree (Ryan & Bauman, 2016) than their White, Black, or Asian counterparts, even as researchers have found that Latina/o students report high educational aspirations (e.g., Bohon, Johnson, & Gorman, 2006; McGlynn, 2015) and career aspirations that require college degrees (Denner, Cooper, Dunbar, & Lopez, 2005). Because holding college-going aspirations has been theorized to be the first step in a student’s college search, choice, and enrollment process (Hossler & Gallagher, 1987; Klasik, 2012), they are a vital predictor of ultimate educational attainment.

While Latina/o students may initially report high educational aspirations, the challenges they face in public school systems and in society at large may serve to diminish these aspirations and therefore their college enrollment and eventual bachelor’s degree completion, leading to lifetime economic losses, as those who hold a college degree have higher earnings and lower rates of unemployment (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016). Some of the barriers to Latina/o students’ attainment of their educational aspirations that have been documented in the literature include financial challenges, such as paying for higher education and having to work rather than
attend college (e.g., Denner et al., 2005); person-based barriers, such as concerns about not being admitted to college and not feeling smart enough to succeed there (e.g., Gonzalez, Stein, & Huq, 2012); and impediments related to inequities and discrimination, such as legal status (e.g., Torres & Wicks-Asbun, 2014) and prolonged exposure to negative attitudes in K–12 academic settings (e.g., St.-Hilaire, 2002).

As such, the present study utilized logistic regression to examine the demographic variables, academic preparation, family and peer influences, perceived equitable treatment, and discriminatory experiences that influence Latina/o students’ aspirations to attend college using a nationally representative dataset. More specifically, this study attempted to: (1) descriptively compare the background and high school experiences of Latina/o students who aspire to attend college and those who do not aspire to attend college; and (2) understand the role of perceived equitable treatment and discriminatory experiences during high school on Latina/o students’ aspirations either to attend college or to not attend college. Through this research, we extend the literature on educational aspirations by examining how perceived equitable treatment and discriminatory experiences influence Latina/o students’ college aspirations.

**Conceptual Framework and Related literature**

The following section offers a conceptual framework for the variables used in the logistic model, which hypothesizes that Latina/o students’ educational aspirations are associated with: (1) demographic variables; (2) academic preparation during high school; (3) parental factors; (4) peer influence; (5) perceived equitable treatment; and (6) discriminatory experiences. As detailed in the following review of the literature, the variables in our model were drawn from theory that posits that the first step in a student’s college search, choice, and enrollment process is having aspirations to attend college and to attain a college degree (Hossler & Gallagher, 1987; Klasik,
2012), as well as prior research specific to Latina/o students’ educational aspirations and attainment. The model theorizes that Latina/o students’ college aspirations are shaped by various demographic and high school experiences, including gender, a student’s native language, parental education levels, enrolling in rigorous courses, the value friends place on higher education, parental expectations, perceived equitable treatment for different groups of students, and discriminatory experiences in school.

It should be noted that several scholars (e.g., Beal & Crockett, 2010; Elliott, 2009; Khattab, 2015; Wu & Bai, 2015) have distinguished between educational aspirations, or the level of educational attainment a student desires to achieve, and educational expectations, or the level of educational attainment a student thinks she or he actually will achieve (Bohon et al., 2006). In addition, Adelman (1999, 2006) created an educational “anticipations” variable that measures the consistency and strength of a student’s pre-college educational expectations from grades 10 through 12. However, an examination of educational expectations and anticipations falls outside the scope of this study, as we were interested in investigating whether or not experiencing discrimination in high school impacted students’ desire to pursue postsecondary education, rather than their expectations that they actually would attend college.

Although previous research has identified factors related to students’ college aspirations in general, research on educational aspirations specific to Latina/o students is much sparser. Therefore, in our review of scholarly work on Latina/o college aspirations, we also include literature on the factors that influence Latina/o college enrollment. In sum, the literature demonstrates that a combination of demographic variables, socio-cultural variables, academic experiences, motivation and intent, and experiences with discrimination influence Latina/o educational aspirations and college enrollment. Concerning demographic variables, being female
and speaking English at home have been identified as positive predictors of both college aspirations and enrollment for Latina/o students (e.g., Plunkett & Bámaca-Gómez, 2003). In addition, being an immigrant has been shown to be negatively related to college enrollment (e.g., Riegle-Crumb, 2010; Zarate & Gallimore, 2005), even though Latina/o immigrant parents have been shown to have significantly higher odds of holding college aspirations for their children than U.S.-born Latinas/os (Raleigh & Kao, 2010).

Several socio-cultural variables have been identified as influencing Latina/o college aspirations and enrollment, as well. The most prevalent of these variables are those centered around Latina/o families, including associations between parental aspirations (Cooper, 2009) and educational encouragement (Calaff, 2008; Ceja, 2004) from parents and children’s college aspirations. In addition, other family factors, such as high parental expectations for their children’s success (e.g., Ramos & Sanchez, 1995; Song & Elliott, 2012) and siblings’ college experience (e.g., Weiher, Hughes, Kaplan, & Howard, 2006), increase Latina/o students’ probability of college enrollment. Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that, in addition to family members, students’ friends also influence their college aspirations and enrollment. For example, Martinez and Cervera (2012) found that more than half of Latina/o students with college aspirations go to their friends for college information much more often than they go to family members for that information. Having a pro-academic peer group also has been shown to increase college enrollment (e.g., Rivera, 2014).

Existing findings indicate that academic experiences are also meaningfully related to Latina/o students’ educational aspirations and college enrollment. For example, Latina/o students who participated in the specific college-going intervention programs AVID and GEAR UP have been shown to maintain high educational aspirations throughout their high school careers.
In addition, rigorous course taking in high school, including taking Advanced Placement (AP) and/or International Baccalaureate (IB) courses (e.g., Riegle-Crumb, 2010; Taggart & Crisp, 2011), as well as more and higher-level mathematics courses (Taggart & Crisp, 2011), is positively associated with college enrollment. Furthermore, mathematics proficiency has been found to contribute to increased aspirations for Latina/o students (Conway, 2010; Cooper, 2009). Students’ prior achievement and ability have also been shown to influence college enrollment (e.g., Griffin, 2002; Song & Elliott, 2012; Weiher et al., 2006; Zarate & Gallimore, 2005). For instance, Klasik (2012) found that both racial and economic gaps in college enrollment were greatly reduced when comparing students of similar academic ability. Moreover, having positive experiences with high school faculty and staff has been related to college enrollment (e.g., Riegle-Crumb, 2010; Weiher et al., 2006).

Latina/o students’ intent to attend college, as well as their motivation to do so, are other predictors of educational aspirations. Gonzalez et al. (2012) have found college-going self-efficacy to be one predictor of educational aspirations, though Basáñez, Warren, Crano, and Unger (2014) found that fatalism, or the idea that “people feel their destinies are out of their control” (Guzmán, Santiago-Rivera, & Haase, 2005, p. 6), is a negative predictor of college aspirations.

Relatively less is known regarding the impact of Latina/o students’ experiences with discrimination on their college aspirations, though discriminatory experiences have been identified as a challenge to four-year college enrollment (e.g., Taggart & Crisp, 2011). However, Ojeda and Flores (2008) found that the perception of educational barriers was a significant negative predictor of educational aspirations among Latina/o high school students and suggested that future research identify and examine barriers that are specific to Mexican American
students. While some researchers have examined discrimination related to documentation status as a barrier to Latina/o students’ educational aspirations (e.g., Torres & Wicks-Asbun, 2014), this study attempts to identify and examine other types of discrimination and their effect on Latina/o students’ college-going aspirations.

Method

Database and Sample

This study utilized data from the Education Longitudinal Study (ELS:2002). ELS:2002 tracks a nationally representative sample of students as they advance from tenth grade through high school and on to postsecondary education and/or work. As such, the study follows students as they transition through various points in their lives and educational careers in order to understand how earlier experiences and intentions influence later experiences. Data that were collected from the cohort of students sampled in ELS:2002 consist of students’ tested achievement and their attitudes and experiences. The sample used in this study included Latina/o students in the tenth grade who participated in the base year survey ($n = 1,860^{1}$).

Predictor Variables

Seven blocks of variables were hypothesized to be related to Latina/o students’ aspirations to enroll or to not enroll in postsecondary education following high school. All test items were subjected to factor analysis using varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization. Results yielded seven constructs utilized in the present study. Eigenvalues and percentages of variance for each factor were also determined and are presented here.

Two demographic variables were included in the first block of the model, including students’ gender and whether English was the students’ native language. The role of academic

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1 Rounded to the nearest ten per IES guidelines.
preparation was measured in the second block through a survey item asking whether the students were enrolled in AP courses during high school. Third, parental education levels were added to the model, comprising the highest level of education completed by a student’s mother and father. The eigenvalue for parental education levels was 2.65, which accounted for 17.69% of the total variance among this set of items. Factor loadings ranged from .804 to .817 and Cronbach’s alpha was .78. Fourth, parental expectations were measured by asking the students how far their mother wants them to go in school and how far their father wants them to go in school. The eigenvalue for parental expectations was 1.73, which accounted for 11.55% of the total variance among this set of items. Factor loadings ranged from .892 to .901 and Cronbach’s alpha was .867. Fifth, peer influence was added to the model through a survey item asking how important it was to a student’s friends to continue education past high school. Sixth, perceived equitable treatment was measured through a survey item asking for students’ perceptions on punishments at school being the same for different groups of students. Lastly, discriminatory experiences were included as the final block in the regression model, comprising whether or not Latina/o students felt put down in class by either teachers or other students. The eigenvalue for discriminatory experiences was 1.316, which accounted for 8.776% of the total variance among this set of items. Factor loadings ranged from .718 to .829 and Cronbach’s alpha was .558.

According to Phan and Deo (2008), this alpha level is acceptable because, though some researchers have adopted an arbitrary cut-off point of 0.70 for the alpha value, others have argued that alpha values as low as 0.50 would not weaken validity coefficients.

**Outcome Variable**

As mentioned previously, the dichotomous outcome examined in the present study included whether Latina/o students did not aspire to postsecondary education following high
school (coded as 0) versus whether they did aspire to postsecondary education following high school (coded as 1). Table 1 presents the model specifications.

[Insert Table 1 here]

**Data Analysis**

Descriptive statistics were computed to explore and compare the characteristics of Latina/o students who did not aspire to postsecondary education versus those who did aspire to postsecondary education. In addition, t-tests were computed for continuous variables (e.g., how strongly a student agreed with statements such as punishment same no matter who you are) in order to identify significant differences among students who aspired to attend college and students who did not aspire to attend college. Using block sequential modeling, logistic regression was used to identify the odds of students’ aspirations to engage in postsecondary education as related to the independent variables and to determine the percent of variance in the outcome that could be explained by the predictor variables (Garson, 2008).

The regression analysis was run using SPSS 18.0. The adequacy of the logistic regression model was evaluated through an examination and interpretation of the overall fit of the regression model and diagnostic statistics (Peng, So, Stage, & St. John, 2002). Specifically, the evaluation of the logistic regression model involved an examination of the chi-square goodness of fit and predicted probabilities (PCP). Beta weights, standard errors, the Wald chi-square statistic, associated p-values, and odds ratios were also examined and interpreted for significant predictors in the model (Garson, 2008).

**Data Limitations**

Certain limitations should be considered when interpreting the following results of the study. Specifically, the ELS:2002 data set contains large amounts of data that are not missing at
random, which limited our choice of variables to include in this study. For instance, our ability to accurately capture the influence of perceived equitable treatment and discriminatory experiences was limited to the small number of available variables in the data set. In addition, while variables such as grades and grade point average (GPA) have been associated with the college enrollment decisions of Latina/o students (e.g., Song & Elliott, 2012), these variables could not be considered in the theoretical model. However, as those same variables have not been shown previously to influence the college-going aspirations of Latinas/os, the model is still appropriate for this study of Latina/o students’ educational aspirations.

Results

Descriptive Findings

A descriptive comparison of Latina/o high school students who did not aspire to attend college (n = 230) versus those who did aspire to attend college (n = 1,640) revealed numerous differences between the two groups. Female students were slightly overrepresented among those students who aspired to attend college (53% versus 47%). Also, students who aspired to attend college were more likely to have a mother and/or father who had graduated from college. For instance, 30% of the students who aspired to attend college had a mother who had graduated from college and 26% had a father who had graduated from college. In contrast, only 18% of students who did not aspire to attend college had a mother who had graduated from college and 16% had a father who had graduated from college. Similarly, a higher percentage of students who aspired to attend college indicated that their parents also wanted them to attend college (11% versus 5% of students who did not aspire to attend college).

One of the most striking descriptive findings between students who aspired to attend college and students who did not aspire to attend college was the similarity of both groups’
native language. A nearly equal percentage of both groups of students, those who aspired to attend college (50%) and those who did not aspire to attend college (46%), was made up of native English speakers. In addition, the students’ perceptions of equitable treatment for different groups of students was found to be significantly related to students’ college aspirations, with significantly higher numbers of Latina/o students who aspired to attend college indicating that punishment at their schools was the same for different groups of students $t (1740) = 2.56, p < .05$ when compared to Latina/o students who did not aspire to attend college. Table 2 provides a descriptive comparison of students who do and do not aspire to attend college. Table 3 outlines the significant differences between students who do and do not aspire to attend college.

[Insert Tables 2 and 3 here]

**Logistic Regression Analysis**

Table 4 displays the parameter estimates, significance values, standard errors, odds ratios, and fit statistics for the regression model. Results indicated that four blocks significantly improved the fit of the model, indicating that Latina/o students’ aspirations to attend college were influenced by academic preparation, parental expectations, peer influence, and perceived equitable treatment. Three blocks did not significantly improve the fit of the model, indicating that Latina/o students’ aspirations to attend college were not influenced by demographic variables, parental education, or discriminatory experiences. The overall model was found to be significant, $\chi^2(9) = 71.903, p < .001$, and yielded correct predictions for 92% of the sample. Moreover, a review of the parameter estimates and associated probabilities identified that the likelihood of aspiring to attend college was uniquely influenced by enrollment in AP courses in high school, how far in school a student’s father wants his child to go, whether or not it is
important to a student’s friends to continue education past high school, and perceiving punishment to be equitable for different students.

[Insert Table 4 here]

More specifically, an examination of the direction of the odds ratios indicated that perceiving punishment to be equitable for different students increased Latina/o students’ aspirations to attend college by nearly four times. Concerning academic preparation, the odds of aspiring to attend college were found to be 5.44 times as large for students who enrolled in AP classes during high school. In addition, parental support increased the odds that Latina/o students would aspire to attend college. Specifically, how far in school a student’s father wants his child to go was found to increase the odds of aspiring to attend college by a factor of 1.35. Finally, the odds of aspiring to attend college were found to be 2.54 times as large for those students who indicated that it was important to their friends to continue education past high school.

Discussion/Conclusions

Results from this study contribute to our understanding of the variables influencing Latina/o students’ aspirations to enroll in college following high school. In particular, this study advances prior efforts by documenting the role of perceived equitable treatment on students’ college aspirations. Descriptive findings reveal noteworthy differences between the background and schooling experiences of high school students who do and do not aspire to attend college. Some of these results are consistent with prior research concerning Latina/o students and academic motivation. For example, results indicate that Latinas have higher college aspirations than do Latinos, a finding compatible with an overwhelming majority of studies on Latina/o students that have established a positive association between females and academic success outcomes, including higher grades and test scores and better rates of high school completion and
college enrollment (e.g., Vasquez-Salgado & Chavira, 2014; Lapayese, Huchting, & Grimalt, 2014; Zarate & Pineda, 2014; Weiher et al., 2006). In addition, in a nationally representative longitudinal study, Crosnoe (2005) statistically identified Latina/o students according to their achievement levels and found that female students tended to be grouped in the high-achieving, strongly school-oriented profile, while males were concentrated in the low-achieving, weakly school-oriented profile.

Furthermore, results of this study indicate that students with a parent who graduated from college report higher aspirations to attend college than students without a college-educated parent. This finding is understandable, given that children are likely to first learn about higher education opportunities from their parents (Kiyama, 2010). Therefore, parents with college degrees have the social capital and firsthand knowledge of the college experience to encourage college-going aspirations and behaviors in their children. Also consistent with previous research, findings show that mothers and fathers with high aspirations for their children’s educational pursuits positively influence students’ own aspirations (e.g., Carranza, You, Chhuon, & Hudley, 2009; Cooper, 2009), as do friends who consider postsecondary education to be important (e.g., Carolan-Silva & Reyes, 2013; Ream & Rumberger, 2008).

Findings of the logistic regression also show that enrolling in rigorous courses positively influences Latina/o students’ aspirations to attend college. In fact, the odds of aspiring to enroll in postsecondary education were over five times as large for students who enrolled in AP classes during high school versus students who were not enrolled in AP courses. According to Wilensky (2007), AP courses comprise a prominent curricular tracking distinction in the organization of public high schools, as evidenced by Latina/o students’ access to, enrollment in, and success in AP courses. Previous research examining the enrollment of Latina/o students in AP courses
compared to their total enrollment in schools and school districts has shown that Latina/o students are disproportionately underrepresented in AP courses (e.g., Ndura, Robinson, & Ochs, 2003). This has been found to be true even in schools with high numbers of Latina/o students and high AP enrollments. For example, Solórzano and Ornelas (2004) found that of the top 50 AP high schools (determined by overall school student enrollment divided by the number of AP courses offered at the school) in California during one academic year, Latina/o students made up only 16% of the student population in the top AP schools, although they made up 38% of California high school student enrollment during that time. As shown in the current study, such gross underrepresentation in rigorous courses has consequences for Latina/o students’ educational aspirations and, therefore, their college enrollment and baccalaureate completion.

The success of those Latina/o students who are enrolled in AP courses is another area that must be considered when addressing the effect of AP course taking on students’ college aspirations. The College Board deems a student to have been successful on an AP exam if that student receives a score of three or higher on a scale of one to five (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). However, of the total exams taken by Mexican American students in 2008, the mean score received on those exams was 2.42 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010), and the only AP test taken by Mexican Americans in 2013 of which the mean score was at least a “passing” score of three was the AP Spanish Language exam (The College Board, 2014), which is also the most common AP exam taken among Latina/o students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010). Moreover, according to The 6th Annual AP Report to the Nation, published by the College Board in February 2010, “Although 16 states have closed the equity and excellence gap for... Latino students, when you exclude from the successful AP examinee population Latino students whose only AP Exam score of 3 or higher was on the
Spanish Language Exam, the number of states who have eliminated the gap shrinks to six” (p. 7). In fact, the College Board’s most recent report, The 10th Annual Report to the Nation from February 2014, shows that an equity gap still exists between the percentage of Latina/o students in the graduating class and the percentage of successful Latina/o AP exam takers (The College Board, 2014).

The disparate opportunities for Latina/o students to enroll in and be successful in AP courses in turn may negatively impact the likelihood that they will believe in their chances for academic success in postsecondary education, and thus may lessen their aspirations to attend college. Non-enrollment and/or low success rates in AP courses also lessens the likelihood that Latina/o students will be admitted to selective universities upon graduation from high school. Therefore, Latina/o high school students are put at a distinct disadvantage for future educational opportunities at universities that use AP course enrollment, grades and/or GPA, and exams in their admissions processes. In addition, previous research has shown that taking college preparatory courses increases Latina/o students’ educational aspirations, while enrolling in general education or vocational courses decreases them (Cooper, 2009).

Most notable among the results of the current study is the finding that Latina/o students who perceive equitable treatment among different groups of students are nearly four times as likely to aspire to attend college as students who do not perceive equitable treatment at their schools. This finding is important given that perceptions of inequitable treatment can lead to poorer perceptions of school climate (Benner & Graham, 2011) and school belonging (Cammarota, 2014), a loss of academic motivation (Perreira, Fuligni, & Potochnick, 2010), lower perceived economic benefits of education (Mroczkowski & Sánchez, 2015), and even dropout (Luna & Revilla, 2013). In addition, inequitable treatment may impede students’
aspirations for and transition to higher education through disproportionate numbers of
disciplinary actions against Latina/o students and a lack of guidance through college eligibility
and enrollment processes by school personnel.

It has been well-documented that Latina/o students experience disproportionate
disciplinary action compared to their White peers (e.g., Cavanaugh, Vigil, & Garcia, 2014) in the
number and kinds of disciplinary actions taken against them above that of White students, but
also for the same offenses as White students (e.g., Skiba et al., 2011). This kind of inequitable
punishment has been shown to have a negative effect on the educational outcomes of Latina/o
students. For instance, in a study on school dropout in the fifth-largest school district in the U.S.
with a predominantly Latina/o population, Luna and Revilla (2013) found that one of the most
prominent reasons students gave for dropping out of high school was that students believed that
teachers, administrators, and other school personnel gave preferential treatment to White and
Black students. Such inequitable treatment has been shown to have several negative
consequences for students, including increased time away from classroom instruction due to in-
or out-of-school suspensions (Cammarota, 2014) and higher numbers of absences based on
students’ perceptions of a hostile campus environment (Skiba et al., 2011).

In addition to feeling that they are not treated fairly or do not belong at school, Latina/o
students’ college aspirations may also be negatively affected through inequitable treatment by
school personnel in the form of lower academic expectations. For example, Malott, Havlik,
Palacios, and Lewis (2014) conducted a study on White female students in their second year of a
master’s degree counselor training program and found that they interacted with Latina/o
adolescents based on their own cultural assumptions about them, with one counselor admitting
that she “didn’t think [Latina/o students] would be interested in going to college or would have...
the means to go” (p. 136). And while prior research has shown that Latina/o students experience the greatest decrease in educational aspirations between grades 10 and 12 (Cooper, 2009), other research has demonstrated that Latina/o students who are placed by school personnel into intervention programs designed to promote college readiness maintain high educational aspirations from grades 10 through 12 (Lozano et al., 2009).

In light of these findings, future research is needed to better understand the sources and causes of inequitable treatment for different groups of students that may affect their educational aspirations and, in turn, their postsecondary education enrollment. In addition, we recommend that further work be conducted to describe how K–12 schools with high rates of college-going Latina/o students treat students and encourage their educational aspirations.
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### Table 1

**Logistic Model Specifications**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Demographic Variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male = 0, *Female = 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English is student’s native language</td>
<td>No = 0, *Yes = 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic Preparation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolled in AP classes</td>
<td>No = 0, *Yes = 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parental Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s highest level of education</td>
<td>8 category variable representing highest level of parental education: Did not complete high school = 1, Doctoral degree or equivalent = 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father’s highest level of education</td>
<td>8 category variable representing highest level of parental education: Did not complete high school = 1, Doctoral degree or equivalent = 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parental Expectations</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How far in school mother wants 10th grader to go</td>
<td>Less than high school = 1, High school graduation = 2, Attend or complete two-year = 3, Attend four-year incomplete = 4, Bachelor’s = 5, Master’s = 6, PhD = 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How far in school father wants 10th grader to go</td>
<td>Less than high school = 1, High school graduation = 2, Attend or complete two-year = 3, Attend four-year incomplete = 4, Bachelor’s = 5, Master’s = 6, PhD = 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Peer Influence</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important to friends to continue education past high school</td>
<td>Strongly agree = 1, Strongly disagree = 4</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived Equitable Treatment</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punishment same no matter who you are</td>
<td>Strongly agree = 1, Strongly disagree = 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Discriminatory Experiences**

In class often feels put down by teachers  Strongly agree = 1, Strongly disagree = 4

In class often feels put down by students

**Outcome Variable**

Aspirations to attend college  Will not attend college = 0; *Will attend college = 1

*Reference category
Table 2

Descriptive Comparison of Student Aspirations to Attend College

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>% of students who aspire to attend college (n = 1,640)</th>
<th>% of students who do not aspire to attend college (n = 230²)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English is student’s native language</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Preparation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolled in AP courses</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

²Rounded to the nearest ten per IES guidelines.
Table 3

**Significant Differences between the Experiences of Students Who Aspire to Attend College vs. Students Who Do Not Aspire to Attend College**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Aspire to attend college (n = 1,640)</th>
<th>Do not aspire to attend college (n = 230)</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s highest level of education</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>2.174</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father’s highest level of education</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>2.285</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Expectations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How far in school mother wants 10th grader to go</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>1.671</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How far in school father wants 10th grader to go</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>1.710</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Influence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important to friends to continue education past high school</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.597</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Equitable Treatment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punishment same no matter who you are</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>.861</td>
<td>2.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discriminatory Experiences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In class often feels put down by teachers</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.714</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In class often feels put down by students</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.719</td>
<td>3.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, ***p < .001.
### Table 4

**Logistic Regression Model: Parameter Estimates and Model Evaluation Predicting Students’ Aspirations to Attend College**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Odds Ratio*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>−.129</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English is student’s native language</td>
<td>.246</td>
<td>.310</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Preparation</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Odds Ratio*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enrolled in AP courses</td>
<td>1.694*</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td>5.439</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental Education</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Odds Ratio*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s highest level of education</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father’s highest level of education</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental Expectations</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Odds Ratio*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How far in school mother wants 10th grader to go</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How far in school father wants 10th grader to go</td>
<td>.299*</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>1.349</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peer Influence</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Odds Ratio*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Important to friends to continue education past high school</td>
<td>.933***</td>
<td>.241</td>
<td>2.543</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Equitable Treatment</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Odds Ratio*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punishment same no matter who you are</td>
<td>.348*</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>3.877</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discriminatory Experiences</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In class often feels put down by teachers</td>
<td>.258</td>
<td>.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In class often feels put down by students</td>
<td>−.234</td>
<td>.230</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Evaluation</th>
<th>b</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>−2 Log Likelihood</td>
<td>330.430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi Square</td>
<td>73.284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cox &amp; Snell $R^2$</td>
<td>.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagelkerke $R^2$</td>
<td>.225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P.C.P.</td>
<td>92.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, ***p < .001.