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Historical Overview Of Equity In Higher Education: A Case Study Of The South Texas Border Initiative

Denise Razo

University of Texas at El Paso, deniserazo@yahoo.com

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HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF EQUITY OF HIGHER EDUCATION:
A CASE STUDY OF THE SOUTH TEXAS BORDER INITIATIVE

Denise Razo

Department of Educational Leadership and Foundations

APPROVED:

Arturo Pacheco, Ph.D., Chair

Dennis Bixler-Márquez, Ph.D.

Penelope Espinoza, Ph.D.

Don P. Schulte, Ed.D.

Benjamin C. Flores, Ph.D.
Dean of the Graduate School

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By

Denise Razo

2013

Dedication

Dedicated to my family for their support, love and encouragement that propelled my dream to become a reality that otherwise could not have been accomplished.

To my parents who are beacons of perpetual guidance and support.

To my brothers Paul III and Danny, sister-in-law Adriana, niece Briana, nephew Paul IV, and my adorable doggy Alejandro Jose who brought me hope with their humor and comfort throughout my arduous journey.

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF EQUITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION:
A CASE STUDY OF THE SOUTH TEXAS BORDER INITIATIVE

by

Denise Razo, A.A.; B.A.;M.P.A.;M.Ed.

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at El Paso

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Department of Educational Leadership and Foundations

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT EL PASO

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Acknowledgement

Living along the Texas border for more than 29 years has made me keenly aware of the trials and tribulations stemming from the lack of educational parity found in this region. I am grateful for the places where I have lived and for all the people I have met along the way because these experiences have sensitized me to the work that remains unfinished, and to the ambivalence and lack of regulation that remain in the South Texas schools today. Throughout my quest for understanding, my views have changed. I have developed a deep passion for law and policy because it is increasingly clear that both have the power to instill hope to the least fortunate communities, and the power to restore and uphold justice.

Countless leaders have told me that with great power comes great responsibility. After witnessing the downfall of many powerful local school district leaders, I understood the detriment the misuse of power has on a community. During the completion of this dissertation, my former school district in El Paso faced the arrest, conviction, or resignation of their Superintendent, several Associate Superintendents, several Principals, several Vice Principals, and all of the School Board Members for their efforts to fraudulently alter state standardized testing and others for misappropriation of funds. These kinds of egocentric actions deter funds and education from the amelioration of communities and exponentially compound the dire situation that is already existent in most school districts across this great nation. In order to heed the calls for a profound overhaul of current accountability systems in our schools, school officials need an affective check and balances system that refrains leaders from exercising unethical practices and unlawful behaviors that unleash the cycles of educational inequality. To get from here to there, also involves holding accountable those passive leaders that refrain from doing what is right for fear of repercussions. Our challenge is to create a sense of urgency and

bring awareness to the unmet educational needs of future generations. I believe that the understanding of the lack of educational parity for Mexican Americans as introduced in this dissertation will arm people with the desire needed to bringing us closer to the fight against educational inequality, and by doing so, also improve the social and economic status of minorities. I am cognizant that I must continue to take courageous steps to achieve extraordinary outcomes with the help of many. I am truly blessed and grateful for the many individuals whose contributions and support helped to transform an overwhelming task into a fulfilling experience.

First, I want to thank my best friends Hector and Norma Sepulveda for their inspiration and motivation to complete my dissertation. You are truly priceless friends, teachers, and mentors.

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Thirdly, I am particularly indebted to the members of my dissertation committee. Dr. Arturo Pacheco, you never gave up on me even when I had already given up on myself. Despite the situation you found yourself in, you always made time to help me with my research.

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I would also like to thank Dr. Don P. Schulte who helped me to regain my passion for social justice in education. You truly are an inspiration that has paved the path for my desire to inspire others like you have done for me.

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Most of all, I want to thank my father for his wordsmithing and the improvements he made in the original texts with his editing proficiency while exhausting many days and nights with enthusiasm, insights, encouragement, and guidance. You are a great influential role model in my life.

Abstract

There is an absence of research involving the successes reaped by the implementation of the South Texas Border Initiative (STBI). Although there is tangible evidence of an increase in the number of master degrees, doctor degrees, and professional degrees in the South Texas Border Region, none indicates that the STBI's efforts have reaped prosperous results that successfully closed the educational gap found among Hispanics and Whites in Texas. In this research, the gathering of historical events served to accomplish a depiction of a vivid and precise picture of the events that led to the STBI. To prevent historical events from snowballing into an unending cycle of inequitable actions, this research serves as a tool to evaluate the impact of the STBI. There was a comparison between the four public Tier 1 institutions with the nine border universities for program growth, degree attainment, and accessibility destination. The comparison discriminated between growth and parity. Significant positive gains precipitated from the STBI for Hispanics, but neglected to bring parity. The interpretation of the results reflected that if the government were truly to fulfill its mission of parity, it would require leadership capable of initiating and maintaining a continuous improvement plan along with continuous financial support.

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Chapter 1-Introduction

The relation between equity and Mexican American academic success has elicited considerable interest in the educational arena. Until recently, research indicated that the academic success of Mexican Americans was not peripheral to the overall academic success of Whites. Early on in the historical accounts of Texas schooling, Mexican Americans were lumped into the same racial classification as Whites, which produced misleading findings that principally appealed to Whites up until the mid-1900s. In many of the early legal cases, the lumping of Whites and Mexican Americans into the same racial classification was the factor that impeded the development of educational opportunities for Mexican Americans. Whites' academic successes were disingenuously imputed to Mexican Americans' academic accomplishments when in reality Mexican Americans were falling short in academic opportunities. Thus, Mexican Americans faced a unique set of racial discriminatory circumstances that derived from the consolidated racial classification of Whites and Mexican Americans unlike those of African Americans. This factor is notable, early on, in the lack of documents that discuss the schooling of Mexican American children in Texas. No question, that this distinct racial discriminatory circumstance prolonged their struggle for equity in accessing higher education because there was not a way of showing discriminatory practices that hindered the success of Mexican Americans. Thus, the academic needs of Mexican Americans were overlooked for many years. In the early beginnings of higher education in Texas, the victories for the decommissioning of racial discrimination policies by African Americans in the United States opened the floodgates for other racial subgroups to receive protection under the 14th amendment. After the 1954 ruling of *Hernandez vs. Texas* (1954), the United States Supreme Court recognized the need for the

extension of the 14th amendment protections to other racial groups. Through this ruling, Mexican Americans acquired the legal classification of a distinct racial class of citizens.

Whites struggled with the acceptance of Mexican Americans in the educational arena as equals as seen by the plethora of legal cases filed well into the 1980s in Texas that cited discriminatory practices. The *U.S. vs. Texas* (1970) cases had to go to court as an effort to get the Texas Education Agency to desegregate Texas schools. The Texas Education Agency did not honor Mexican American's legal classification of a distinct racial class of citizens. Instead, Whites exploited the Mexican Americans' White status to keep schools segregated. They discovered a loophole by lumping Mexican Americans and Blacks together to satisfy the integration laws while simultaneously oppressing them. Upon discovery of appalling descriptions of conditions in the educational arena for Blacks and Mexican Americans, a group of Mexican American parents advocated for the extension of the U.S. Supreme Court's denouement of the case *Brown vs. the Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* (1954) to be apportioned to Mexican Americans. This led to the filing of the 1970 lawsuit *Cisneros vs. Corpus Christi Independent School District*.

In 1970, this case ultimately resulted in the classification of Mexican Americans as a distinct racial class in schools. Yet, there continued to lack energetic effort to improve the educational opportunities for Mexican Americans in Texas until an investigation by the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) in 1977 (Vera, R.T. & Barbosa, 1989). Their findings showed that Mexican Americans had in fact suffered de facto' racial discrimination and segregation in higher education because of lack of Mexican Americans' admissions and enrollments (Vera & Barbosa, 1989). This gave Mexican Americans the recognition that they indeed had suffered from discriminatory practices in higher education and their outlet for the grievance that would follow. In 1987, after several Texas failures in showing improvements regarding state provisions for the education of

minorities to the OCR, several Mexican Americans filed a class action discrimination suit on behalf of Mexican American students who continued to experience acts of discrimination, segregation, and disenfranchisement in Texas higher education (Ibid, 1989). Although Mexican Americans' racial reclassification led to academic legitimacy, funding problems intrinsic to retrospective academic opportunities have led to interpretive difficulties in findings to date. The rarity of systematic studies is surprising given the prevalence of academic inequality in the Mexican American population. Low percentages of Mexican American enrollment at comprehensive universities in Texas were conceptualized in terms of spatial accessibility, culture, and economics (Jones & Kauffman, 1994). It has, however, consistently been estimated that lack of funding and limited program availability in the border counties have had a negative impact on Mexican American academic success that stunted their level of education.

Background of the Study

A study conducted by the Mexican American Task Force began the policy talk that linked inequality and inequity to nine universities located along the Texas Mexican border providing educational services to the Mexican American residents of forty-one border counties. The disturbing findings prompted the filing of the 1987 case of *LULAC vs. Richards* by the Mexican American Legal Defense and Education Fund (MALDEF) on behalf of the Mexican Americans residing in those forty-one Texas counties. This case revealed that the quality and the quantity of programs for nine universities located along the U.S.-Mexico border were substantially underdeveloped when compared to other Texas universities. The policy action concluded with the ruling that created the formation of the Texas Joint Committee of South Texas designed to oversee the South Texas Border Initiative of 1989. Thus, the South Texas Border Initiative (STBI) became the vehicle to policy evaluation to conduct an accurate assessment, application of

intervention, and continuous evaluation of the problem pertaining to the South Texas institutions located along the border. Three sources of evidence have contributed to the findings.

First, failure to allocate funding for continuous improvement of professional programs of study in the border region deemed Texas Governor, Ann Richards, guilty of the deprivation of access to educational opportunities along the borderland region, resulting in adverse economic effects. Plaintiffs reported program deficiency because of the lack of availability of sufficient quantity and quality of doctorate and professional programs, access to comprehensive universities, and highly qualified staff. Others reported having limited access to programs in the nearby universities that excluded them from a plethora of high profiled professions. Jones and Kauffman (1994) showed that Texas left large regions without quality educational opportunities. In the case regarding South Texas, only two comprehensive universities were at a significant distance from the 24% of college population they served in this region. They contended that the most overt and powerful challenges of the disproportional access of higher educational facilities resulted from the residency of the larger portion of its population being farther than 150 miles from one of the nine comprehensive universities of the state (Ibid, p.6). They estimated that roughly “2.5 million people live outside the 150 mile zone” (Ibid, p.6). Therefore, on average, a student who lived in the outer areas would have to drive more than 150 miles or more to get to a comprehensive university. Since Mexican Americans predominantly populated South Texas, the unfeasible commute reflected the degree to which Mexican Americans were being tracked to universities with limited educational opportunities. Mexican Americans were finding themselves in a highly competitive workforce with ill-equipped skills and unmarketable degrees. As a result, the Joint Committee was compelled to allocate sufficient funds for program development, construction of buildings, retention of both minority students and faculty. To start, the Joint

Committee allocated a total of \$460 million dollars to South Texas institutions (Legislative Reference Library of Texas, 2001, p.55).

Second, findings showed that the Texas Higher Education Committee Board (THECB) staff had violated the financial formulas set in place in order to legitimize the disproportional distribution of funds. There was evidence that a significantly high portion of the funding designated to South Texas universities was reallocated to other Texas universities geographically distanced from the Texas south border (Legislative Reference Library of Texas, 1989, p.29; *LULAC v. Richards*, 868 SW 2d 306). There was also the determination that the other universities obtained significantly elevated funding for continuous program improvement. The failure of equal distribution of funds precipitated the vulnerability of Mexican Americans to substandard education and a never-ending cycle of educational gaps. To ensure funding equality, the committee requested a thorough investigation of THECB's fiscal distribution formulas for future fiscal appropriations (Legislative Reference Library of Texas, 1989, p.19). An adjustment of the THECB's fiscal distribution formulas was applied to maintain the equal appropriation of funding.

Third, the Joint Committee learned that in order to bring equity and equality of funding there was a need for change in the system of governance for higher education in Texas. The imbalanced subsystem designation of the nine universities triggered the long-range causes of the financial inequity and inequality in South Texas. Some of the nine universities were grouped into distinct and less influential subsystems. This previous grouping caused an imbalance of power, which meant that the universities in South Texas, predominantly of weaker power, were at a disadvantage. The financial turmoil experienced by the South Texas universities showed how dependent a university was on health of their university subsystem. No doubt, that it was believed that when the university subsystem experienced success, every university under their

care would benefit; therefore, this committee called for a reorganization of the universities into more powerful university subsystems. The interconnection of universities with more powerful subsystems would strengthen each university's monetary system and resource accessibility. Thus, their response solidified the efforts to alter the Education Code for emergence of institutions into one of three selected university subsystems in Texas. This would help provide South Texas institutions with the much needed leadership and support for rectifying these deficiencies (Ibid, p.5). The committee's advocacy sought to ameliorate the disposition of higher education for counties along the border. Below is a depiction of the nine universities that were recipients of the STBI.

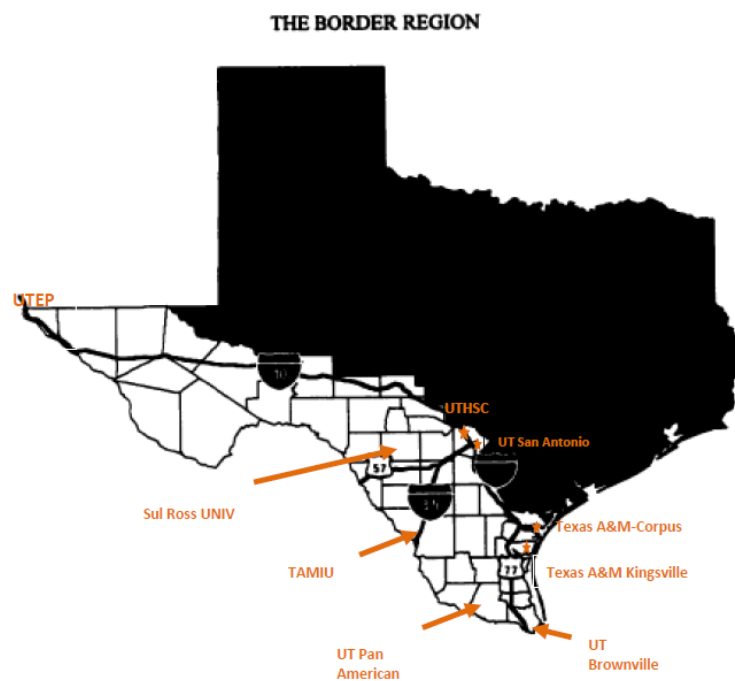


Figure 1. The Border Region

Readapted Source: Ramseyer (2000) p. 51.

Statement of the Problem

Following the aftermath of the first judicial decision of *LULAC vs. Richards* in 1987, minorities in the Border region gained a sense of renewed hope that parity in higher education would soon narrow those educational gaps and provide Mexican Americans residing along the Texas-Mexico border with greater educational opportunities. Although the allocation of millions provided for greater access to master degrees, doctor degrees, and professional degrees programs, the gap in graduation rates, as seen in the figure below, and degree completion among Mexican American students and Whites has continued to widen overtime throughout the U.S. (Perna et. at., 2009; Santiago, 2012).

Completion metrics – Graduation rate

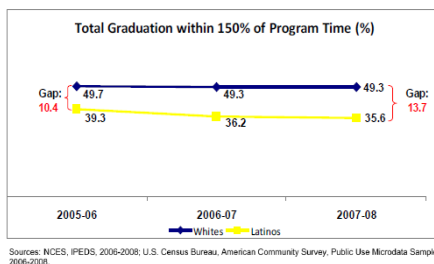


Figure 2. Completion metrics-Graduation

Source: Santiago, 2012, p 3.

The heart of the debate continues to be the ineffective implementation of the interventions ordained by the committee. Many continue to contend that there remains work undone because in hindsight all one has to do is look at the lack of parity that exists among border and non-border universities (Vega & Martinez, 2008). Assurance that a profound overhaul has unfolded is pertinent. All involved entities must shoulder their full share of accountability for the implementation of the interventions concluded by the committee.

The primary goal of this study was to assess the successful implementation and effectiveness of the STBI geared to stimulate economic growth and development in the border region dictated by the STBI (De Oliver, 1998; Sharp, 1998; Pettit, 2010). To date, it is unknown how significantly the STBI influenced the enrollment of Mexican Americans in universities along the South Texas border. Absent from the literature is the assurance that the funding allocated for educational growth amongst Mexican Americans was accomplishing the intended purposes such as an expansion of graduate opportunities and number of degrees offered. While the literature indicates that universities continue to experience growth in program diversity, there is uncertainty if the universities in the Texas border counties are partaking in the growth. More importantly, it is unclear to what extent Texas border counties are benefiting from the funding.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this historical case study is to explore to what degree has the STBI funding had on educational opportunities in the south border universities in comparison to other universities for Mexican Americans in Texas. At this stage of the research, the increase of diverse programs, number of degrees awarded, and attainment of higher-level degrees will define the educational opportunities. Since organizations are obligated to conduct evaluations for concrete evidence of the effective utilization of funds, the implication is that an evaluation of the STBI is overdue. The use of the Tyack & Cuban's education policy cycles framework will serve as an instrument to assess and justify the outcomes and effectiveness of the STBI's interventions for ongoing efforts of the program. The ultimate goal is to provide data that can be used to bring about an increase in the effectiveness of the interventions concluded by the STBI.

Rationale for Methodology

In more than twenty years, there has been no review of the South Texas Border Initiative since its establishment by the Texas Legislature. Without question, it is important to document the impact of the South Texas Border Initiative by examining the historical trajectory of higher education opportunities for Mexican American racial minority students living in South Texas. In order to do this, it seemed fitting to utilize the Tyack and Cuban education policy cycles framework.

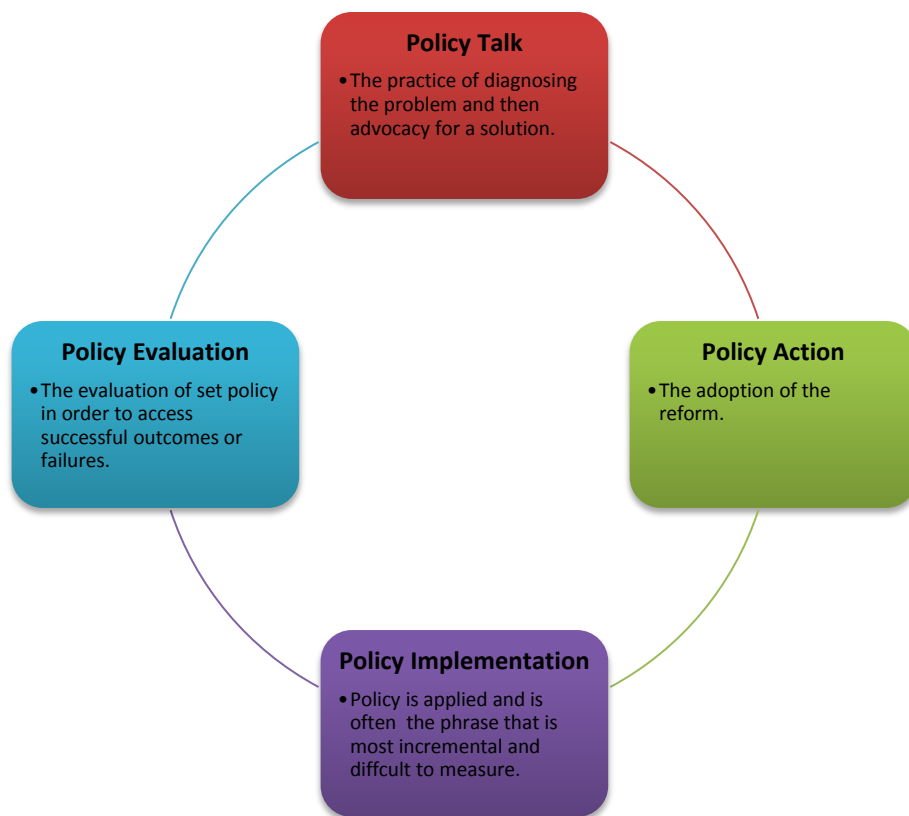


Figure 3. Readapted Tyack & Cuban Policy Cycles Framework Model

This framework employs several phases to help evaluate the SBTI for its effectiveness to implement its plan of action. The first phase referred to as policy talk of the framework allows the recognition of the diagnoses to identify which problems and which solutions were proposed

that entailed both the social and historical context of problems (Tyack & Cuban, 1995). The next phase of the framework called policy action will analyze the reformation as prescribed “through state legislation, school board regulations, or decisions by the other authorities” (Tyack & Cuban, 1995, p.40). In the course of the final phase being the policy implementation stage, the SBTI policy can be dissected by backtracking the incremental implementation of the policy to determine its impact. Tyack & Cuban (1995) suggest they must be “[...] understood in relation to each one another” (p.41). Currently, there is no published research in the educational field that utilizes the Tyack and Cuban’s policy cycles framework. Thus, the effectiveness of Tyack and Cuban’s policy cycles framework will be simultaneously assessed in its ability to disentangle the complex components, and provide an unbiased understanding of the inner workings of the South Texas Border Initiative.

A historical narrative of higher education inequity in Texas is intended to provide readers with a better understanding of the transgression of inequity among universities in Texas today. There is the expectation for readers to gain a clear background knowledge and context in which to look at the current educational problems found in the border region. Readers are anticipated to obtain a viable lens in which to view and identify the major components currently and negatively influencing educational opportunities for Mexican American students along the Texas south border region. In addition, there is the hope that this model will also help to probe into the diverse mixture of forces that worked to fix and perpetuate the problem of inequity in some Texas higher education institutions.

Advancing Scientific Knowledge

Despite a large body of literature addressing the inequities of education in Texas from the African American perspective, there remains a lack of literature documenting the struggle for

higher education from the Mexican Americans standpoint. Existing literature predominately addresses the early struggles waged by African Americans in dismantling the “White only” establishment of higher education facilities in the mid-1800s. Recent research has been conducted that documents the Mexican Americans struggles for higher education that concludes the disparities found among ethnic groups in terms of retention rates, completion rates, graduation rates and degree stratification (Hao, 2006; Perna, Li, Walsh & Raible, 2009; Vega & Martinez, 2008). It is not to say, that there has not been any positive changes in higher education over the centuries because there have been many like the G.I. Bill and Pell Grants, which have propelled many minorities to go to college. However, the current research points to the fact that there remains an ethnic color line.

As equitable practices continue to be overturned and inequitable practices approved by the State of Texas and Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board, there remains a real urgency in accelerating the progress of Mexican Americans in postsecondary education. One recent challenge to ethnic equity has recently reemerged. The U.S. Supreme Court recently decided to undertake the case of Fisher vs. University of Texas at Austin. This case has reintroduced the issue of affirmative action for debate to determine if the universities will be allowed to uphold the utilization of race as an admission factor (Carey, 2012). This comes as no surprise to most Texans, since recently the Texas Legislature gave the University of Texas at Austin the consent to cap the Texas Top Ten Percent Plan, a plan adopted following the decision in Hopwood. For that reason, it is important to understand the historical trajectory of how Texas governing bodies fashion and allocate educational opportunities to its citizenry by geographical region. The public needs to be cognizant of the physical, social, cultural, economic, and historical contexts that have influenced this push for change in higher education. Otherwise, in the case of this study, people

cannot battle oppression and promote social justice amongst Mexican Americans. People will be forced to helplessly see Mexican Americans be treated unfairly without recourse. The population growth of Hispanics is reportedly going to surpass that of whites in Texas (Flakus, 2012). Therefore, it means fighting obstacles and manipulating systems to prevent societal adverse effects. Below is a depiction of population change in Texas counties from 2000 to 2010.

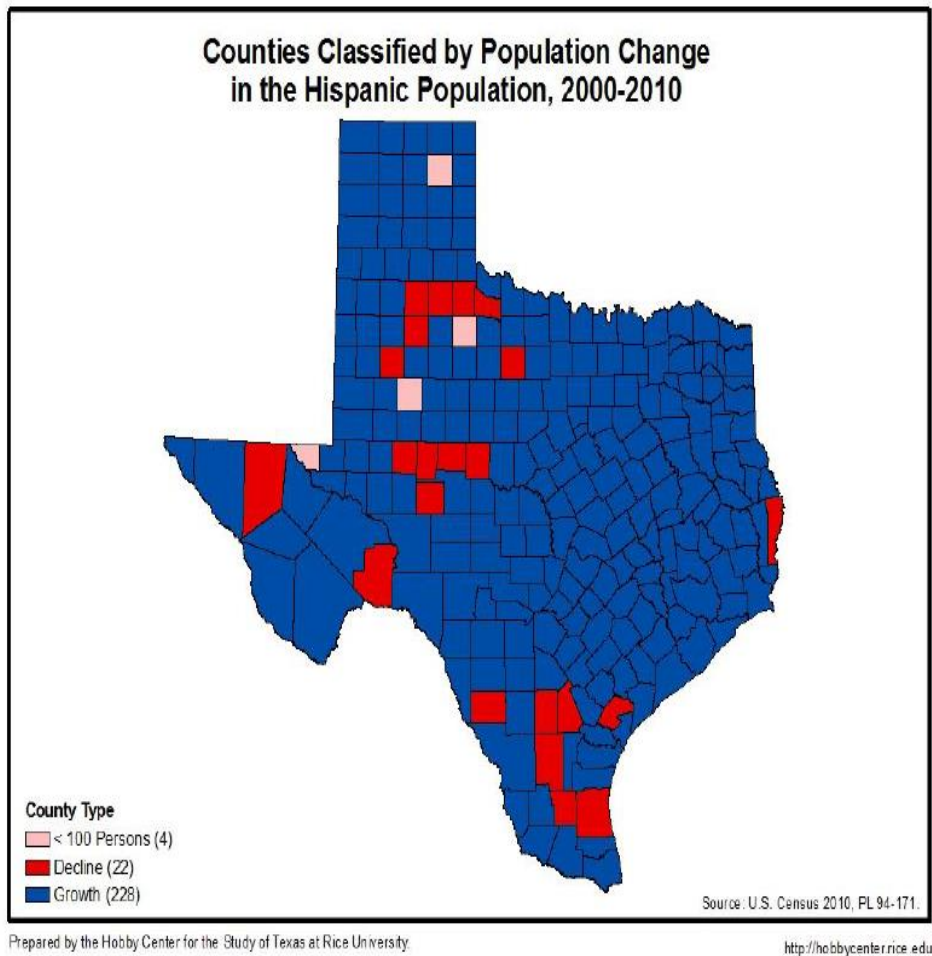


Figure 4. Counties Classified by Population Change in Hispanic Pop., 2000-2010

Source: Hobby Center for the Study of Texas at Rice University, 2010.

Research Questions

The following four questions will be utilized to guide this historical study:

1. Have educational opportunities been created at the universities located along the South Texas border?
2. Have Mexican American students residing in South Texas experienced an increase in the attainment of higher-level degrees in comparison to White students?
3. Are Mexican American students residing on the South Texas border prone to migrate to other universities to attain a higher education in a Tier 1 university in Texas?
4. To what extent is the historical framework provided by Tyack and Cuban useful in understanding and analyzing higher education inequity in Texas?

Significance of the Study

After the case *LULAC vs. Richards* 1987, the STBI has brought a temporary alleviation to many of the educational discriminatory conflicts in South Texas for Mexican Americans. Nevertheless, forces continue to stunt Mexican Americans' educational progress and opportunities. Some continue to face the issue of the proximity to higher education in Texas propelling the issue of equity in higher education opportunities to the forefront. Tienda and Niu (2006) contend that:

Students enrolled at the less selective public institutions, including those students who graduate at the top of their class, consider cost, financial aid, academic support, institutional recruitment efforts, and distance to home in making their college choices, whereas those who attend one of the flagships place greater importance on academic reputation, institutional prestige, and social life. (p. 336)

Since financial affordability becomes an issue when most border students did not leave home to pursue higher education, the accessibility to only substandard education becomes problematic (Jones & Kauffman, 1994). Since then, waves of Mexican Americans and Central Americans have populated Texas causing a population shift. With the new added pressure of a population

shift from non-Hispanic Whites, to Hispanics, Texas cannot afford for Mexican Americans to refrain from becoming productive citizens of society. As Mexican Americans are becoming the dominate group in Texas, they need to bring socioeconomic balance to society by having access to equal and equitable education. For this reason, it is surprising that the Texas Joint Committee of South Texas responding to the recommendations of the STBI decided to implement changes without an accountability system. This step is perceived to undermine the collective nature of Mexican Americans educational progress by forcing them to be subjected to a substandard education. For Texas to prosper economically, the interests of the dominate group will have to shift its focus to the education of Hispanics.

There is no question that the South Texas Border Initiative influenced the number of programs made available to Mexican American students. However, considerable numbers of research studies continue to reveal educational deficiencies in Mexican Americans' higher education in spite of the implementation of the STBI. Mexican Americans need to become aware of the factors that are causing their educational advances to be irrevocably fading. This study is designed to evaluate the case of *LULAC vs. Richards* (1987) and determine the circumstances that elicited the lawsuit. This evaluation specifies the reasoning that translated the problems into needs that became the backbone of the intervention goals implemented by STBI. Through a historical research, the plan of action conjured by the STBI will be concluded to assess to what extent if any the interventions were executed and effective. Thus, the public can become aware of the factors that continue to impede Mexican Americans in Texas from prospering educationally and have the ammunition to advocate for changes in the system.

Nature of the Study

In order to understand the true impact of the STBI in this region; this study reexamines the nine institutions that received STBI funds. Utilizing the Tyack and Cuban's policy cycles framework, an assessment is conducted to find out whether or not the STBI fulfilled its purpose in improving the quality and quantity of post-secondary education in the South Texas border region. A historical research was chosen to compile the secondary data analysis to determine the 41 counties as stipulated in the lawsuit of *LULAC vs. Richards* (1987). The 41 counties of Texas were found to be in close proximity to a U.S.-Mexico international port of entry. Within these 41 counties are the nine postsecondary institutions examined. The universities in this study consist of the following: Texas A&M International University, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi, Texas A&M University-Kingsville, University of Texas at Brownville, University of Texas at El Paso, University of Texas-Pan American, and University of Texas at San Antonio, Sul Ross University, Rio Grande College, and University of Texas Health Science Center San Antonio. Figure 5 below shows how THECB divides the regions of Texas. Most of the nine universities fall under South Texas region and two are listed under the Upper Rio Grande region.

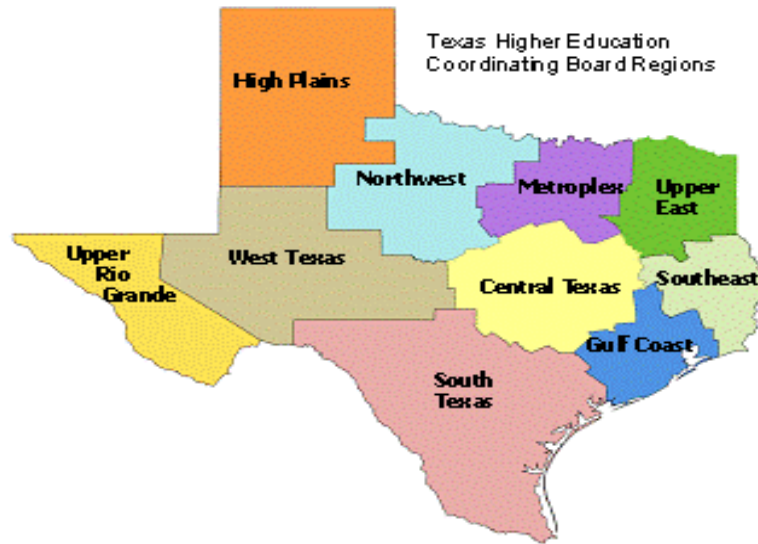


Figure 5. THEBC Region Map

Source: THECB-Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012

The assessment will begin with a historical case study to determine the past educational conditions for Mexican Americans and those of groups whose successes or failures had a domino effect on Mexican Americans educational opportunities. Detail information regarding the events that led to the *LULAC vs. Richards* (1987) lawsuit is presented as evidence of Mexican Americans short coming in the educational arena. The assessed court findings pinpoint the problem areas merited attention. There is disclosure of the planning process established for the intervention by the STBI. There is a discussion on the agreed intervention goals conjured by the STBI. Using the historical research, makes it possible to track information relevant to changes in issues, situations, and conditions to determine the effectiveness of the intervention initiated by STBI are sufficiently meeting their purpose. Only clearly related aspects of the South Texas border universities are addressed.

Evaluation of the STBI needs emphasis. It has been spurred by the factors, including demands for accountability, interest in improving educational opportunities for Mexican Americans and an increase of higher-level degrees obtained by Mexican Americans in comparison to Whites. Thus, the Tyack and Cuban's policy cycle framework assists in providing proof that the money allocated by the STBI for intervention accomplished the intended purposes. After collecting the data regarding the past and recent university subsystems, the subsystems and the universities within them are depicted on graphs for comparison. This framework makes it possible to measure the output of what the STBI did for the educational progress of Mexican Americans utilizing graphs. Assessing educational progress of Mexican Americans through the comparison of past and present data is feasible with this framework to evaluate the information incrementally. The depiction of higher-level degrees attained by them in comparison to Whites, availability diverse programs within local vicinity in comparison to those in distant proximity, and Mexican Americans migrating habits in comparison to Whites are illustrated using graphs. This historical case study will satisfy the public's skepticism of the STBI in the context of obligation to learn about the effects of the interventions. Providing feedback to the public arms them with fuel to improve circumstances for Mexican Americans.

Definition of Terms

The following terms were used operationally in this study:

1. Mexican Americans- their origin, were part Indian, part Spanish, and African who have become residents of the United States (Barrera, 1979, p.1)
2. Border Region-The case encompassed 41 counties of Texas and some of those counties are located more than 150 miles of the US-Mexico international boundary.

Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations

There are potential assumptions, limitations, and delimitations in this study that need consideration. The following assumptions were present in this study:

1. It is assumed that Mexican Americans residing in the South Texas border shared the same interest in seeking for educational opportunities as in the past.
2. It is assumed that this study is an accurate representation of the current situation in rural South Texas. There is also the assumption that the funding allocated is a sufficient amount to make continuous educational improvements when the intervention plan was conjured regardless of the inflation throughout time.

For example, the following limitations/delimitations were present in this study:

1. The limitation of conducting this study is that there may be interpretive differences, because of the unique role of the researcher and the proximity of the research to the subject; therefore, bias may be introduced by the researcher.
2. Information regarding Mexican Americans in higher education was limited to only information that resulted after findings brought by the Office of Civil Rights in the late 1970; limiting the demographic information. Since, early on, Mexican Americans shared the same racial classification as Whites; Mexican American enrollment could not be identified to detect discriminatory acts.
3. The fact that the researcher has lived along the Texas border since 1984, and is of Mexican American decent may have led to a social desirability effect.

Summary and Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The *LULAC vs. Richards* (1987) lawsuit began the wave of educational opportunities for Mexican Americans residing in South Texas. This lawsuit influenced the initiation of the STBI

which has distributed funding to create equity and equality of educational opportunities for Mexican Americans (Legislative Reference Library of Texas, 1989, p.19). Tyack and Cuban (1995) purport it has made the government a major force in the abolishment of discriminatory and oppressive acts against Mexican Americans. Perna et. al. (2009) felt that the 1987 lawsuit has created a powerful coalition within the Mexican American community that seeks to bridge the educational gap between Whites and Mexican Americans. In addition, it has produced the beginnings of the ideology that Mexican Americans are equal citizens of the United States, which has governed reform efforts. It has helped alleviate the disastrous discrimination and oppression of Mexican Americans. Consequently, one thing that the lawsuit had not done is ensure equity and equality. Many of the basic problems of discrimination and oppression remain unmeasured for resolution. Vega and Martinez (2008) discovered that Mexican Americans remain with limited education opportunities. Jones and Kauffman (1994) found that the educational opportunities are as they have been before the implementation of the STBI. Anderson and Gerber (2008) noted unintentional negative effects have the tendency to infiltrate good intentions. Therefore, this study is intended to supply the public with some information about what the STBI has done to battle oppression and promote social and economic justice for Mexican Americans.

Chapter 2-Literature Review

Introduction and Background

Budgetary allocations sparked unexpected concerns over the alleged inequitable portioning to Hispanics in higher education. Not surprisingly, the politicians insisted they brought apt educational opportunities to Hispanics in the border cities of Texas. Conversely, many do not share this perspective, voicing a stronger inclination for equity that leads to the access of educational and occupational opportunities. The struggle over educational opportunities turned dramatically on the availability of a plethora of educational opportunities for the growing Hispanic minority population anticipated to be dominant in the United States. The lack of equity has limited access to higher educational opportunities for Mexican Americans. Thus, inequity continues to generate discriminatory patterns: diminished educational opportunities, reduced level of educational achievement, and limited economic advancement for Mexican Americans. Whether discrimination is intentional or not, it has been detrimental to Mexican Americans' educational and economic livelihood. Mexican Americans have grown increasingly preoccupied with the persistent oppression and discriminatory actions against them in the educational arena. Although the Texas Joint Committee of South Texas has attempted for a time to turn back the wave of inequity and inequality of education for Mexican Americans, tangible evidence of the effectiveness of the efforts is scarce. As the Mexican Americans' educational gap continues to increase, the demand for an evaluation of the STBI has increased. There is a need to know the outcome of the Joint Committee's efforts in overseeing the STBI through policy evaluation. Besides, the Joint Committee is obligated to reveal clearly all that has transpired to heighten the awareness of Mexican Americans' unmet needs.

Theoretical Foundations

For the STBI to be effective as an intervention for educational equality and equity there must be an accountability system in place to recognize whether the interventions employed are serving their purpose. This may seem easy to accomplish, but developing effective strategies to evaluate what STBI did is not always simple. Even though there is the anticipation that the best plan approach is the historical framework provided by Tyack and Cuban, many factors can challenge the conclusions about the effectiveness of the STBI. Uncertainty is present because previous research has not established the usefulness in understanding and analyzing higher education inequity in Texas with this framework. Therefore, usefulness of the framework is pending results upon the conclusion of this research. The STBI has evolved without undergoing monitoring and assessment. Therefore, the implication is that the STBI has not been as effective as one wants to believe. There is a demand of assurance that the funding allocated to South Texas has created educational opportunities at the universities located along the South Texas border for Mexican Americans. Still, the Joint Committee might report educational opportunities have increased for Mexican Americans with no corresponding increase in the attainment of higher-level degrees in comparison to White students. These types of findings ordain an accurate evaluation. On the other hand, additional funding for universities in South Texas may not have produced an increase in educational opportunities, yet the need may not be justified because of Mexican American students residing on the South Texas border may be prone to migrate to other Texas universities to attain a higher education in a Tier 1 university instead. This historical research is designed to satisfy the four questions in order to bring forth evidence that prove the usefulness of the STBI and the needs met or unmet.

Review of the Literature

Policy talk begins with a cohesive and coherent understanding of the historical events that pressured Mexican Americans to demand policy action. The journey began with the segregation of Mexican Americans in Texas public schools that has long been down played or outright ignored. Although, essential social changes had altered the nature of education in Texas, early records indicate discrimination was prominent in the Texas society. In a variety of ways, minorities such as Hispanics bore educational hardships imposed by a series of restrictions even though they were under the protection of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. In response to the need for educational improvement, Funkhouser (1996) explains the Permanent School Fund (PSF) in 1854 and Section I, Article VII were state initiatives that supplied funding to public schools, which became a major educational resource for Texas. PSF allotted funds to districts on a per capita basis. Despite the greatness of this act in providing access to education, the accessibility to an equitable education was prolonged for Mexican Americans and other minorities. Since minorities, who were guaranteed an education due to racial status, economical, or educational impoverishment were perceived as inferior, they were supplied with a substandard education. For schooling amelioration, Whites attended private schools or community enterprises leaving segregated schools to Hispanics and other minorities as their only alternative rather than being excluded for the educational arena. Sadly, immediately after the Civil War in 1865, African Americans resumed their position in society as second-class citizens by accepting segregation due the imposition of the Jim Crow Laws that were also applied to Mexican Americans (Divine, R. A., Breen, T. H., Fredrickson, G. M., Williams, R. H., Gross, A. J., and Brands, H. W., 2005).

Not too long after in 1918, all American children were mandated enrollment through at least elementary school. Mexican Americans' migrant lifestyle made it extremely difficult to

educate them and their children. For most of the Mexicans and Mexican Americans, the dream of reaping economic and social status through education was only a fantasy at this time. During reconstruction, when African Americans took advantage of the educational opportunities in segregated schools, it opened the Pandora box to segregation for Mexicans and Mexican Americans.

After legislators witnessed the costly adverse effects reaped from minorities' oppression, following the Civil War, legislators worked quickly and rewrote the Texas Constitution moving the state towards a system of anti-Jim Crow segregation. Following the Civil War and the reconstruction of Texas, the legislature began to reevaluate its policy for the education of African Americans. According to Shabazz (2004), this did not last long when a dual system of education would ensue for the following century. Whites' reluctance to relinquish political power ensured the allocation of federal funds in a manner that preserved their hegemony and concomitant subordination of the state's minorities. A dual system of education, known as segregated schools, was established to meet the bare minimum of the Morrill Act's stipulations that gave Blacks the access to higher education, which inadvertently affected all minorities. Forcefully, Hispanics attended segregated or second-rate schools capped at sixth grade. Since Mexican farmhands were not required to attend school, many times they were discouraged from doing so, which had a negative impact on their educational opportunity (Funkhouser, 1996). The uneasiness of Hispanics to attend school turned to disillusionment and anger when faced with the restriction to speak Spanish, and having to settle for a substandard curriculum (Stein, 1985).

The Aftermath of WWII on K-12 Schooling

In order for Hispanics to overcome the discriminatory acts, during the 1930s, the League for United Latin American Citizens (LULAC), the premier Mexican Americans leadership

organization of its time, was created in their behalf. LULAC wanted to begin exodus from the world of discrimination moving toward the identification of an American with equal rights deemed by their Whites racial status. Following the shortage of American workers who were off fighting WWII, the U.S. Government's decision to transport Mexican laborers in the United States to fill the workforce vacancy through the Bracero Program further setback the efforts by LULAC to inherit equality. The United States attracted Mexican because it offered better-paying jobs than were available in their homelands. By the end of World War II, there were substantial Mexican and Mexican American communities. As long as Mexican laborers and their families continued to migrate to the United States, LULAC members understood that their communities' path to cultural assimilation would never gain traction because of the never-ending influx of cultural differences that set them apart.

Mexicans' reluctance to relinquish their cultural identity increased the intensity of discrimination by Whites. Unfortunately, as the migration of the Mexican laborer continued, so too would the ethnic discrimination of all Mexicans, for Whites made no distinction between a Mexican and a Mexican American. Regardless of LULAC's efforts to separate themselves from being identified as Mexicans instead of Mexican Americans, LULAC leaders were forced to protect the civil rights of all people of Mexican descent, in order to protect their own (Banks, 1987; Kaplowitz, 2005). Therefore, for the general well-being of Mexicans and in the interest of preserving the identity of Mexican Americans, LULAC felt obligated to oppose the Bracero Program. During the 1940s, LULAC's persistence in opposing the Bracero Program had paid off in getting both Texas and the Mexican government to opt out of the program that facilitated the abuse of Mexican laborers, a tactic that did little to halt the migration of the Mexican worker (Kaplowitz, 2005).

Early on, LULAC members had supported the war efforts and campaigned for the enlistment of Mexican American men, believing that their loyal service to the United States could somehow grant them an American status. Upon the return of Mexican American servicemen to the U.S. following the end of WWII, their hopes were quickly shattered when faced with the same old civil rights violations and Jim Crow restrictions as Blacks. Education had continued to be a key initiative of LULAC, further energizing servicemen to the issues of schooling for minority children. In 1948, WWII servicemen gathered in Corpus Christi, Texas, to form the American G.I. Forum, which worked to improve veteran services and end school segregation (Allsup, 1977; Kaplowitz, 2005). Knowing that by improving on the education of minority children, they too would be improving the economic conditions of Mexican Americans. One of the first minorities to advance desegregation was Blacks who made their most significant mark on the schooling of Black children with the *Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka* lawsuit.

However, long before the historical decision, Mexican Americans too had filed suits on issues of segregation and race, with limited success because the law did not recognize beyond other minority groups besides those of Blacks. Since Mexican Americans racial identity fell under the umbrella of Whites, racial discrimination against Mexican Americans was considered to be nonexistent. It would not be until the U.S. Supreme Court Decision in *Cisneros* that Mexican Americans would be recognized in the school system as a distinct minority group protected under the 14th Amendment (San Miguel, 1987). Without a doubt, the success of the *Brown* lawsuit created a domino effect that propelled other racial discrimination cases to gain momentum throughout Texas' and the United States' courts. The aftermath of WWII, had not only sparked activism in Mexican Americans, but had also sparked shifts in the fabric of

American society. According to Tyack & Benavot (1985), “a key force bringing about the changes in law was the power of organized protest groups that mobilized minority constituencies, dramatized their demands through skillful publicity and actions, and devised strategies to bypass government agencies that ignored or demeaned them” (p. 372). Another social phenomenon took place in 1957 known as the space race, or the Sputnik Crisis, pushing the U.S. government to its’ brink and forcing the American government into an era of educational reform, a process that would soon force the national government to examine the schooling of minority children (Tyack & Cuban, 1995).

As Americans worked on improving schools, so too, would the Mexican American leadership, during the Civil Rights Movement, litigate for greater parity among state supported schools for the advancement of underserved minority groups. During this time, the law seemed to be the avenue in which to bring about the most significant change for minority progress (San Miguel, 1987; Tyack & Benavot, 1985; Allups, 1977). Table 1 shows the estimates of appellate cases filed in the United States involving the issues of race, language, ethnicity and religion from 1810 to 1981 illustrating a clear escalation of state lawsuits involving these issues from 1957 to 1976. Prior to the 1950s, educational issues were simply left to the devises of state and local school officials (Allups, 1977). According to Allups (1977), the aftermath of *Brown* in 1954 stimulated an increase in court involvement regarding school governance issues turning the tide against the ethnic prejudices of state and local officials.

Table 4. Estimated Number of Appellate Cases Involving Issues of Race, Language, Ethnicity, and Religion
(1810-1981)

(Litigation rates per million population in parentheses)

	1810- 1896	1897- 1906	1907- 1916	1917- 1926	1927- 1936	1937- 1946	1947- 1956	1957- 1966	1967- 1976	1977- 1981
ETHNICITY/LANGUAGE										
1. Curriculum and Courses of Study (e.g., bilingual education)	3 (*)	1 (*)	0 (*)	3 (.03)	0 (*)	0 (*)	1 (*)	0 (*)	6 (.03)	5 (.04)
RELIGION										
2. Religious Instruction/ Prayer	13 (.05)	10 (.13)	3 (.03)	5 (.05)	3 (.02)	5 (.04)	10 (.06)	16 (.09)	6 (.03)	16 (.07)
RACE										
3. Separate Schools for "Colored" Pupils; Desegregation	13 (.05)	9 (.12)	8 (.09)	5 (.05)	13 (.11)	7 (.05)	21 (.14)	151 (.83)	1457 (7.05)	644 (5.60)
4. Race or Color; Separate Taxation	47 (.19)	11 (.14)	11 (.12)	11 (.10)	7 (.06)	4 (.03)	3 (.02)	28 (.15)	6 (.03)	0 (*)

*Rates less than .01 are not reported. Italicized figures are estimates of cases based upon a 30% sample of entries per page in the subcategory. Sources: West's Century Digest (1897) and the 1st through 9th decennial digests. Peterson (1935) reports 42 separate taxation cases between 1870 and 1934 which were not reported in the West decennial digests; these are included in category #4.

Figure 6. Estimated Number of Appellate Cases Involving Issues of Race, Language, Ethnicity, and Religion (1810)

Source: Tyack & Benavot, 1985, p. 366.

School Segregation Litigation

In the face of vigorous efforts from Whites to limit minorities' educational opportunities, the early Mexican American civil rights leaders used non-violent policies and tactics to abolish segregated public schools that would later be implemented by the black movement in the 1950's and 1960's (Kaplowitz, 2005; Behnken, 2011). In 1929, the *Del Rio I.S.D. vs. Salvatierra* case was the first effort by Mexican Americans in Texas to challenge segregated schools. The court ruled in favor of the defendants due to the unintentional and reasonable segregation of Mexican children by reverting to the 1876 Constitution that ordained the segregation of Mexican children

to be constitutional (Preuss, 2009; Rangel & Alcala, 1972). In essence, this ruling gave local school officials the administrative power to segregate Mexican children for the first three years of schooling due to language barriers determined by pedagogical tests administered to all students upon school enrollment (Allsup, 1977; Rangel & Alcala, 1972; Valencia, 2008).

After this unsuccessful victory, whatever chances there were for the ending of discrimination vanished for Children of Mexican Americans. It created intense opposition as children of Mexican Americans continued to be facilitated in substandard school buildings, segregated via the absence of legal regulatory oversights, the implementation of pedagogical handicaps, and bias selective busing or redistricting of school attendance zones. Special interest groups such as LULAC, American G.I. Forum, and MALDEF worked earnestly to gain community support and financial funding for judicial redress of these issues (Allsup, 1977). Subsequently, due to the economic turmoil of the Great Depression, all efforts to secure Mexican American rights were obstructed until the case of *Delgado vs. Bastrop I. S. D.* (1948). Mexican Americans once again advocated for the rights of their children as an attempt to break away from segregation. In this case, the court reverted to the segregation of Mexican children into separate schools to be unconstitutional (Landino, 1996; Valencia, 1991). Conversely, the court ruling prohibited the segregation of Mexican children in separate schools, yet included the stipulation that Mexican children had to successfully pass language proficiency testing or otherwise remain in a segregated educational setting.

Mexican Americans would continue to be confronted with White resistance following the *Delgado* verdict. The growing resistance did prompt the creation of loopholes by White school officials in keeping Mexican American children segregated from White children. Texas school desegregation cases were often pigeonholed by Whites causing Mexican Americans to “exhaust all administrative remedies” in order to keep the cases out of the court system (Valencia, 2008, p.

54). That realization was a reason for many cases filed by Mexican Americans settling out of court. Yet, a spirit of righteous indignation grew among Mexican Americans who came to view segregation as unjust driving their unwillingness to relent the fight for educational parity. Others, like in the *Driscoll* case, were persistent in their efforts leading to a ten-year litigation battle making the case of *Hernandez vs. Driscoll (1948)* the key to their victory in overturning the Delgado decree bringing them closer to educational equality (Valencia, 2008; Allsup, 1977). In the case of *Driscoll*, the federal court prohibited campus segregation, but allowed classroom segregation in the first grade to facilitate the process of remedying any academic deficiencies. Since Mexican Americans found themselves drawn into the same pattern of segregation that had outraged so many Mexican Americans, the American G.I. Forum in 1957 filed a lawsuit against the Driscoll Consolidated Independent School District for segregation. Nothing produced more distress for Whites than this court ruling that ordained the grouping of separate classes to be arbitrary and unreasonable because it further delineated between segregation and desegregation. Although the fight for desegregation in many parts of Texas would continue well into the 1970s, in spite of earlier court decrees, some school districts agreed to discontinue segregating for fear of federal sanctions.

As case decrees continued to be ignored by many school districts, Mexican Americans continued to readdress the same issues in court as evident with the court filing of *Chapa vs. Odem Independent School District (1967)*. Once again, the court ruled that the segregation of Mexican children based on language deficiencies was unconstitutional (Valencia, 2008). The inability of Mexican American society to become increasingly distinctive became another social justice challenge affecting their efforts to break away from discrimination. During the fierce debate over desegregation of Mexican Americans, a powerful movement arose to make Mexican American society distinctive from Whites through the litigation of California's *Mendez vs.*

Westminster (1948) and *Hernandez vs. Texas (1954)* giving credence to *Cisneros vs. Corpus Christi ISD (1971)*. These cases were victorious in recognizing Mexican Americans as a distinct minority group in public schooling protected under the 14th Amendment in Texas putting to rest the applicability of the *Brown* decree on Mexican Americans schooling.

Persistent use of busing and redistricting of school attendance zones as vehicles to segregate Mexican children proliferated the reexamination of court findings in response to Whites attempts to find loopholes. The engagement of lawsuits *Cisneros vs. Corpus Christi Independent School District (1971)*, *Ross vs. Eckel (1970)*, and *Alvarado vs. El Paso I. S. D. (1972)* together with reform helped bring to the courts a powerful moral component and a commitment to redeem the rights of Mexican Americans. These cases exposed districts' ill intents to uphold segregation using bias busing and attendance zoning. However, the lack of enforcement allowed school officials in Texas to continue to ignore both the court decree in *Cisneros* and the 1950 Texas Agency policy statement calling for the desegregation of schools (San Miguel, 1987; Rangel & Alcala, 1972; Valencia, 2008). Rangel & Alcala (1972) stated, "The intention of state and local officials, throughout the history of public education in Texas, explicitly embraced the concept of segregation with its concomitant deleterious effects upon school children of all ages" (p.319).

Several factors made funding still another loophole possible for the continuation of discriminatory acts against Mexican Americans. The manifestation of disappointments continued, as with the ruling of *San Antonio Independent School District vs. Rodriguez* case (1971), where the U.S. Supreme Court decreed education as not being a fundamental right making equal or equitable funding unnecessary. The most conspicuous result of the ruling was the creation of vast educational opportunities for Whites while the majority of the population, which was minorities, advanced academically at a much slower rate or not at all due to uneven

tax rates. Mexican Americans were under the presumption that they had finally addressed the educational equity of Mexican Americans in 1993, when they were successful in *Edgewood vs. Kirby* (1984), which decreed access to equitable funding for schools. For a short period of time, Senate Bill 7, known as the *Robin Hood Plan*, forced the wealthier districts to share their funds and not exceeded the \$1.50 tax cap that poorer districts could not afford to pay in order to equalize the funding among districts. However, *West Orange-Cove Consolidated I. S. D. vs. Neeley* (2004) changed the rules by allowing the wealthier districts to keep the excess funds generated after meeting the \$1.50 tax cap, thus reducing the funds going to the poorer districts making the educational opportunities for Mexican Americans inadequate and inequitable. The problem, as the series of cases have illustrated, is that most efforts to improve educational opportunities for Mexican Americans failed because the gains made simply could not sustain permanent change. The social and political climate of American society continued to shift back and forth, and with it the social feelings for educational parity of minority children. It is important to note that despite many disappointments, Mexican Americans did not give up on their hope for educational equality. Allsup (1977) wrote, “the struggle to change, reform, and/or share in the available benefits of American society has been constant, indeed vigorous (p. 46).

Among the responses to the search for the preservation of minorities’ rights in the educational arena was the rise of a few national policy advances. In 1965, the United States Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Act as an active support for disadvantaged children to meet higher educational standards (San Miguel, 1987). The educational, political, and legal achievements of Mexican Americans in mostly the Southwestern United States would eventually swing the pendulum to abolish the English only law and enact the Texas Bilingual Education Act of 1973, which would eventually impact all levels of education in Texas. After much opposition, the state finally responded by forming Language Proficiency Assessment

Committees (LPAC) to oversee the bilingual education programs followed by amendments in 1981 that mandated the monitoring of local districts by the Texas Education Agency (San Miguel, 1987). The discriminatory system that evolved during Grades K through 12th would also set the tone for higher education in Texas.

The Need for the Establishment of Higher Education in Texas

In 1837, the legislature introduced a bill for the incorporation of the University of Texas (Benedict, 1917). In 1838, the President of the Republic of Texas, Mirabeau B. Lamar, in his message to the Third Congress made clear his intent to establish a public system of education. He states,

Admittedly by all, that cultivated minds is the guardian genius of democracy, and while guided and controlled by virtue, is the hottest attribute of man. It is the only dictator that freemen acknowledge, and the only security that freemen desire. The influence of education in the moral worlds is like [light] in the physical, rendering luminous what was before obscure. It opens a wide field for the exercise and improvement of all the faculties of man, and imparts vigor and clearness to those important truths in the science of government, as well as of morals, which would otherwise be lost in the darkness of ignorance. (Benedict, 1917, p. 3)

In 1839, Mr. Cullen, member of the education committee, made clear that education needed the prompt attention and efficient action of the state legislature (Ibid, 1917). His report pushed the legislature to begin financially planning for the future of a public system of education. Three things were accomplished: (1) the legislature appropriated land, these lands were mapped and surveyed; (2) Texas Legislature stipulated that the leasing of these lands would not run for more than three years; (3) and congress agreed that all monies collected from such lands would be put

aside into an endowment fund that would go to build and support schools. Following these actions, the legislature parceled four leagues of land to each county for educational purposes and fifty leagues of land for the establishment of two colleges or universities (Benedict, 1917; Lane, 1891; Eby, 2010; Whisenhunt, 1983). At this same time, they decided to build two colleges to be located in Austin and Nacogdoches. It would not be until 1845 when the Constitution of Texas mandated the taxation of property for the support of schools (Benedict, 1917; Lane, 1891; Eby, 2010; Whisenhunt, 1983). It also stipulated that taxes collected were for the use of Texas schooling, which would soon change.

During the time, Texas was a Republic and became part of the United States in 1845, most learning occurred at home, in private schools, or in religious institutions (Eby, 2010). Citizens who sought to overcome educational hardships participated in growth and development of postsecondary education by pushing for the establishment of a Texas public university. Therefore, it was the early intent of state legislators to provide for the postsecondary education of Whites in Texas as an effort to increase and retain their population. According to Eby (2010), there was also talk surrounding the opposition of sending one's children to places that supported the abolishment of slavery. The emergence of the University of Texas at Austin was to transform educational opportunities for the advancement of Texas society and the preservation of Texas ideologies.

However, war caused many setbacks to the erection of the University of Texas at Austin. There was growing resentment against the annexation of Mexican land granted to the United States that caused the funneling of financial support into the frontier defense to help the U.S. retain the land granted by the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848 (Howell, 2004, p. 26). Therefore, in 1852, the proliferation of war expenses was the reason for the reallocation of a

large portion of the funds to frontier defense without precedence to the construction of the university. Since the university's budget was subject to compromise by nonnegotiable expenses, others took note and endeavored to exploit the opportunity of having access to the funds. An effective tool for having access was presented by Governor Bell who advocated for the reallocation of a portion of the university's monies for the support of private institutions. The need that had no other recourse to educate the state's youth determined the shifting of funds in support of the private institutions in the State of Texas.

Another major move happened in 1853, when Governor Pease asked for the building of "[...] one well endowed institution of the kind" to be built (Benedict, 1917, p. 23). This seems to be the start of what would lead to the lengthy oppositions found amongst congressional representatives concerning the establishment of either one or two universities in Texas.

In 1858, the Congress of Texas and then Governor Sam Houston would have to repeal the University Act of 1836 to appropriate funds and bonds meant for the university in order to pay for the military troops in "defense against the Indians and Mexican marauders on the Rio Grande." (Benedict, 1917, pp. 25-35). He states,

I believe the condition of the treasury and our immediate necessities demand that the act be repealed, and the money used for the protection of our frontier, and to save us from taxation, more than for a fund, which promises no immediate benefit. Our common school fund already provides for the education contemplated by the Constitution, and if this amount, thus unnecessarily withdrawn from the general fund, will reduce the burthens of taxation, the people will be better able, in the future, to bear taxation to support a University, if one should be necessary. (Benedict, 1917, p.174)

Subsequently, this bill passed. The people of the State of Texas, facing hard times, agreed to repeal the university act considering the financial shape of the treasury. Much of the funding was to go to pay for the troops positioned along the Rio Grande. It seemed that securing the State of Texas would be costly to the establishment of the University of Texas. Yet, another obstacle to the establishment of the University of Texas at Austin happened in 1861. The Civil War would stall the development of the University of Texas at Austin until the war ceased in 1865. The state would abandon the United States and joined the Confederate Army (Norton et al., 1990). Following this war, Texas congressional representatives would continue to argue for replacement of the University of Texas endowment fund that was to support these two efforts. Lane's (1917) speech attests to the difficulties in establishing the University of Texas. It reads as follows:

Not only has the University of Texas has [had] to contend all along with popular prejudice against the 'university idea' of higher education, but it had to contest such recurring influences in legislation and State departments. Like such institutions in other States, it has been victim of capricious enactments, its necessities being too often disregarded, and in some instances, its funds being imperiously diverted by the legislature and not always restored. While at times it has been munificently treated by the State, at others the State through its' legislate has even denied any indebtedness to it moneys absolutely taken for public exigencies from the University fund. Such, with other reasons, which will be referred to further along as they present themselves in the history of the institution, were great difficulties, which the University has had to contend (Lane, 1903, pgs. 5-6).

Therefore, for many years while plans were being made for the first public university and while Blacks were still being enslaved, denominational colleges and universities were the first to

satisfy the White's desire for higher education (Benedict, 1917; Whisenhunt, 1983). Universities and colleges that supplied higher education, early on, were:

Table 1. Denominational Colleges and Universities of Texas (Mid-1840s to Late 1860s)

Name of School	When Established	No. of Teachers	No. of Students	Value of Property
Baylor College	1845	12	350	200,000
St. Joseph's College	1866	4	75	25,000
Chappell Hill Female College	1852	6	25	20,000
University of St. Mary	1854	11	135	125,000
St. Mary's College	1852	14	463	200,000
Austin College	1849	11	202	150,000
Baylor University	1845	65	1329	600,000
Trinity University	1869	17	250	100,000

Adapted Source: TSHA, 1911, pp. 104-105.

Table 1 above shows the early denominational colleges and universities established in Texas prior to 1870. Today, a well-known denominational university that still is in existence is Baylor University. Several colleges and universities mentioned above are not included in the Texas Census of 1911; it may be because these particular institutions also did not survive the consequences of the Civil War. Legislature's acknowledgement of the economic and social needs and desires of the community caused the shifting of attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts of higher education bringing urgency to the expeditious development of universities in Texas. Prior changes in Texas population also altered the way education was addressed. Following the Civil War and the reconstruction of Texas, the legislature began to reevaluate its policy for the education of African Americans that became the impetus for the adoption of the Morrill Act of 1862.

The Morrill Land Grant Act of 1890, also known as the Agricultural College Act of 1890, helped with the creation of agricultural colleges and mechanical curricula while being designed to bring higher education to former slaves, as they were unable to gain entrance

to colleges and universities for Whites. This act led to the creation of 17 historically Black land grant colleges in the former Confederate states, which had the apparently unintended consequence of buttressing racial segregation in higher education, insofar as the act called on states either to admit freed slaves to their existing land grant colleges and universities or to create new postsecondary institutions for qualified students.

(Safransky, 2011, p.1)

The 1862 Morrill Land Grant Act provided African Americans with two public institutions of higher education in Texas that put an end to the state's long and overdue reliance on denominational universities and colleges (Benedict, 1917, pp. 209-211). "By 1873, however, the Texas legislature began repealing most of the Reconstruction laws, and the brief and limited episode of nonracial school access became a faint memory" (Shabazz, 2004 p.10). For this reason, the manifestation of University of Texas at Austin had not become a reality without state intervention until 1881.

Shabazz (2004) outlined the discriminatory precedents of higher education in Texas after the federally funded intervention of the 1862 Morrill Act that established the State Agricultural and Mechanical College for Colored Youths, later known as Prairie View A & M College. The impact of this college was compromised by being inadequately funded in comparison to White only state supported institutions as described by Shabazz (2004). Unfortunately, this lack of equitable resources, programs of study, and facilities drove African Americans who desired better educational opportunities to seek higher education out-of- state. To make things worse for African Americans, in 1876, Shabazz (2004) reported that the state created a dual system of higher education for Blacks that became the basis for future efforts to file lawsuits where both African Americans and Mexican Americans reaped benefits. Although argued by Shabazz (2004)

and Preuss (2009) that Mexican Americans did not suffer in the same form of de jure school segregation as Blacks in attending college, Mexican Americans did not escape suffrage.

De Leon (1999) found that early on the Mexican American community was able to gain access to American colleges. However, following emancipation of Blacks, Whites rebelled at the new and intimidating competition presented by freed Blacks. The result was a set of problems and concerns about their economic status that festered. Therefore, when Mexicans began to offer cheap labor that caused American wages to decline, Whites gradually stripped Mexicans of the little economic and political status they held (Kaplowitz, 2005). As these conditions of race intensified, the Mexican populace during the 19th Century in the southwest also began to experience challenges penetrating the racial barriers that had previously prevented only Blacks from enrolling into the universities. It is widely documented that the 19th Century Whites in Texas did not perceive the education of Mexican Americans as problematic. Arnolando De Leon (1999) writes, “the education of the Tejanitos remained a remote concern to white society; some Anglos believed in purposely keeping an uneducated proletariat, or at best, providing Tejanos only the fundamentals of learning” (p. 61).

By the middle of the 20th century, Mexican Americans realized that something needed to be done immediately to unmask the discriminatory acts against their ethnicity. Consequently, the differences found in the de jure segregation that Mexican Americans and Blacks suffered proved to work in favor of White elites in Texas and work against minority efforts aimed at fighting systematic discrimination. Until 1954, the case of *Hernandez vs. Texas* classified Mexican Americans as a distinct class protected under the fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution, which further attest to the racial discrimination suffered by Mexican Americans in spite of their White status. By the end of 1961, although numerous colleges had been erected, Blacks and Mexican Americans still had limited access to a higher education. In Table 2,

Shabazz (2004) outlines the state's institutions of higher education in Texas from 1871 to 1963 that kept their doors closed to Blacks and Mexican Americans.

**Table 2. Segregated Texas Senior Colleges by Year of Creation as State Supported
Institutions and Year Opening, 1871-1963**

Institution, City	Created	Opened
Texas A&M, College Station	1871	1876
Prairie View A&M College, Prairie View	1876	1879
Sam Houston State, Huntsville	1879	1879
Southwest Texas State College, San Marcos	1881	1883
University of Texas, Austin	1881	1883
University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston	1881	1891
North Texas State College, Denton	1899	1901
Texas Women's University, Denton	1901	1903
University of Texas Dental School, Houston	1905	1943
Texas Western College, El Paso	1913	1914
West Texas State College, Canyon	1913	1914
Arlington State College, Arlington	1917	1917
Tarleton State College, Stephenville	1917	1917
East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce	1917	1917
Sul Ross State College, Alpine	1917	1920
Stephen F. Austin State College, Nacogdoches	1917	1923
Texas College of Arts & Industries, Kingsville	1917	1925
Texas Technological College, Lubbock	1923	1925
Midwestern University, Wichita Falls	1946	1946
Texas Southern University, Houston	1947	1947
Southwestern Medical College, Dallas	1949	1949
Lamar State College of Technology, Beaumont	1949	1951
University of Houston, Houston	1961	1963

Source: Shabazz, 2004, p.7

Michael Olivas (2005) explains that few Mexican Americans in the 20th Century were able to attend college. In addition, he goes further to point out that no one, "[...] neither the state, nor private philanthropies, nor church groups established colleges [...]" for the Mexican American populace (p.180).

Conflicted Interest

The most important changes in Texas education were in K-12th grades due to the unconsolidated exertions of Mexican Americans and African Americans who fought for their civil rights. The Civil Rights movement encouraged Mexican Americans and African Americans to confront the most appalling aspects of discrimination under different motives. These different motives diluted their impact on higher education (Behenken, 2011; Kaplowitz, 2005; De Leon, 1999; Oliva, 2002). Mexican Americans demanded liberation from being second-class citizens, a well-deserved request, based on their white racial status, as stipulated in the Treaty of Guadalupe de Hidalgo. Whereas African Americans, pushed for their rights as equal citizens as granted by the Emancipation Proclamation. No doubt, Mexican Americans and African Americans used a different standard of their own discriminatory rhetoric about each other causing their fight for Civil Rights to be separate and feeble. Behenken (2011) concluded that some of the early Mexican Americans' litigation brought forth in K-12 grade level, by virtue of co dominating society, solely revolved their opposition of segregation around their children's segregation in classrooms with African American children. Mexican Americans discriminatory behaviors formed a division between the two groups that prevented them from establishing a unity front against the Jim Crow system of segregation in Texas.

Behenken (2011), Kaplowitz (2005), De Leon (1999), Oliva (2002) argue that Mexican Americans' biggest obstacle for equitable educational opportunities was LULAC's (League of Unified Latin American Citizens) persistence in camouflaging their existence. They insisted in continuing to identify themselves as part of the white race despite the efforts of the U.S. Census Department and the U.S. Social Security Department to ordain Mexican Americans with their own ethnic identification. Later, this factor would seriously impede Mexican Americans from

providing viable statistical proof of past discrimination practices on the race as stipulated in *LULAC vs. Richards* court proceedings. Up until then, most statistical data gathered by government agencies were based only on the two binary races that of White and Black, it wasn't until much later that government agencies started identifying all people from Latin America under the guise of "Hispanic", which further complicated matters for research on Mexican Americans. LULAC believed Whites were obligated in rendering Mexican Americans equal solely on their racial status instead of on basis of their solitary status. However, Shabazz (2004) and Olivas (2005) depict Mexican Americans as not encountering higher education exclusion as did Blacks. However, as this examination will show, this was not the case; the exclusion of Mexican Americans was indeed present and distinct from that of Blacks. Historically, Mexican Americans in Texas have and continue to suffer from systematic discrimination that has had and continues to have dire social and economic consequences for the advancement of this subpopulation.

Minorities Higher Educational Opportunities

The American G.I. Bill played a significant role in opening up access for minorities to enroll in higher education following World War II. Several African American cases were prominent at the beginning. The State of Texas had been known for creating "makeshift" programs of studies for Black students who sought admission to public universities (Shabazz, 2004 p. 84). In 1946, Heman Marion Sweatt, an African American male from Houston, Texas, was denied admission to the University of Texas School of Law by UT President Theophilus Painter. (Lavergne, 2010; Shabazz, 2004; Preuss, 2009). Determined to prohibit integration, the state establish a law school in Houston designated for all African Americans to satisfy the legal stipulation that derived from the 1896 *Plessy vs. Ferguson* court case that mandated separate but

equal. Unsatisfied with the substandard quality of the facilities, library resources and quantity of faculty, with the assistance of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, Sweatt filed the lawsuit *Sweatt vs. Painter*. His persistence paid off in 1950 when he was granted admission to the University of Texas School of Law because of the state's inability to provide an established educational opportunity for the study of law equivalent to that was offered at the University of Texas at Austin.

During this period, an equally impressive case occurred in 1949. Dr. Barnett overcame the racial barrier at the University of Texas Medical Branch (UTMB) when he became the first successful African-American to enroll in their medical program after overturning racially created contracts between Texas Southern University for Negroes (TSUN) and UT Austin admissions. According to Shabazz, (2004), a recent retiree of the army's elite Tuskegee aviators, Barnett was the first African American student in Texas that was granted full access to the University of Texas Medical School (UTMB) because Texas had not yet established a viable medical school for Blacks. At first, the President of UTMB allowed the enrollment of Barnett on the condition that his contract and degree would be from the Texas Southern University for Negroes (TSUN) in Houston. However, it was brought to the attention of the university president that the U.S. government would not honor or recognize these racially created contracts between TSUN and UT Austin. This act ultimately forced the university president to abandon its Jim Crow segregation and open their doors to him with no further provisions on his degree. In 1953, Barnett graduated and this event marked the end to TSUN-UTMB contract. This was a viable effort by the U.S. government officials to close loopholes designed to restrict minorities, who had served in the arm forces, from having educational access.

Despite the common discriminatory roots of African Americans and Mexican Americans, the Mexican Americans found educational opportunities difficult to access. Since Mexican

Americans were formally classified as Whites, records are full of integrated records that make it nearly impossible to accurately differentiate the student enrollment of Whites from those of Mexican Americans before 1954 (Kaplowitz, 2005; San Miguel, 1986; Allsup, 1977). Thus, acquiring tangible evidence of discrimination in higher education for Mexican Americans was found to be a difficult task. As indicated by the work of Heilig, Redick, Hamilton, and Diez (2011), the only way to take a census of the Mexican American enrollment to higher education institutions would be by conducting a scavenger hunt of surnames found in higher education yearbooks from the initiation of higher education in Texas. This was considered unreliable. However, the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Civil Rights (OCR) would eventually shift the odds in favor of minorities (Heilig, Redick, Hamilton, and Diez, 2011).

Establishment of the THECB

Since 1965, the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board (THECB) has been the governing system of higher education in Texas (Ibid, p. 125). Commissioned to improve access, the THECB regulates the quality and quantity of academic programs in the state. The policy talk began in the late 1980s when individuals from South Texas claimed, notwithstanding a surge in population growth, that higher education in the region had remained underdeveloped (Legislative Reference Library of Texas, 1989, p.29). Lack of funding for educational opportunities would eventually add up to a lack of social and economic growth in the region. Lack of growth in this particular region of Texas is a phenomenon tagged by John Sharp former Comptroller of Texas in 1998 "growth without prosperity" (Sharp, 1998). Members of the Legislative Joint Committee on Higher Education in South Texas believed that this was a result of the state's lack of fair play in funding higher education. Members of this same committee even went as far as placing blame on THECB staff. "They cited evidence that Coordinating Board staff has

discouraged program development in the [South Texas] region and, therefore, has perpetuated a historical disparity among regions of the state” (Legislative Reference Library of Texas, 1989, p.29). In 1999, it was reported that the Texas, “[...]higher education system include[d]: 35 public four-year institutions organized in six multi-institution subsystems and four free-standing campuses; 50 community college districts; three public technical colleges; and 40 private institutions” (Richardson et al., 1999, p.125).

In the 1973 case of *Adams vs. Richardson*, the court ordered the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) to require nine states to submit plans to desegregate higher education following a two-year investigation into the higher education system of these nine states. To ensure desegregation occurred in all higher education institutions, U.S. Department of Education’s Office for Civil Rights (OCR) oversaw the court mandate that all higher education meet desegregation guidelines in order to receive federal funding. The (OCR) unveiled the engagement of discriminatory practices by higher education institutions that disqualified Texas from complying with desegregation mandates. In order to avoid a lawsuit, Governor White voluntarily submitted the first five-year plan known as the Texas Plan in 1983 to remedy the Texas system of higher education shortcomings (Litolff, 2007; Oliva, 2002). The action plan was accepted, and meagerly overseen by the OCR (Vera & Barbosa, 1989). Not surprisingly, the next two plans carried on with the first plans’ goals to desegregate higher education and increase representation of Hispanics and Blacks in institutions of higher education.

The second plan was implemented from September 1989 to August 1994 (The Texas Educational Opportunity Plan) under the governance of Governor Clements. Finally, *Access and Equity 2000* was implemented during Governor Ann Richard’s reign between 1994 and 2000 that would continue and extend on the efforts of the first and second plans. However, in spite of these plans, politicians would continue to insist that the state had failed to bring about

educational opportunities for Mexican Americans in Texas, specifically to those that reside in the border region. In 1986, attention would soon shift to statistical findings presented by the Mexican American Task Force on Higher Education (MATFHE) to the Select Committee on Higher Education that showed that the State of Texas had failed to bring about equitable funding to the South Texas border region. Once this report became public, a “Pandora’s box” was opened. South Texas provided with the ammunition to fight for equity of educational resources that became the most prominent case that would significantly increase higher education parity in Texas (Pettit; 2010, p. 177).

Mexican American Task Force on Higher Education 1985

In 1983, Lawrence K. Pettit became chancellor of the University System of South Texas (USST). Three universities were under the management of the USST were as follows: Texas A & I University, Corpus Christi State University, and Laredo State University. During Pettit’s time as Chancellor of USST, he began to remark publicly on the lack of parity in the numbers of education programs made available to the large Hispanic population living in the South Texas region in comparison to those of other regions in the state. According to Pettit, the lack of education opportunities contributed to the dire economic situation found in the region. He was initially the first make to publicly the case that the state had created a “subordinate” public system of higher education for the South Texas border region and attributed this phenomenon to ethnic discrimination (Pettit, 2010). As a result of his outcry, established in 1985 was the Mexican American Task Force on Higher education (MATFHE), which would act as a major clearinghouse for the research on Texas Mexican Americans in the state’s system of postsecondary education. According to Pettit, the release of this study was no accident, it was intended for the “[...] 1987 legislative assembly on the future of higher education in the state”

(Petitt, 2010, p.176). The purpose of the study, released in September, 1986, was to characterize the situation of higher education in South Texas and its connection to the lack of social and economic mobility of the region. It was hoped that the study would convince the educational leadership in moving the state towards greater higher education parity, particularly for the underserved communities in the region (MATFHE, 1986; von Ende, 1987). This report identified nine regions of Texas and showed the disproportionate conditions found among the regions. Figure 7 provides readers with a map of the nine regions of Texas.

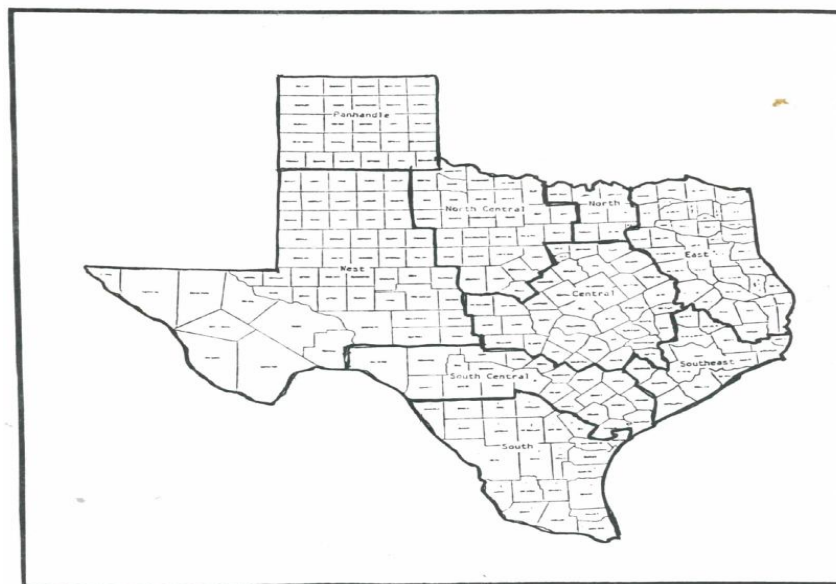


Figure 7. Nine Border Region Map of Texas

Source: (von Ende, 1987, p.9)

The committee members that made up this task force included several key players, worth mentioning due to their involvement in the case of *LULAC vs. Richards* (1987). They are as follows: Miguel A. Navarez, Norma Cantu, Jesse R. Bernal, Sylvia Ramos, Tatcho Mindiola, and Tony Armendariz. The comprehensive study revealed that the state system of higher education in Texas presented a clear pattern of “neglect and disadvantage” in postsecondary

education for the Mexican Americans populous in particular areas of Texas. The results also showed clear evidence that the state's system of public higher education had systematically denied Mexican American access to full participation in public higher education. This illustrated that Mexican Americans, the second largest ethnic group in Texas composed of 3.5 million persons, had suffered negative adverse socio-economic affects because of "spatial inequities" in higher education (MATFHE, 1986; De Oliver, 1998, p.274). Table 3 depicts percentage of degree programs by area per 100,000 residents.

Table 3. 1983-84 Degree Programs by Area
(Per 100,000 Residents)

Area	Baccalaureate	Masters	Doctoral	Professional
(Predominantly Mexican American)	9.51	8.05	0.52	0.15
(Predominantly Anglo)	15.17	12.91	6.15	0.25
State Averages	12.85	10.08	4.17	0.09

Source: The Mexican American Task Force (1986) p.39.

Next, the table provided by MATFHE provided a clear picture of the proportions of Mexican Americans living in poverty in selected metropolitan areas in Texas in the 1980's. According to MATFHE,

Of the 10 metropolitan areas in the Southwest with the highest rates of poverty, 8 are in Texas; 7 of the 8 are cities with large numbers of Mexican Americans; and 4 of those 7 are in South Texas. The cities and the proportions of Mexican Americans living in poverty are shown in Table 4 (p.13).

Subsequently, with MATFHE the report (1986) clearly depicts the hindered proportions of the Mexican American population that could not afford to send their children to institutions of higher education further fueling the continuous cycle of social and economic disadvantage. Ultimately, this vicious cycle required legislative attention if Texas was to succeed economically. MATFHE also contended that the Mexican American population would grow at a faster rate than the White population. In addition, the high birthrate among Mexican Americans versus that of Whites meant that Texas had to start focusing on educating the Mexican American population if it was to succeed in meeting the future economic demands of Texas. Below are Table 4, Table 5 and Table 6 that depicted the dire situation of Mexican Americans in Texas during this time that was the cause of immense concern.

Table 4. Proportions of Mexican Americans Living in Poverty in Selected Metropolitan Area in Texas, 1980

Metro Areas	Percent in Poverty
McAllen-Pharr-Edinburg	36.0%
Brownsville	33.7%
Laredo	31.6%
El Paso	26.5%
San Antonio	24.2%
Corpus Christi	23.8%
Lubbock	23.7%
Victoria	22.3%

Source: The Mexican American Task Force (1986) p.13.

Table 5. Total Population by Region

Region	1984 Population	2000 Population	Rate of Increase
South Texas	1,387,160	2,127,102	53.3%
South-Central Texas	1,532,360	2,014,621	31.5%
Central Texas	1,777,261	2,756,580	55.1%
East Texas	1,331,614	1,790,338	34.5%
North Texas	3,135,501	4,094,429	30.6%
North-Central Texas	478,674	615,139	28.5%
West Texas	1,491,333	1,927,831	29.3%
Panhandle	424,325	492,497	16.1%
Southwest Texas	4,227,765	6,379,955	50.9%
State Totals	15,785,993	22,198,492	40.6%

Source: Mexican American Task Force (1986) p.29.

Table 6. Pre-Capita Income by Region

Region	1983 Pre Capita Income (Indecending Order)
North	\$13,936.21
Southeast Texas	13,026.72
Panhandle	11,379.61
North Central Texas	11,057.85
Central Texas	10,856.19
South Central Texas	10,598.33
West Texas	10,186.30
East Texas	10,012.67
South Texas	7,905.48
State Totals	\$11,650.69

Source: Mexican American Task Force (1986) p.30.

An additional source of concern was the data presented in Table 7, which brought to light the current rates at which Mexican Americans pursue postsecondary education. Whether it was a public or private institution, Mexican Americans enrolled at lower rates compared to White students. In addition, this table also shows that Mexican Americans were increasingly underrepresented at the higher levels of the postsecondary institutions compared to White students. Included in the notes of the MATFHE report, which were most interesting, were references regarding data collection derived from the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board in 1984, which at that time identified all persons of Latin American origin under the

category of Hispanic. MATFHE specified that the data presented for Mexican Americans in higher education would, in turn, be skewed because Mexican Americans would be overrepresented under this category, making the point that Mexican Americans fall further behind all other Hispanic groups in the pursuit of higher education and at the postgraduate level. Sadly, Mexican Americans not only are proportionately underrepresented when comparing them to White students, but proportionally underrepresented within the Hispanic category, meaning that Puerto Ricans and Cubans or other groups of Latin American origin may do better than Mexican Americans in pursuing postsecondary degrees.

Table 7. Head Count Enrollment By Classification, and Ethnic Origin: Public and Private Institutions

<u>Public Institutions</u>					
	Anglo	Hispanic	Black	Other	Total
Senior	74% (272,986)	11% (39,225)	8% (29,703)	7% (27,885)	100% (369,829)
Junior College	70% (210,388)	17% (49,917)	10% (30,916)	4% (10,881)	100% (302,102)
Medical, Dental Schools	84% (4,287)	9% (436)	3% (144)	5% (241)	100% (5,108)
Health- Related Schools	81% (3,333)	7% (304)	5% (222)	6% (261)	100% (4,120)
<u>Private Institutions</u>					
Senior	79% (61,631)	7% (5,514)	8% (6,333)	6% (4,707)	100% (78,185)
Junior College	60% (828)	3% (41)	25% (349)	12% (161)	100% (1,379)
Medicial, Dental Schools	86% (1,017)	7% (83)	2% (22)	5% (62)	100% (1,184)
Health- Related Schools	83% (274)	3% (10)	1% (4)	12% (43)	100% (331)

*Source: Mexican American Task Force (1986) p.18. (1984 Statistical, Coordinating Board, Texas College and University System)

Table 8 further breaks down the extent of the dire situation of Mexican Americans by level and ethnicity at public institutions in 1983. Enrollment in public institutions for Mexican Americans was at 4% of doctoral enrollment in 1983 as compared to White student enrollment at 72%. Finally, most troublesome of all data presented is the amount of funds allocated by the Coordinating Board per capita by region. Table 9 depicts the disproportion of funds allocated to

the South Texas Region. In this section of the report, South Texas received only \$69.58 per person, as state average of \$155.95 per person.

Table 8. Student Enrollment in Public Sector University by Class and Ethnicity Fall, 1983

	Anglo	Black	Hispanic	Other	Total
Freshmen	66,631 (68%)	11,310 (11%)	13,896 (14%)	5,748 (6%)	97,585
Sophomore	41,918 (75%)	4,704 (8%)	5,923 (10%)	3,592 (6%)	56,137
Junior	48,777 (77%)	4,578 (7%)	6,212 (10%)	3,791 (6%)	63,358
Senior	53,680 (77%)	4,277 (6%)	7,336 (10%)	4,535 (6%)	69,828
Post-Baccalaureate	12,594 (81%)	912 (6%)	1,101 (7%)	971 (6%)	15,578
Master	37,213 (73%)	3,040 (6%)	3,922 (8%)	6,648 (13%)	50,123
Doctor	8,409 (72%)	394 (3%)	431 (4%)	2,454 (21%)	11,688
Special/Professional	3,764 (78%)	488 (10%)	434 (9%)	116 (2%)	4,802
Total	272,986 74%	29,703 8%	39,255 11%	27,855 7%	369,799

Source: The Mexican American Task Force (1986) p.22

Two of the most funded regions as shown in Table 9 were Central and Southeast Texas both well above the state averages. The MATFHE report was a significant key player in providing the state with the first intensive study that revealed the failures of the state's current system of higher

education in Texas in providing for the education of Mexican Americans. The second significant report that led a community into pursuing legal action was that of Dr. Fredrick von Ende in 1987.

Table 9. Higher Education Appropriations Per Capita by Region

	FY 85 Approp./Capita	FY 2001* Approp./Capita	Percentage Increase
Central Texas	\$290.52	\$300.57	3%
Southwest Texas	206.03	219.09	6%
West Texas	159.51	198.01	24%
North Texas	119.29	146.59	23%
South Texas	102.92	123.71	20%
East Texas	101.95	121.66	19%
Panhandle	92.58	128.00	38%
South Texas	69.58	72.82	5%
North Central Texas	69.55	86.85	25%
State Averages	\$155.95	\$177.79	14%

Source: MATFHE (1986) p. 32. *FY 2001 appropriations levels are estimated @ a 3%/annum rate of inflation. The projected 2000 regional populations (Table 9) are used.

Higher Education in South Texas: A Comparative Examination

In 1987, Professor Fredrick von Ende from Pan American University in Edinburg, Texas, delved further into the lack of equity by doing a comparison of higher education institutions among all nine Texas regions. He concluded that those located in the South Texas Border region seemed to be the most regionally deprived in terms of the number of master's, doctoral, and special professional degrees allocated. His findings show a direct regional correlation between the numbers of master's, doctoral, and special professional degrees and quality of life. He writes,

North Texas has the most advanced degree programs packed into the smallest area; it has one of the best ratios of degree programs to population; at the same time, it has the highest per capita income, the lowest unemployment rate and the highest level of education. South Texas, on the other hand, has the second fewest degree programs available and the worst ratio of degree programs to population; at the same time, it has by

far the lowest per capita income in the state, the highest unemployment rate, and the lowest (by far) level of education attainment (von Ende, 1987, p. viii) .

There is no question that both these reports produced by MATFHE and von Ende had a significant impact of the case of LULAC vs. Richards and set the stage for future reports into the characterization of regional disparities among institutions of higher education in Texas.

LULAC vs. Richards

To procure equitable and adequate funding for the border cities, in 1987 the Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund (MALDEF) filed suit on behalf of the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) against the Texas Governor Ann Richards, alleging the continuum of discriminating practices. The Mexican American population in South Texas would move to prove that the State of Texas had indeed engaged in discriminatory practices by presenting statistical comparative evidence between public four-year institutions in the Border Region of Texas with those in the rest of the state.

Despite winning in the lower court, and finding that the State of Texas had indeed discriminated against Mexican Americans in terms of financial support and program allocation, the Texas Supreme Court would eventually move to overturn LULAC vs. Richards in 1993. However, the lower court ruling resulted in the implementation of the 1989 South Texas Border Initiative. This initiative would provide for the funding of Border Region public higher education institutions (Oliva, 2002; Valencia, 2008). During this case, data was presented that indicated twenty percent of the Mexican American population in Texas resided in forty-one counties known as the Border region, and yet received only ten percent of the state's higher education funds (Valencia, 2008). At the time, the Border region also only housed 3 of the 589 doctoral programs in the state (Valencia, 2008; Nevarez, M. A., Martinez, L, & Codina, E., 1993).

The Texas Legislature feared the significant inequality would contribute to the lack of economic growth of the region compared to the economic growth of other areas in the state. In the absence of consensus among Hispanic leaders and community members, in 1989, the Texas Legislature stepped in and established the South Texas Border Initiative (STBI) to conclude an equitable solution. After verifying the imbalance of funding, STBI used the occasion to award the nine protesting institutions \$460 million hoping to pacify them in avoidance of further legal ramifications. The monetary distribution was allocated to the following nine higher education institutions: Texas A&M International University; Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi; Texas A&M University-Kingsville; The University of Texas at Brownville; The University of Texas at El Paso; The University of Texas-Pan American; The University of Texas at San Antonio; Sul Ross State University (including Sul Ross State University Rio Grande College); and The University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio. Because of this initiative, the Border region housed 93 out of the 804 of doctoral programs and 4 out of 36 professional degrees offered in the public and health-related institutions in state in 2010, a stark difference from having only 3 doctoral programs in 1985. Sadly, despite these gains, Mexican Americans in Texas are yet to make a dent in degrees awarded and in the level of degrees awarded in-comparison to Whites (Vega & Martinez, 2008; THECB, 2010).

Equity in Financing State Higher Education: Impact on Hispanics 1993

In 1993, the Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities (HACU) published a summative report that focused on the factors presented in the case of *LULAC vs. Richards*. This report contains the evidence used by defense attorneys in *LULAC vs. Richards*, which constituted for the researchers' expert input of those who produced the first two in court. It is important to note, that most of the information in this particular report by HACU correlates with previous

work done by the Mexican American Task Force in 1986 and with Fredrick von Ende's 1987 comparative examination of higher education in Texas. Table 10 below shows the disproportion of degree programs offered by region in the 1990's between Texas border institutions and non-border institutions. When comparing the findings of this comparative study to those of the 1985 MATFHE, one major difference is linked to the correlation between the border region institutions and other comprehensive universities in the state, which closely matches that of Fredrick von Ende. A comprehensive public university in this study was identified as an institution that grants 20 or more PhDs in at least one discipline or 10 or more PhDs in at least three disciplines or more (Nevarez, M. A., Martinez, L, & Codina, E., 1993; Jones & Kauffman, 1994). According to this report, there is no comprehensive university located within a 150 mile driving distance for the 2.5 million people that reside there. In addition, no other state, but Texas, has the largest percentage of people who are 150 miles or more away from a comprehensive university. In addition, only 21% of border students attend a comprehensive university, see table 11. An elevated concern revealed during the analysis of this report is that Hispanic border students, as compared to other Hispanic non-border students are less likely to attend a comprehensive university; therefore, showing that distance is directly tied to border student enrollment, see table 12.

Table 10. Number of Degree Programs per Million People by Location in 1990

Degree Level	Border Region	Rest of the State
Bachelor	343	2,070
Pgms/Million	101	152
Master's	303	1,725
Pgms/Million	90	127
Doctoral	3	589
Pgms/Million	1	43
Total Degrees Programs	649	4,384

Source: Nevarez, M. A., Martinez, L, & Codina, E., 1993, p.37.

Table 11. Average Road Distance to Closest Comprehensive Public Universities and Number and Percent of Students Attending By Texas Region, 1989

Region	Average Distance (Miles)	No. of Students Comp. Univs.	No. of Students all 37 Univs.	Percent of Students Attending Comp. Univs.
Border (41)*	225	15,641	73,208	21.37
Northwest (69)	100	15,575	28,145	55.34
North (36)	31	75,839	90,851	83.48
Northeast (42)	86	11,715	39,319	29.79
Southeast (19)	29	50,648	92,037	55.03
Central (47)	36	25,296	41,427	61.06
Non-Border Total(213)	45	179,073	291,779	61.37
State (254)	81	194,714	364,987	53.35

*Numbers in parenthesis are number of counties

(Source: Nevarez, M. A., Martinez, L, & Codina, E., 1993, p. 39)

Table 12. Percentage and Number of Four Year Students Attending A Comprehensive Public University by Ethnic Group and Texas Region, Fall 1989

Ethnicity	<u>Percent Attending Comprehensive Universities</u>			No. of Students Attending Comprehensive Universities
	Border Region	Rest of Texas	Total Texas	
Hispanic	14.9%	57.9%	28.2%	15,076
White Non-Hispanic	28.3%	63.8%	59.4%	158,831
All Students	21.4%	61.4%	53.4%	194,717

Source: Nevarez, M. A., Martinez, L., & Codina, E., 1993, p. 39

Social Context in Texas Higher Education to *Hopwood (1996)*

For more than 100 years, Texas failed to provide equitable educational opportunities for minorities in gaining access to higher education. In the late 1970's, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare's Office of Civil Rights (OCR) initiated an investigation into the state of higher education in Texas. The thirty-month investigation that included "on-site interviews at twenty-four major campuses, [examination of] the course offerings and number of degrees offered at each, and reviewed the historical development of Texas' educational system" (Vera & Barbosa, 1989, p.1). They found that Texas continued to maintain a segregated system of higher education. Vera & Barbosa (1989) report,

In 1980, at the conclusion of the investigation, DOE officials agreed that Blacks in Texas had in fact been segregated from Whites by the state's history of racially segregated system of higher education. This dual system, OCR found, had been established by the Texas Constitution, which mandated that 'separate schools shall be provided for the White and colored children.' Two postsecondary educational institutions established for Black students, Prairie View A&M

University and Texas Southern University, continued to exist as segregated institutions with minimal resources (p. 4)

In looking at the underrepresentation of Hispanic students in higher education in Texas, Vera & Barbosa (1989) reported that the OCR could not substantiate that Hispanics had suffered from the same discriminatory practices as Black students, but did find significant lower numbers of Hispanics represented in the state major institutions. They also found that most Hispanics who attended university were “concentrated in four schools: Laredo State University (whose student body was 80 percent Mexican American), Pan American University (76 percent), Texas A&I University (50 percent), and University of Texas at El Paso (50 percent)” (p.6). According to Vera & Barbosa (1989),

It was apparent to OCR and Texas, nevertheless, that the number of Mexican American students enrolling in Texas colleges and universities was disproportionately low and that the reasons for this disparity resembled those that determined Black access” (p.6).

Therefore, in order for Texas to rectify this ruling of noncompliance, Texas “developed the Texas Equal Education Opportunity Plan” also known as the “Texas Plan” (Holley, et.al., 1999 pg.3). In 1983, OCR accepted the Texas Plan that started the use of affirmative action in higher education admissions (p. 3). In 1988, OCR reinvestigated and found that the THECB once again was in violation of Title VI and failed to meet the goals set in place in the first Texas Plan (p. 4). In 1994, OCR informed then Texas Governor Ann Richards that they continued to investigate whether or not Texas had indeed fulfilled the goals outlined in the third Texas Plan (Ibid, p.4).

However, the pendulum would once again shift again in favor of Whites students with the case of *Hopwood* and the progress that been made following the OCR investigation would

slowly begin to unravel. This eventually led to the repeal of the affirmative action plan used for admission to the University of Texas at Austin School of Law (UT-Austin).

Upon denial of admission, Cheryl Hopwood charged that the University of Texas Law School unfairly provided for less academically affluent students to gain entrance solely on the use of race (78 F.3d 932 5th Cir. 1996). In 1996, the fifth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals in Texas ruled that the use of race in school admission policy is unconstitutional (Gilbert, 2005). The University of Texas argued that OCR mandate was the reason for the establishment of affirmative action policy in the admissions process at UT-Austin. The Western District Court of Texas ruled that regardless of the OCR mandates and regardless of findings by OCR of the states' past discriminatory practices in higher education, that there was to be no affirmative action plan. Specifically, the type of plan used by UT-Austin, a clear showing of the two opposing forces of law vs. federal policy working simultaneously for and against equity in education (Holley & Spencer, 1999, pgs.4-6). The prior law required that in order for schools to establish a legal diversity policy it must: (1) show past discriminatory practices, (2) show that such policy was narrowly tailored; and (3) show a compelling government interest (Regents of the Univs. of Cal. VS. Bakke, 438 U.S. 265 (1978)). However, despite this past ruling in *Bakke*, Holley & Spencer (1999) go further to note that the Fifth Circuit court went further than the criteria set out in *Bakke* and established new criteria for schools to follow. The Fifth Circuit court ruled that schools must now show "present effects" of discriminations rather than past discriminatory effects, which some believe left Texas with little room in "attempt[ing]" ever-reestablishing affirmative action policy in admissions (p. 6).

Following the passage of the "Hopwood-level scrutiny test," enrollment at UT-Austin declined significantly, "[...] freshman enrollment dropped by 4.3% for Hispanic students and by 33.8% for black students. In addition, at Texas A&M the freshmen enrollment of Hispanic and

non-black students dropped by 12.6% and 29% respectively” (p.7). In responses to the Fifth Circuit court decision and to dramatic decline in minority enrollment in Texas’ universities, the Texas Legislature quickly followed with House Bill (HB) 588 or known to many as the Texas Top Ten Percent Plan. Former Governor Bush of Texas signed into law the Texas Top Ten Percent Plan on September 1, 1997, which is further discussed in Chapter 4.

Bordering the Future- Education in the South Texas Border Region

In 1998, the Office of Comptroller of Public Accounts in Texas, John Sharp, reported on the dire situation faced on the border officials in providing for quality colleges and universities for their growing population of students who historically have studied close to home. In this account, they report that the first border university was established in 1914 in El Paso, Texas. It was first known as the State School of Mines and Metallurgy and later called the University of Texas at El Paso. According to Sharp (1998), El Paso was also the sight of the first border community college to open in 1918 and since then several followed in the border region. This report contended that border students have a high regard for higher education like other Texans.

In the late 1980s, border officials were outraged with the state in providing and improving on the educational needs of border students who had historically tended to study at home. The quality and quantity and, more importantly, access of higher education on the border was far from equal to that of other state universities located outside the border region, a fact that would soon challenge the state to make special appropriations to these nine universities and colleges in the border region. This initiative became known as the South Texas Border Initiative. According to this report, it successfully improved on the quantity and quality of education in the region. However, there continued to remained several challenges that the border region still faces in aiding border students in attaining a college education, most of these students come from

families whose annual income was below \$20,000. They are not only faced with dire economic challenges of how to pay for the rising cost of college tuition, but also with the challenge of graduating within a four year time limit running up the cost of their college debt. There is the challenge that border students are more likely take out more loans than non border students to paying for college. According to Sharp (1998),

Contrary to popular belief, the state's low tuition does not always benefit its neediest students. Year after year, middle- to upper-income students and their families benefit more because they end up spending less of their income on tuition. For example, the average student from Hidalgo County, where estimated 1997 per-capita income is \$12,350, will spend almost 17 percent of his income to pay tuition. Conversely, the average student from Dallas County, where the per-capita income is \$30,746, will spend only 7 percent of her income on tuition (p.55).

He points out that states with highest tuitions rates tend to get more in federal financial aid than those states with low tuition rates. Therefore, any increase in tuition in Texas has translated to a bigger percentage of incomes for low income families to be spend on tuition as shown above because of the lower amounts of federal financial aid made available in Texas.

Secondly, a number of students on the border are ill prepared for college -level work. He also identified the border region as having a predominance of ill-prepared teachers in border region (Sharp, 1998). Lastly, it was argued in this report that by improving the education of these fast growing border communities, through the improvement of higher education and improved teacher education programs, it was hoped that the economic situation faced by the border region would soon improve. These were a few of the challenges outlined in this specific 1998 report.

Ten year readdress of STBI

In 2003, Teri Flack, Deputy Commissioner of the Texas Higher Education Board (THECB), reported that the Texas Legislature had been advancing a solution, throughout 1990 to 2003; over \$880 million dollars had been awarded to these nine institutions on the border. It is important to re-evaluate the STBI because in spite of the major improvements made in the border region it has yet been able to match the economic, political, and social growth of other non-border regions in Texas. In addition, this initiative has failed to produce equity among all public four-year institutions of higher education in Texas (Hao, 2006; Vega & Martinez, 2008). Emerging from this initial planning effort was House Bill 1799, that executed the regional planning which provided the foundation for the current Texas higher education plan known as *Closing the Gaps by 2015* (Flack, 2003 p.4). The initial plan placed great emphasis on supporting the growth of the border institutions. According to Flack (2003), THECB began doing regional planning; planning that takes into account factors such as population growth, economic trends, high school graduation rates, student access and retention in institutions of higher education in order to realize the needs and goals of both local and state government (THECB, 2011).

Both the THECB and Texas Legislature understood that if they were going to succeed in closing the educational gaps among regions in Texas and to address academic disparities between Texas and other states, they must focus on the meeting the professional needs of the border region. Participation, success, excellence, and research are the areas of concern outlined in the *Closing the Gap by 2015* initiative, and Hispanic participation and success became the focus (Flack, 2003 p.4). The projection that Texas would become a majority-minority state, with Hispanics accounting for more than 40 percent of the total population of the state, presented leaders with a staggering challenge (THECB *Closing The Gap by 2015*, 2012). A matter of high

importance became preventing the state's Hispanic population from having the lowest college-going rates by attracting and retaining students from ethnic groups that have not enrolled, and succeeded at high rates in the past (THECB Closing The Gap by 2015, 2012).

Summary

This existing disparity is significant because if Texas or, more importantly, certain regions fail to meet this projected goal, the future economic prosperity of the entire state will suffer. It is important to shed light on this issue because inequity in access to educational opportunities works to perpetuate social, political and economic differences. Therefore, the time has come to reevaluate the STBI and uncover why, despite the growth in the quantity and quality of academic programs, the region continues to lag behind other regions of Texas and has failed to produce a truly equitable system of higher education in the border region.

Chapter 3-Methodology

Introduction

This historical case study design was selected to interpret the past as it relates to questions intended to inquire about the effectiveness of the STBI. The analysis focused on deciphering whether parity has reached the border institutions following its implementation. An essential component is an understanding of the historical context behind the formation of the South Texas Border Initiative by providing an insight of the events that unfolded leading to the implementation of STBI. The research shifted to linking the correlation of Mexican Americans' history of educational access to that of African Americans to ascertain the early history of Mexican Americans' in the educational arena. According to Armenta (2008), the experience of understanding historical events requires a perception of its entire context by including in the analysis the “ structures, actors, and events in ways that do justice to time order and possible path dependencies” (p. 353). He writes:

In short, causal recipes, like recipes in cookbooks, need to list more than the combinations of causal ingredients deemed necessary and sufficient to cause the change. Scholars are expected to address issues of order, timing and pace in making conjectural causal arguments (p. 353).

Therefore, a historical analysis of STBI factors and outcomes had to “address issues of order, timing and pace” to capture the essence of the events that transpired as they related to the STBI (Ibid, p.353). The linkage of the in-depth historical factors to the SBTI analysis is to serve as a framework for all future evolving research and as an extension to delve further into other questions that deal with parity in higher education along the Texas border. In doing so, research can afford finding solutions for institutions that predominately serve Hispanics lagging educationally behind Whites. Benefits derive from identifying the contributing factors for

institutions becoming complacent and rationale for their reluctance to render remedy to poor educational conditions, in particular those located in the regions of Texas with higher concentration of Hispanics.

Statement of the Problem

The principle aim of studying the South Texas Border Initiative within a historical context was to evaluate the contributing factors that led to its formation, and redirect them into disclosing its successes or failures in terms of stimulating educational opportunities for Mexican Americans residing along the U.S. and Mexico border region in Texas. To date, it is unknown if the contributions of the STBI have elicited any growth in educational parity between border region institutions and institutions in the rest of the state. The greatest growth in Texas education is taking place in the increase of programs. Attendance at higher education institutions in Texas has produced an increase in the attainment in degrees although the commute to Tier 1 universities has not decreased. However, emphasis on educational advancement is not confined to Mexican Americans. Therefore, uncertainty of the successes and failures of the STBI on Mexican Americans education efforts embellishes the need for research that draws on historical events to conclude the rationale behind the implementation of the STBI and gain an understanding of the expected outcomes. By coordinating between the past and present, the research lends for the application of the Tyack and Cuban Policy model as a possible framework for facilitating the process of assessing the effectiveness of the STBI on Mexican American higher education empowerment.

Research Questions

The following four research questions are analyzed:

1. Have educational opportunities been created at the universities located along the South Texas border?
2. Have Mexican American students residing in South Texas experienced an increase in the attainment of higher-level degrees in comparison to White students?
3. Are Mexican American students residing on the South Texas border prone to migrate to other universities to attain a higher education in a Tier 1 university in Texas?
4. To what extent is the historical framework provided by Tyack and Cuban useful in understanding and analyzing higher education inequity in Texas?

Research Methodology

The general approach of the study is a historical case study design. To most Mexican Americans early in Texas history and to Blacks discrimination and segregation was notable, but the important first step in the efforts by Mexican Americans to exercise their civil rights and economic power was almost untraceable. Therefore, the rationale for selecting this particular methodology derived from the lack of research on the topic of Mexican American access to higher education in Texas from its early formation of the institution. The history of Blacks needed to be traced before the Reconstruction when Whites denied Blacks legal protection or any resources to secure any sense of equality in order to gain an insight of how Mexican Americans too were unable to effectively resist oppression. Mexican American efforts of having Black benefits extended to them gradually appeared as Blacks' began to experience assistance by the government in the form of support in legal precedent and the creation of educational institutions to gain freedom and equality. The mere invisibility and interest in the contributory links between the past and present has sparked interest in the formation of this historical analysis. Howell & Prevenir (2001), explains "how a shift in interest can lead to the discovery of sources, or of new

ways of reading sources, and thus to the production of ‘facts’ that were once invisible” (p.86). Therefore, the most feasible tool to encompass the formulation of a plan in approaching the Mexican American struggle for access to higher education in Texas was a historical study.

This research also embodies the purpose as Maxwell (1992) and Hamersley and Atkinson (1995) discuss for selecting to incorporate a qualitative studies. The qualitative framework allowed this research to include as Maxwell (1996) outlines: (1) to make meaning out of reality for participants; (2) understand the particular context in which participants operate; (3) to identify unforeseen phenomenon or influences; (4) to understand processes by which events and actions take place; and (5) to develop causal explanations (pgs. 17-20). These steps validate this research design. However, in doing such research, it was also important to note that there remains a “lack of external generalizability” due to its uniqueness (Maxwell, 1992, p.294). Apart from being a historical event, it is a phenomenon imposed within one type of institution and within one specific region of Texas. This study’s only quest is to make meaning of its uniqueness as an “extreme case” concerning the lack of unpublished research on this topic (Ibid, p.294). Creswell (1998) describes data analysis and representation as “spiraling” through by “describing, classifying, and interpreting” (p.144).

Therefore, the historical case design of this study allowed for the in-depth description and examination of the particularities of this topic within a “real-life” context. (Yin, 2004 a). Yin (2004 b) contends that a case study research design “arise[s] out of a distinct need to understand complex social phenomenon” (p. 4). He goes on further to state that a case study allowed the research to address “either a descriptive question (what happened?) or an explanatory question (how or why did something happen?) [...] (Yin, 2004a, p.2). Therefore, in essence, this particular study intended to answer what happened and “[...] ‘how’ theory might explain what happened (p.10). For example, in the case of the STBI, all participating institutions received an

influx of special funds to build their academic programs, yet no research explores the successes and failures of these funds or explains the unintended consequences of these funds in present day communities located along the border region of Texas. Since these types of study questions require much more than a description and an explanation of trajectory of events, an evaluation of the current state of the nine border institutions was conducted to determine how change unraveled with each trend and to what extent. To do this, the Tyack & Cuban's Policy Cycles and Institutional Trends Model was selected. In brief, Tyack & Cuban (1995) stipulate that a true reform analysis required an overview of the economic, demographic, and attitudinal contexts of such reforms.

Evidently, the Mexican American educational struggle for access to educational opportunities did not begin with the creation of the STBI, but long before. Therefore, historical case studies compel an examination of events over time as they progress and change. The intention of this study was to describe how this educational struggle began and developed into the reform known as the STBI, and transformed each institutional trend into something that is unrecognizable today.

Research Design and Data Collection Procedures

In order to formulate a narrative of Mexican American access to higher education from the formation of higher education in Texas, the period in terms of the social and political order of Mexican Americans in Texas were taken into account. The historical assessment included pro-slavery, and more importantly the social sentiment held by Whites following the aftermath of war and annexation of Mexican lands to the United States. The Mexican American educational conditions in Texas during the nineteenth century derived from the documents that accounted for the annexation of lands from Mexico and several legislative documents dialoguing the rationale

for the formation and structure of the Republic of Texas, which depicted the sentiments of early legislators toward African Americans and Mexicans. The assessment also involved using early Texas legislative records as they related to the formation of schooling for Texas whites, and pieces that documented the taxation of African Americans for schools to arrive at an understanding of the factors and conditions that composed the education system in Texas and uncover the sentiment held by those in power towards minorities. Sources relating to the Mexican War and Mexican annexation of lands to the United States helped to unravel the sentiment and the violence Whites unleashed toward Mexican Americans who stayed in Texas that exposed the untold story of Mexican Americans struggle for rights promised in the Treaty of Guadalupe de Hidalgo. Mexican Americans based their initial legal claims on this treaty and what followed were several legal battles. Several of these suits manifested from Mexican American parents and segregated schools that served African American children seeking equal access to schools that generated K-12 schooling litigation brought after the 1930s by Mexican Americans in Texas. Focused was placed on the cases that sparked the transformation of educational change, which also formulated guidelines and a format for legal representation for cases involving discriminatory acts in the educational arena. Although there are currently a plethora of documents that speak to the interests of higher education and Hispanics in terms of their participation and success, the paucity of causal links to historical factors is surprisingly scarce that may give readers new insight into several plausible explanations for the current gaps found between Whites and Hispanics in Texas higher education institutions. The difference in the formal and current race and ethnic status of Mexican Americans made it difficult to track the discriminatory acts against Mexican Americans in the educational system because formally, the racial and ethnic status of Mexican Americans was White and currently Mexican Americans are racially, identified as White and ethnically Hispanic. Therefore, to orient the reader to view the

multiple perspectives that arrive to the detection of discrimination against Mexican Americans, it involved examining the discriminatory acts against Blacks. As Howell and Prevenier (2001) found,

Often, historians will privilege evidence that seems to point to a recurring picture, to add to a story that seems familiar or repetitive. Always, however, this is a risky choice. In some sense, all events are unique, and every fact about an event is unique. There can never be another Hitler in Germany as there was in 1933. Nor will the same event, replayed in different contexts, produce the same result (p.84).

This citation says volumes on the importance of redirecting attention to comparing the struggles of African Americans to the struggles of Mexican Americans for access to schooling in Texas due to their similarities although both struggles played out differently. Learning about the discriminatory acts against Blacks, helped extract the discriminatory acts that were applicable to Mexican Americans, which explained their struggles for schooling in Texas and the battles they confronted that derived from their own unique set of racial challenges. The comparison also illuminated the rationale for Mexican Americans experiencing a delay in gaining access to educational opportunities simultaneously with Blacks and their court cases, which were less successful, as explained in Chapter 2.

However, historians in their quest for understanding do look for “patterns in history”, “similarities of circumstance that allow the historian fruitfully to compare one place and time with another, to look for patterns of recurrence and thus patterns of causality”(Howell and Prevenier, 2001, p.84). Through this technique historians are able to piece together “[...] how similar people behave in similar situations can one begin to make generalizations about the relationship between events through cause and effect” (Howell and Prevenier, 2001, p.84). Therefore, for the most part, the similarities of African Americans struggle in Texas to that of the

Mexican Americans are without question comparable, despite both the distinct aspect to their litigated approaches and unique racial classification circumstances. Both groups within the context of time and place are still similar enough to lend themselves to interpretation and make some reliable generalizations that correlate to the early battles for access to educational opportunities in Texas.

An in-depth understanding of the time and space of historical factors in their totality in Texas gave more significance to the current problems faced by border Mexican Americans in Texas in terms of the lack of parity in educational opportunities. The historical analysis allows readers to make plausible instrumental connections between the past and present when looking for answers that could possibly explain the current educational gap found between whites and Mexican Americans in Texas today (Amenta, 2008, p. 353).

In building background knowledge for this study, it was also important to note the major shift in the availability of documents focused on Mexican Americans that followed major events such as WWII and the Civil Rights movements discussed in chapter 2. It was discovered that Mexican American issues became more easily identifiable and pronounced within the context of the American society.

The review of the progression of legal documents concerning the desegregation of higher education in the United States, led to the discovery of the Office of Civil Rights sanction on Texas for maintaining a discriminatory system of higher education, referred to in chapter 2. The initial question of how Mexican Americans had gained access to higher education in Texas could not be answered initially due to the lack of material identifying them as a distinct race other than white. Since then, the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board has produced several documents like the Closing the Gap 2015 and Regional Plan for Texas Higher Education in

continuously evaluating the progress of students and institutions in the state, also mentioned in chapter 2.

In 1987, the case of *LULAC vs. Richards* was filed citing the discrimination of Mexican Americans that resided on the border region of Texas to comprehensive higher education. Tracing the documents that led to the filing of this case revealed that there was one primary document utilized as evidence for this case. A report produced by the Mexican American Task Force on Higher Education (MATFHE) spoke to the lack of parity in the quality and quantity of programs located on the border versus those in the rest of the state. This was the initial report utilized as the foundation of the lawsuit. Later, produced in 1987, was the report by Professor Fredrick von Ende from Pan American University in Edinburg, Texas, titled, *Higher Education in South Texas: A Comparative Examination*. Both reports represented an array of descriptive variables in showing the lack of parity between border and non-border institutions in Texas. In addition, they tied these results to show how these discriminatory acts led to a poverty-stricken community. Finally, one dissertation paper directly relating to this topic following its ten-year aftermath was utilized for this study. The focus of this paper was the ten-year reevaluation of STBI in terms of its economic viability to the region.

It was also important to replicate some of these same descriptive modes of study found within these papers to show that the effort to reach parity along the border has failed even today. In order to do this comparative analysis between the present and past datasets, new data tables had to be replicated using the current available datasets. In prior tables, representations that measured the lack of parity between border and non- border institutions, two comprehensive universities were utilized to prove the disadvantaged conditions between border institutions and the two comprehensive universities, as they were once known. Today, a comprehensive university is known as a Tier 1 university in Texas. Currently, there are four current public

comprehensive universities in Texas, two of which are the same two utilized in prior studies. They are the Texas A&M University and the University of Texas at Austin.

Currently, in Texas for an institution to be considered a Tier 1 institution it must meet the specified outlined criteria. For one, they must have an annual restricted research expenditure of \$45 million or more. In addition, according to Hamilton (2012), for institutions to qualify they must meet four out of six other imposed Tier 1 criteria: (1) \$400 million endowment; (2) 200 Ph.D's awarded annually; (3) have a high achieving freshmen class; (4) have a high quality faculty; (5) hold a membership in Association of Research Libraries; (6) be committed to graduate research. According to Hamilton (2012), Texas has four public Tier 1 institutions, one private university, and five emerging institutions. They are as follows:

Tier 1 Universities	Emerging Universities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Texas A&M University • Texas Tech University • The University of Texas-Austin, • The University of Houston • Rice University(Private) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The University of North Texas • The University of Texas campuses in Dallas, Arlington, San Antonio and El Paso.

In order to replicate, measure, and compare these nine border institutions with Tier 1 universities, two main data sources were employed. These datasets are both descriptive in nature. The first utilized is the Texas Higher Education Data that keeps track of higher education institutional data in Texas and the second is the U.S. Census datasets collected by the federal government by surveying U.S. households every ten years in tracking demographic trends.

Texas Higher Education Data

Datasets utilized in gathering these factors and figures are available on the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board website. The database contains data on the types and level of programs offered for each of the 38 public institutions in Texas. It allows users to identify the number of bachelors, masters, and professional programs by institution. This dataset is titled program inventory. Secondly, the database also holds data on the number and level of degrees awarded by ethnicity for each of the institutions. Lastly, The Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board website also collects data on high school graduates by county that enroll in 2 or 4 yrs. institutions in Texas. These three specific datasets were utilized in answering research questions 1, 2, and 3.

Questions 1 and 2 will be measured by comparing the percentage in the number of degrees awarded in border institutions versus non-border institutions. In order to measure, whether or not parity has been reached between the border and the rest of the state, replicated-accounting of current programs will be completed, as was presented in the case of *LULAC vs. Richards* in 1987. Also stipulated in the research and alluded to in chapters 1 and 2 is that minorities, in this case Hispanics, do not pursue graduate degrees at the same rate as Whites. Furthermore, in order to measure whether or not minorities are moving up in the level of degrees attained, degrees awarded by Mexican Americans and Whites will be chronologically measured and compared. It is hypothesized that there has been an increase in the number of Hispanics who have attained a graduate or professional level degree as more graduate programs were developed in the border region.

One primary question asked in this study and not examined within prior papers was in relation to border student migration, which is question 3 of this study. The case argued that border students failed to travel outside of the region because of several factors, but failed to show

any exact figures proving their claim. The only figure calculated was the distance to a comprehensive university or Tier 1 University. As stipulated in the work of Jones & Kauffman (1994), the average distance to a comprehensive university for border students to drive was 150 miles or more as discussed in chapter 2. Furthermore, Jones & Kauffman (1994) continued by claiming that the compounding factors of culture and poor family financial circumstances faced by border students further hindered border students to travel outside of the region. In order to reexamine this notion and take it one-step further, it was important to look at the numbers of border high school students reported to enroll and migrate to a Tier 1 university. In utilizing Texas Higher Education Data, three data points (2002, 2006, and 2010) were collected to measure the progression in migration percentages by county for border students who enroll in a Tier 1 University.

U.S. Census

In addition to examining question 3, it is important to extend this examination further by including a comparison between 2000 and 2010 datasets for both South Texas Border Initiative recipients and the four public Tier 1 institutions. The tables contain data on Texas county population figures, the percentage of persons of Hispanic or Latino origin, the percentage of Mexicans, the percentage of White persons not Hispanic, the percentage of persons 25+ high school graduates (including equivalency), the percentage of persons 25 + with bachelor's degrees, the percentage of person 25+ with graduate or professional degrees, median household incomes, and the percentage of persons below poverty level. The purpose of examining these datasets is to measure research question 4 by make comparisons between Texas Counties following the outcomes of the STBI. As stipulated in Ramseyer (2000), it usually takes a number of years for this type of initiative to show any type effect. Therefore, two point ranges were

selected; the ten-year range and the twenty-year range following the STBI. These tables were important to determine whether the educational attainment of the region had indeed continued to increase over the years following this initiative. One of the arguments in the case of *LULAC vs. Richards (1987)* was that the educational attainment of the region had suffered due to the deficiency in funding allocated to the region. Keep in mind that the utilization of this data does not mean one can say with any certainty that such improvement in educational attainment in the border region correlates to the South Texas Border Initiative. Because the STBI may not be the sole contributor, if it is revealed that there has been an increase in the educational level of the region, it may be a combination of factors that may have led to such improvements.

Population and Sample Selection

The site for the study includes the nine institution that received South Texas Border Initiative funds. They are as follows:

- Texas A&M International University,
- Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi,
- Texas A&M University-Kingsville,
- The University of Texas at Brownsville,
- The University of Texas at Brownsville,
- The University of Texas at El Paso,
- The University of Texas-Pan American,
- The University of Texas at San Antonio,
- Sul Ross State University (including Sul Ross University Rio Grande College), and
- The University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio.

Source: (Flack, 2003, p. 1)

The population of interest is the nine South Texas Border Initiative institutions and the four public Tier 1 universities as outlined above. This population was selected on the rational that in order to be able to make similar replicable comparisons between border and comprehensive

universities, as were made in prior papers that proved a lack of parity in Texas in the late 80's, the same types of groupings would have to be made today. Excluded from this study is the one private Tier 1 university, because no private institution that was impacted by STBI funds.

Validity and Reliability

There is a great temptation to perceive the past events as staying the same as the present. Freedom and equality are both profoundly and irrevocably altered because of it. Therefore, the nature of this study unfolded and transformed through the emergence of time sensitive documents, which roughly ranged from the early 19th century to 2010. To acknowledge the challenge of change, historical documents and resources were followed in chronological order through the information to determine the next location in searching for evidentiary resources, as they related to the early struggles of Mexican American access to higher education in Texas. A comparative analysis was performed to cross examine the validity of the sources that came mostly from: legislative papers, legal cases, journals, grassroots studies as they related to the state of higher education along the border, Texas Archive, documents from the Comptroller's Office of the State of Texas, published documents from the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board, and reports specially from the 1987 court transcript of *LULAC vs. Richards*. Creswell (2009) ascertained the importance of scrutinizing the reliability of the sources consolidated in the research. During this process, the utilization of many legal documents gave reliability to documents produced by state officials when contrasted to those produced and commissioned by the State of Texas and courts. During the quantification process and before conducting the replication of some of the same procedures used within these reports, it was important to cross-reference resources and data with as many available sources as possible on the topic. Take for example; dataset utilized from grassroots studies produced on the topic of the

STBI, these resources were cross-checked with data used in the official court transcript. This data was also cross reference against the Texas Higher Education Data base. Of course, the results generated from this case study are not applicable to another “setting, group of people, or sample”, it is simply to garner a better understanding of the historical context of Mexican American access to higher education in Texas and to descriptively examine the power of the South Texas Border Initiative (Creswell, 2009, p.190).

Data Analysis Procedures

The historical knowledge surrounding this particular study called for a review of many historical, state legislative and legal documents. The first step meant the acquisition of meaning that would allow a valid reflection on the overall occurring events and the resulting outcomes (Creswell, 2009). For the review of collection of these documents, an analytical model was imperative in order to organize the masses amounts of information contained in such documents. Therefore, to make meaning out of these historical documents, Tyack & Cuban's policy cycle model seemed to be most appropriate.

There is no question that education in Texas was formulated from legislative policymaking, and that the distinct type of education afforded to both African Americans and Mexican Americans was created and driven by such legislative policymaking. Therefore, the evaluation of the South Texas Border Initiative called for a policy evaluation model that was not just tied to policymaking, but one that takes into consideration school policy reform from birth to implementation. Therefore, the initial purpose of this study was to assess the policy talk, policy action, and policy implementation of the South Texas Border Initiative for border Hispanics in Texas. However, upon further review of Tyack & Cuban's policy model and institutional trends, it was noted that there was no policy evaluation piece that contributed to the exploration of the

current outcomes of the reform. The question whether the Texas legislature had indeed succeeded in creating parity between border institutions and the rest of the state would go unanswered if the policy evaluation piece delineated from this model. Therefore, the model was readapted to include data to answer questions 1, 2, and 3 of this study.

The data analysis involved the utilization of the Tyack & Cuban's policy cycle model to reconstruct the past in order to reflect the present. Policy talk began with diagnosing the events that became problematic to Mexican Americans in the educational arena leading to the initiation of the STBI. Early historical events offered a synopsis of the inequality Mexican Americans endured for many years due to the misconceptions that they were partaking of freedom and equality as Whites. When the race identity of Mexican Americans' was found to be a barrier in tracking any of their successes and failures, the alternative became tracking Mexican Americans by accessing the African American historical events. In the policy action stage, an analysis of the legal documents produced tangible evidence of the legal precedents established by the Mexican American plight for equal educational access that became the efforts towards the initiation of the STBI. Throughout the Policy implementation stage, historical events were referenced to determine if government intervention created enduring legal protection for the Mexican American struggle to gain equal access in the educational arena. During the policy evaluation stage, the collected data regarding outcomes was evaluated utilizing comparison and contrast techniques to determine the variance of change. The Institutional Trends Model assisted in depicting patterns that correlate to the established events and behavior that resulted from the execution of the STBI.

The components of this model are as follows: (1) policy talk is the practice of diagnosing the problem and then advocacy for a solution; (2) policy action is the adoption "through state legislation, school board regulations, or decisions by the other authorities" (p.40); (3) policy

implementation is putting the reform into action. This part is often the most complex and incremental in making change. Policy evaluation is the evaluation of the policy and measures if such policy met its intended goal. As described by Tyack & Cuban (1995),

Three features of reform complicate tracking how policy talk became translated into institutional trends: the time lag between advocacy and implementation; the uneven penetration of reforms in different sectors of public education; and the different impact of reforms on various social groups (p.55).

Therefore, in evaluating the success of the reform on each nine institutions, Tyack and Cuban's three criteria have been employed.

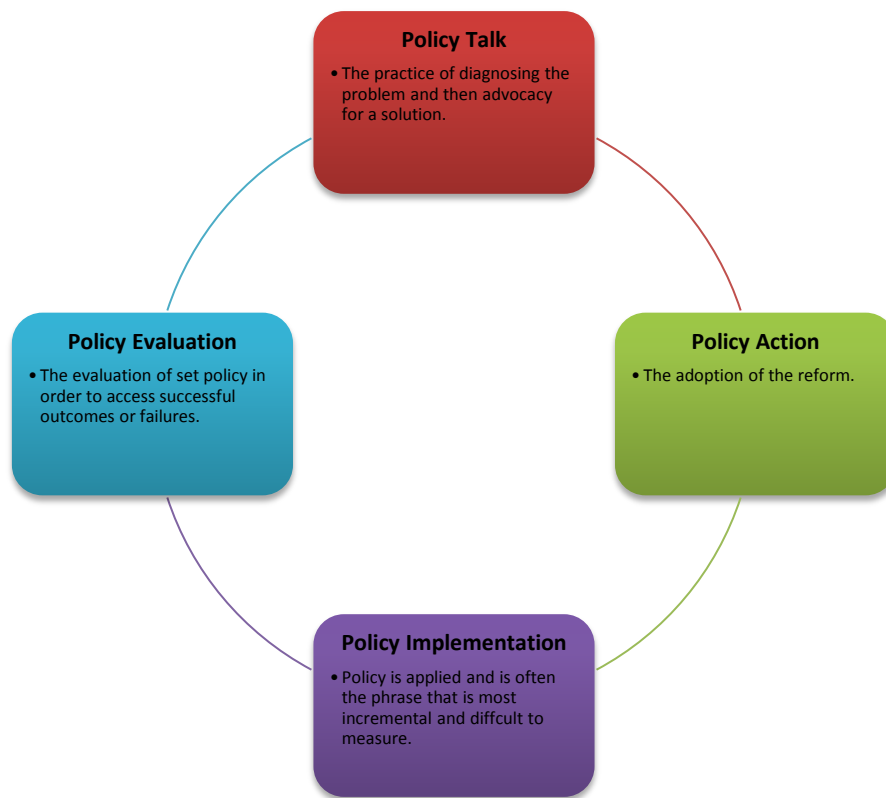


Figure 8. Readapted Tyack & Cuban's Policy Cycles Framework Model

Tyack & Cuban's Educational Policy Criteria

Tyack & Cuban talk about three traditional criteria to evaluate the success or failure of school reforms. They are (1) “fidelity to original design”; (2) “effectiveness in meeting the preset outcomes”; (3) and the “longevity” of the reform (p. 61). In looking at the success or failure of school reforms one has to make note that educational leaders from each of the nine institutions on the border may have altered the reform to fit with their immediate school needs. Given that criteria, not all of these nine institutions started in the same place, for example, the University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP) had at least one doctoral program, while Texas A&M International University (TAMIU) had none until after the STBI (TAMIU website, 2012). The fidelity to the original design of the South Texas Border Initiative by the Texas legislature was to insert special funds for immediate development of programs. However, Tyack & Cuban (1995) describe this

stage as one where reformers identify a problem and come up with a planned solution to be implemented (p.61). Once the plan is implemented within the school context, this is where problems might arise if reformers are not paying careful attention. Schools stakeholders may not have implemented the plan according to what the reformers wanted.

Another problem arises with their untended consequences, because there could be “by-products” of the plan. For example, legislative officials, intended that more programs be created in the border region so that low income Hispanics could have the opportunities to become educated, yet what if it only served to benefit middle to upper class students who live in these areas because Hispanics could not afford the slight higher price tag of attending a bigger university. Despite the low tuition of these universities, this low tuition often drives down the amount of federal financial aid the state can ask for from the federal government, which makes less monies available to poor students in these areas, as discussed in chapter 2 (Sharp, 1998). Therefore, the question arises, what if those that were supposed to benefit from the plan are not truly benefiting? The preset outcomes were initially measured in the amount of invested funds (Sharp,1998). As border institutions grew and generated greater revenue, so too would their share of state institutional funds (Ibid, 1998). Despite the discoverability of funds tied to the number of programs created, many barriers were encountered when tracing their impact. The impact of this reform derived from student success that would otherwise be prolonged due to the lengthy timeframe needed to monitor the graduations from these newly created programs. It may have had great strains on the economic condition of the border region due to the extended timeframe required to bare economic fruits. Therefore, the so-called fidelity and longevity of this reform is dependent on how one approaches and measures the impact of this reform. It is also important to make note that the original reform named STBI has not been mentioned within state documents for several years (Flack, 2003).

Therefore, it was important to explore this case using Tyack & Cuban's criteria to decide whether this initiative has indeed disappeared, transformed itself, or been cut altogether for border institutions. More importantly, what was its impact? Lastly, question 4 will measure whether or not Tyack & Cuban Policy Cycles and Institutional Trend model has helped in understanding and useful in making meaning out of the South Texas Border Initiative.

Advantages and Limitations

A limitation of this study is that it is restricted to nine institutions on the border region of Texas; therefore, its findings are not replicable to another context (Creswell, 2009; Yin, 2004b). The primary limitation of this study is that there may be interpretive differences that arise from the researcher being familiar with the region in question, which increases the chances of bias being introduced by the researcher. Living on the Texas border since 1984 has made the researcher sensitive to the lack of educational opportunities that exist in these places. In addition, being of Mexican American descent and having a parent that was exposed to the treatment of segregated schooling has caused the researcher to become extremely sensitive and critical of this topic at hand.

Summary

In summary, a historical case study will highlight the progression of the Mexican American struggle for access to higher education in Texas. Noting the strength of the historical design as discussed in Tyack & Cuban (1995), this design has the power to encapsulate the contribution of the factors that comprise the educational system reform. This model facilitates the process of unraveling the factors that have contributed to the creation of the South Texas Border Initiative designed to provide educational access to minorities in the border region. The first half of this research contains a historical background that renders information regarding K-

12 schooling of Mexican American children while the second half includes an evaluation of the South Texas Border Initiative. The sole purpose of the evaluation portion will serve to answer whether or not parity has been achieved along the Texas border in comparison to the rest of the state. Finally, the Tyack & Cuban (1995) policy cycles model serves as a tool to elicit meaning from the plethora of documents that are included in this study. The documents utilized derive from legislative papers, legal cases, journals, grassroots studies as related to the state of higher education the border, Texas Archive, documents from the Comptroller's Office of the State of Texas, and relative Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board papers. Thus, this research meets Yin's (2004b) criteria of a good research study design that is strong because it is not limited to one single data source instead employs multiple data sources, where a researcher is able to "triangulate" multiple sources into "converging lines of evidence" answering the researchable questions (p.9).

Chapter 4-Data Collection & Analysis

Introduction

The most important change in higher education in Texas has been the implementation of the STBI that began to pump an appreciable amount of money in the South Texas border universities. To date, there is uncertainty that the money apportioned by the STBI accomplished the intended purposes. Therefore, the primary goal of this historical case study was to assess the correlates between educational amelioration created by the STBI and to measure the educational parity among Mexican Americans and Whites. This study compared nine Texas border universities with the four Tier 1 universities. They were matched by the number of programs, attainment of degrees in different levels, the type of degrees awarded to Whites and Hispanics, and high school graduate migration patterns.

The data collected made it feasible to conclude whether or not educational opportunities have been created at the universities located along the South Texas border. Therefore, it is possible to arrive at the prediction of the likelihood of one of these nine institutions in becoming a Tier 1 institute. A second important factor examined whether Mexican American students residing in South Texas experienced an increase in the attainment of higher-level degrees in comparison to White students. This information assists in concluding the comparison between Mexican Americans in the border region and Mexican Americans and Whites in Tier 1 universities attaining masters and doctoral degrees. The outcomes are indicators that allude to the plausibility of the border region being more educated and prepared to be economically competitive. The third factor detected was whether Mexican American students residing South Texas border were more likely to migrate to other universities to attain a higher education at Tier 1 universities in Texas.

Since there was an absence of research on the impact of STBI, the fourth major factor was determining the extent the framework created by Tyack and Cuban was useful in the incorporation of historical events to understand and analyze the events that took place in Texas higher education. The historical narrative analysis is comprised of events that transpired in the educational arena within K-12 level to the college and university level from the mid-1800s to 1989 that had a negative adverse effect on Mexican Americans. The depiction of a pre and a post measurement of the impact of the STBI funding were possible with the use of the Tyack & Cuban policy model. The opposition found throughout time ultimately elicited an interest in the initiation of the study to ensure the STBI revitalized Mexican Americans' educational opportunities in numerous ways. Therefore, this chapter yields a descriptive depiction of the educational outcomes the STBI reaped in the higher education arena for Mexican Americans along the South Texas border.

Descriptive Data

Sample Characteristics

The study included nine South Texas border universities: Texas A&M International University; Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi; Texas A&M University-Kingsville; The University of Texas at Brownsville; The University of Texas at El Paso, The University of Texas-Pan American; The University of Texas at San Antonio; and Sul Ross State University (including Sul Ross University Rio Grande College). These nine institutions are located within two of ten regional areas in Texas. Below is a depiction of the ten border regions in Texas. Each region includes an estimation of its population average of students that have a higher education degree. The implications of this map provide an outlook of the higher education student stratification in regards to population.

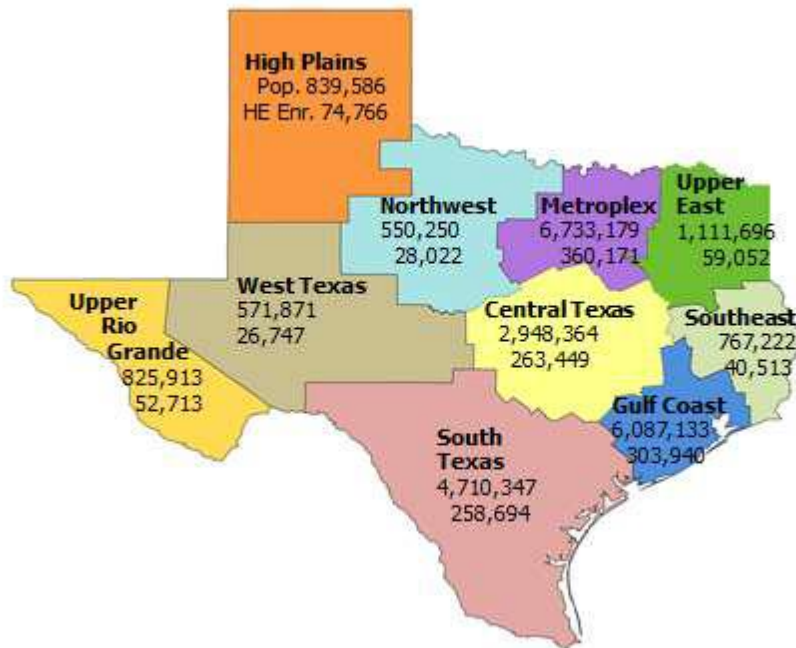


Figure 9. THEBC Regional Map 2012

Source: THECB-Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012

THECB Population Estimates and Projections

According to the THECB, the Hispanic population is anticipated to rapidly increase in all 10 regions. Figure 10 below provides a forecast of increase in percentage from 2010 to 2015 in the Metroplex, Gulf Coast, Central Texas and South Texas regions of Texas. The increase in Hispanic population is one of the reasons for the need to ensure that quality and equitable education reaches the South Texas border region. Without any source of educational change with which to educate the dominate population, Texas will be deficient in human capital and become a financial burden to America.

Regional Population Estimates and Projections 2000, 2010, 2015								
Region	All Ages				Ages 18 Through 35			
	2000	2010	2015	% Change 2010-2015	2000	2010	2015	% Change 2010-2015
High Plains	780,733	839,586	852,645	1.6%	205,169	227,633	237,904	4.5%
Northwest	549,267	550,250	556,808	1.2%	133,891	136,118	147,158	8.1%
Metroplex	5,487,477	6,733,179	7,882,976	17.1%	1,557,980	1,726,448	2,062,604	19.5%
Upper East	1,015,648	1,111,696	1,162,656	4.6%	232,320	248,554	279,591	12.5%
Southeast	740,952	767,222	796,098	3.8%	177,772	181,546	206,325	13.6%
Gulf Coast	4,854,454	6,087,133	6,701,700	10.1%	1,333,149	1,596,176	1,829,660	14.6%
Central Texas	2,309,972	2,948,364	3,131,677	6.2%	735,635	879,069	886,530	0.8%
South Texas	3,884,115	4,710,347	5,083,463	7.9%	1,008,785	1,182,659	1,392,284	17.7%
West Texas	524,884	571,871	566,921	-0.9%	124,896	146,566	148,101	1.0%
Upper Rio Grande	704,318	825,913	846,216	2.5%	186,093	211,750	245,801	16.1%
Statewide	20,851,820	25,145,561	27,581,160	9.7%	5,695,690	6,536,519	7,435,958	13.8%

Figures for 2015 are TSDC projections based on the 2000 decennial.

Source: TSDC, THECB and Institutional Data

Figure 10. Regional Population Estimates and Projections 2000, 2010, 2015

Source: THECB-Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012

Figure 11 accounts for a proliferation in the ratio of minorities to non-Hispanic White children under the age of five. There are more children under the age of five classified as Hispanic than White residing in the South Texas border region. The steadily increasing and widespread growth of the Hispanic population in Texas calls for proactive measure to meet the future higher educational demands of K-12 school age children. The educational improvements will need to snowball right into the Metroplex, Upper Rio Grande, and South Texas that are experiencing large increases in the number of 18 to 35 year olds. Thus, Texas will reap benefits from allocating higher educational resources to these regional areas for the production of a viable Texas workforce. Figure 11 illustrates the regions that are highly populated as a caption that demonstrates the correlation between the population and the location of the universities in Texas.

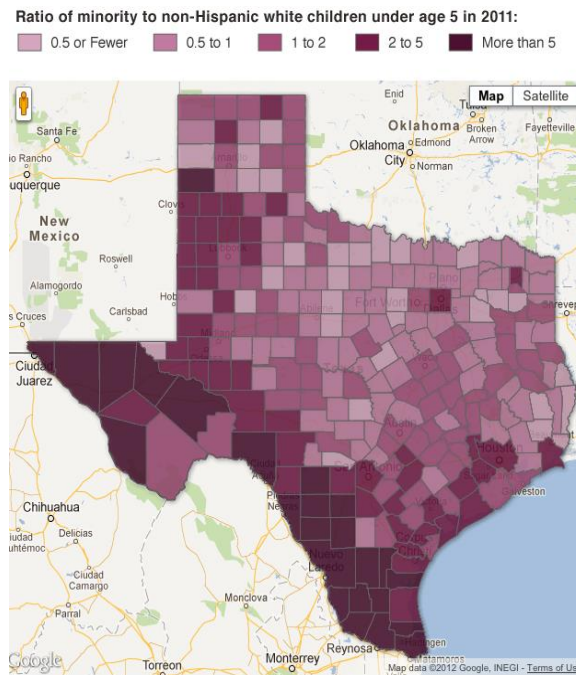


Figure 11. A map of the Ratio of Minority to Non-Hispanics White Children under Age 5 in 2011

Source: The Texas Tribune, Becca Aaronson May 17, 2012

Demographics of the Border Region

Figure 12 encompasses forty-three counties that the 1998 Office of Comptrollers of Public Accounts in Texas redefined as the South Texas Border Region (Sharp, 1998, p.6).

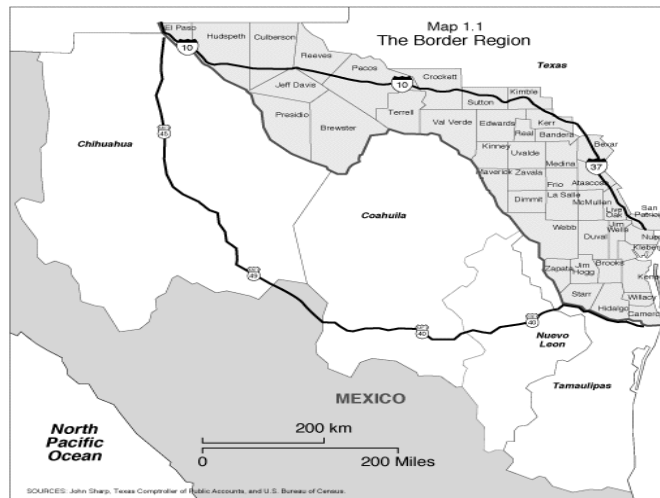


Figure 12. The Border Region

Source: (Sharp, 1998)

Then again, in 2002; this same agency redefined the border region as encompassing only 16 counties (Combs, 2002). Despite the lack of consistency in definitions, the border region for the purpose of this paper consists of the 41 counties as stipulated in *LULAC vs. Richards*. These actions reflect how Whites acquired their discriminatory perception regarding all Mexican Americans. Figure 12 provides an illustration of the close proximity of both the U.S. border and Mexico's border communities that intertwine resulting in political, economic, and social challenges due to the inability to differentiate Mexican Americans from Mexican residents of Mexico. Thus, both groups have remained relatively misunderstood and abandoned by their respective governments in terms of the absence of policy focused on the social and economic growth of these communities (Anderson & Gerber, 2008).

Distribution of STBI Funding

The alarming increase of the Hispanic population boom detours attention to the location of universities along the South Texas border that serve the current and future generation of Hispanics. To conceive an understanding of the factors that made it problematic for Hispanics to

attain a higher education, figure 13 and 14 depicts the universities along the South Texas border accessible to the Hispanic majority population. The STBI funding distribution took place in two regions in Texas. The South Texas region accounts for seven of the universities that received funding and the two Upper Rio Grande regions. It is important to note, that Texas is divided into ten regions. In figure 13 the South Texas Regional Map shows seven of the nine institutions. The indicator for distinguishing the public universities from the private sector is a star in both maps. The lack of availability of education for Hispanics is notable in the distant proximity to public universities for residents along the south border suggests an organized resistance.

Upper Rio Grande: Regional Map

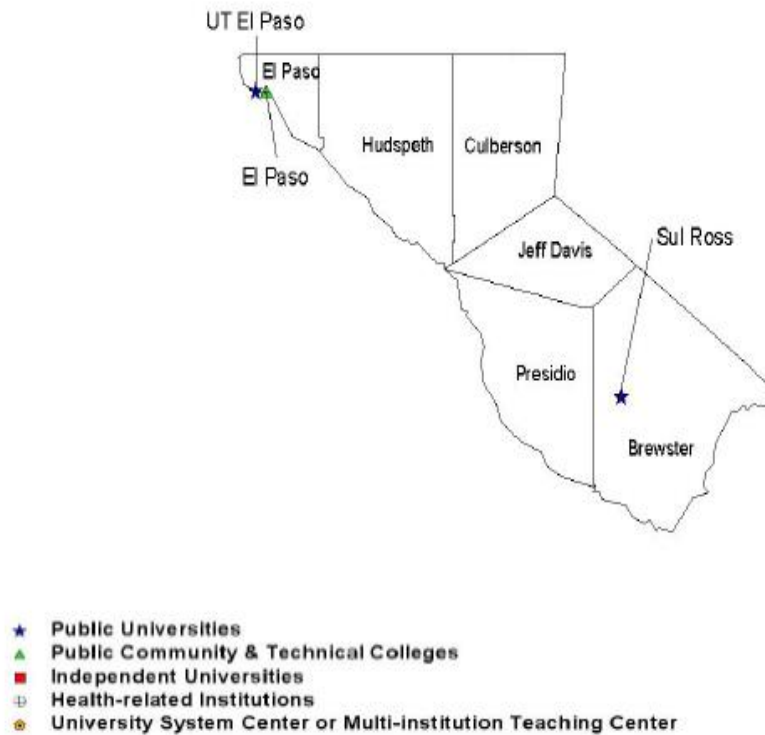


Figure 14. THECB-Upper Rio Grande Regional Map

Source: THEBC-Regional Plan 2011

Funding growth had done much to transform higher education in Texas. The STBI funding seemed to have eroded the frail support Hispanics had acquired in previous years for the idea of Hispanics becoming empowered. Surprisingly, Legislators' values drastically changed in response to ameliorating education for Hispanics. Rather than the STBI responding to the educational deficiencies by allocating extra funding to the universities along the South Texas border, differences in funding were quite significant where nonborder universities received a larger portion of the funding than border universities. The table 13 below represents the 2010 demographics of each of the nine institutions that received the South Texas Border Initiative funds in comparison to the four Tier 1 universities. The Tier 1 universities have higher

enrollment numbers, greater numbers of White student enrollees, and greater amount of funds than border institutions.

Table 13. 2010 Online Institutional Resumes

Institution	Population	White		Hispanic		Funding
	Fall 2010	#	%	#	%	Any Source in FY 2010
TAMIU	6,853	162	2.40%	6,240	91%	\$159,472,229
TAMUCC	10,033	4,624	46.10%	3,687	39%	\$159,472,229
TAMUK	6,586	1,457	22.10%	4,010	60.90%	\$120,472,763
UTB	6,855	455	6.60%	5,875	85.70%	\$171,679,921
UTEP	22,051	2,198	10.00%	16,802	76.20%	\$331,421,463
UTPA	17,048	992	5.80%	14,771	86.60%	\$259,135,193
UTSA	27,291	10,810	39.60%	12,323	45.20%	\$413,894,287
SRRGC	1,092	101	9.20%	859	78.70%	\$0
SRSU	1,918	868	45.30%	890	46.40%	\$52,102,778
UTHSCTS/SA	3,273	1,525	46.60%	797	24.40%	\$712,940,052
TEXAS A&M	49,129	32,954	67.1	7,020	14.3	\$1,118,041,108
UT AUSTIN	49,233	28,313	57.50%	7,074	14.4	\$2,135,439,844
TEXAS TECH	27,940	21,622	77.4	3,073	11	\$533,699,263
UNIV HOUSTON	38,752	13,212	34.1%	8,641	22.3%	\$723,019,105

(Source: THECB and Institutional Data, 2010)

Data Collection

The intention of the funding was to bring about a comprehensive redevelopment of the higher education system along the South Texas border region to create educational parity among Mexican Americans and Whites. The pre assessment data collected derived from information gathered from 1990. For the post assessment data, the information was obtained from the 2011 records. Historical material was sought in order to arrive at an understanding of the accounts in history that have produced bitterness in the educational arena, as the enduring controversy,

which evolved when Mexican Americans claimed their right to equal and equitable access to education. The historical material was allocated from the following sources:

- Analyzed sources that account for educational historical events regarding Hispanics' educational past that reflect patterns of oppression and discrimination.
- Obtained public numerical records that included statistics regarding educational programs, migration patterns, attendance rates, and obtainment of degrees.
- Examined official documents that include oral statements transcribed from the case of LULAC vs. Richards, policy statements, and speeches by leaders to provide clarity of the legal aspects of Mexican Americans in the past as seen from a local point of view.

Data Analysis

Historical Data

Hispanic educational hardships that placed great strains on Hispanics were illustrated through the analysis of historical records. The misconstrued perceptions that alluded to why Hispanic had experienced educational success were invalidated by various sources. The circumstances that brought about the legal issues took form after utilizing a tracking system that detected educational discriminatory acts. Historical events facilitated the process in disclosing the circumstances that brought about the legal issues on the behalf of Hispanics. Justification of the implementation of the STBI was cultivated. The outlook of the past served as a measuring tool of the tangible evidence that leads to determination of low attainment of educational equality and equity for Hispanics.

Educational Opportunities: Have educational opportunities been created at the universities located along the South Texas border?

Amongst the most striking educational developments was the extension of higher education to Hispanics. The STBI was designed to allocate funding along the South Texas border

to provide educational opportunities to the majority population being Hispanics. While programs were available to Hispanics, the scarcity of these programs presented limited opportunities. An analysis was conducted of the educational opportunities and past conditions that led to the insight of immense importance of creating educational opportunities along the South Texas border region. To determine the validity of the scarcity of educational programs in the South Texas border, the analysis compared the initial programs in the different levels offered by the nine South Texas border universities to those in the four Tier 1 universities. To conclude whether the universities in South Texas had experienced an increase in educational opportunity and who had the increase, another comparison was performed using the most recent statistics regarding the number of programs in the different levels within the nine South Texas universities and the four Tier 1 universities. This allows others to become familiar with the pre and post data that proves the usefulness of the STBI. Table 14 heightens awareness of the imbalance of programs during the implementation of the STBI.

Table 14. Number of Degree Programs per Million People by Location in 1990

Degree Level	Border Region	Rest of the State
Bachelor	343	2,070
Pgms/Million	101	152
Master's	303	1,725
Pgms/Million	90	127
Doctoral	3	589
Pgms/Million	1	43
Total Degrees Programs	649	4,384

Source: Nevarez, M. A., Martinez, L, & Codina, E., 1993, p.37.

Table 15 below depicts the current program inventory for the Border Region as of 2012 and mirrors the amount of programs produced after the STBI evolved. When comparing table 14 and

and table 15, it gives readers the before and after of program opportunities that facilitates the process of determining if all of the programs of concern were created. One can look at the representation and detect any growth change to conclude a determinant of any deficiencies that need readdressing.

Table 15. 2012 Total Programs Inventory for Border vs. Public Tier 1 Universities

Name of Institutions	Bachelors	Master	Doctorate	Professional
TAMU	30	26	1	0
TAMUCC	48	31	5	0
TAMUK	60	56	6	0
UTB	46	26	1	0
UTEP	75	84	21	1
UTPA	59	49	3	0
UTSA	84	77	26	0
SRRGC	14	4	0	0
SRSU	29	22	0	0
UTHSCSA	17	27	14	4
Total-Border (9) Public & 1 Health-Related	462	402	77	5
Total-(4) Public Tier 1 Institutions	534	536	385	8
Total-Rest of State-(24)Public Institutions	1504	1136	239	8
Total Public Institutions in Texas- (38) Public Universities & *1 Health-Related	2500	2101	701	21

*Does not account for JOINT PROGRAM

* Does not account for BEING PHASED OUT

*Does not account for LIMITED AS A POST-MASTER'S PROGRAM AND LIMITED TRACKS

*Does not account for PROGRAMS IN COOPERATION AMONG COLLEGES

Adapted Source: THECB and Institutional Data

THECB Educational Attainment

Have Mexican American students residing in South Texas experienced an increase in the attainment of higher-level degrees in comparison to White students?

Mexican Americans also wanted to create a system of educational parity. An evaluation of the attainment of high-level degrees was given consideration. The total amount of degrees

attained is based on a comparison identifying the different kinds of degrees in the different universities and making the judgment whether the attainment of degrees has increased. This also demonstrates if the areas of increase are significant to make an impacting change for those communities located in the South Texas and the Upper Rio Grande regions of the state that account for the nine institutions that received STBI funding. The table 16 below shows increases from 2006-2010 in the percentage and level of degrees attained in both regions. Such comparison confers the rapid increase of the South Texas population ages 25 years and over that resulted in almost double that of Central Texas, yet this increase falls well below the percentage of educational attainment reported for Central Texas.

Table 16. Texas Educational Attainment in 2000 and 2006-2010 Composite by Region

Texas Educational Attainment in 2000 and 2006-2010 Composite by Region									
Region	Population 25 Years and Over		Percent H.S. Diploma (or GED) or Higher		Percent Associate's Degree or Higher		Percent Baccalaureate Degree or Higher		
	2000	2006-2010	2000	2006-2010	2000	2006-2010	2000	2006-2010	
High Plains	607,037	503,733	75.0%	79.8%	24.1%	27.2%	18.8%	21.2%	
Northwest	350,250	355,092	76.1%	80.8%	21.4%	24.1%	16.7%	18.3%	
Metrolplex	3,416,273	4,085,360	79.8%	82.9%	33.4%	36.8%	27.8%	30.3%	
Upper East	665,553	724,288	75.1%	80.8%	20.8%	24.0%	15.3%	17.1%	
Southeast	476,816	497,449	75.2%	80.6%	18.4%	21.6%	13.9%	15.4%	
Gulf Coast	2,972,716	3,640,208	76.2%	80.0%	31.1%	34.1%	26.1%	28.1%	
Central Texas	1,274,317	1,747,464	82.1%	85.5%	35.2%	38.8%	29.6%	31.9%	
South Texas	2,304,306	2,748,540	68.0%	74.1%	22.7%	26.4%	17.8%	20.2%	
West Texas	317,012	347,317	71.2%	75.1%	21.3%	22.8%	16.4%	16.9%	
Upper Rio Grande	406,613	466,920	65.6%	70.8%	21.7%	25.5%	16.7%	19.4%	
Statewide	12,790,893	15,116,371	75.7%	80.1%	28.5%	32.1%	23.2%	25.8%	

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2000 Decennial and 2006-2010 American Community Survey

Source: THECB-Texas Higher Education Regional Data, (2012)

Utilizing Table 17 below shows the increase in the number of degrees awarded at border institutions in comparison to the Tier 1 universities every ten years from 1989 to 2010. In 1989-1990, there were 5,707 bachelors, 1,675 masters, and 5 doctorates degrees awarded in comparison to the four Tier 1 institutes that totaled 19,196 bachelors, 5,152 masters, and 1,296

doctorates. In 2009-2010 there were a total of 13,840 bachelors, 3,994 masters, and 168 doctorates awarded in the nine border institutes in comparison to the four Tier 1 institutes that amounted to 26,657 bachelors, 7,896 masters, and 1,895 doctorates. Over twenty-years, progress is evident. The differences in the number of degrees awarded, elicits questions regarding efforts made to recruit enrollment and the availability of programs of interest. Barriers are entertained in order to conclude an action plan that remedies deficiencies. Finally, it is also important to note that when looking at these numbers one must be cognizant, that most of the degrees awarded at Tier 1 universities are attained by non-Hispanic students as is depicted in the 2012 THECB table 17 below.

Table 17. Degrees attained by the nine South Texas border universities

Degrees Awarded By Level				
Institution	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate	Years
Texas A&M International UNIV	170	72	0	1989-1990
	371	187	0	1999-2000
	798	301	6	2009-2010
Texas A&M UNIV-Corpus Christi	701	285	0	1989-1990
	901	395	4	1999-2000
	1,335	445	21	2009-2010
TEXAS A&M UNIV-Kingsville	684	288	4	1989-1990
	708	322	10	1999-2000
	692	365	18	2009-2010
U. OF Texas at Brownsville	244	65	0	1989-1990
	475	151	0	1999-2000
	1,052	201	0	2009-2010
U. OF Texas at El Paso	1,289	345	1	1989-1990
	1,695	419	17	1999-2000
	3,031	888	54	2009-2010
U. Of Texas-Pan American	824	152	0	1989-1990
	1,340	412	7	1999-2000
	2,620	643	9	2009-2010
U. Of Texas at San Antonio	1,562	300	0	1989-1990
	2,487	616	4	1999-2000
	3,968	911	60	2009-2010
Sul Ross Rio Grande College	39	33	0	1989-1990
	176	50	0	1999-2000
	168	55	0	2009-2010
Sul Ross UNIV	194	135	0	1989-1990
	189	179	0	1999-2000
	176	185	0	2009-2010
UH	6,150	1,173	377	1989-1990
	7,512	1,388	490	1999-2000
	8,451	2,051	578	2009-2010
U.Of Texas at Austin	7,222	2,087	663	1989-1990
	7,803	2,540	703	1999-2000
	8,952	2,901	841	2009-2010
U Of Texas at Houston	2,687	1,252	130	1989-1990
	3,533	1,398	206	1999-2000
	4,778	1,722	233	2009-2010
Texas Tech UNIV	3,137	640	126	1989-1990
	3,643	827	156	1999-2000
	4,476	1,222	243	2009-2010

Adapted Source: THECB and Institutional Data

Higher Education Enrollment by Texas Region

According to THECB, 60% of African Americans and Hispanics are reported to enter two-year colleges first compared to only 53% of white students. The table 18 below reveals that South Texas Hispanic enrollment accounts for 65% of the total student enrollment and Upper Rio Grande accounts for 80.2% of the Hispanic student enrollment. A drastic difference to the percentage reported for Hispanics in other regions of the state. The THECB also reported there to be increase in percentage of Hispanic enrolling in higher education from 2009 to 2011.

Table 18.Higher Education Enrollment by Ethnicity, All Institutions

Higher Education Enrollment by Ethnicity, All Institutions*							
Fall 2011							
Region	All	White	Percent of All	African American	Percent of All	Hispanic	Percent of All
High Plains	74,766	44,618	59.7%	4,427	5.9%	16,235	21.7%
Northwest	28,022	18,281	65.2%	2,485	8.9%	4,636	16.5%
Metropex	360,171	176,065	48.9%	61,115	17.0%	70,127	19.5%
Upper East	59,052	36,363	61.6%	12,705	21.5%	6,160	10.4%
Southeast	40,513	23,023	56.8%	10,063	24.8%	4,169	10.3%
Gulf Coast	303,940	104,076	34.2%	65,385	21.5%	81,387	26.8%
Central Texas	263,449	149,675	56.8%	22,252	8.4%	53,519	20.3%
South Texas	258,694	57,779	22.3%	12,188	4.7%	168,134	65.0%
West Texas	26,747	12,648	47.3%	1,514	5.7%	10,267	38.4%
Upper Rio Grande	52,713	5,212	9.9%	1,403	2.7%	42,296	80.2%
Statewide	1,468,067	627,740	42.8%	193,537	13.2%	456,930	31.1%

*Excludes for-profit and career schools and Amberton University.

Source: THECB and Institutional Data

Source: THECB-Texas Higher Education Regional Data, (2012)

Percent Growth Rate

There is tangible evidence that reveals that the South Texas border universities not only experienced an increase in degrees awarded at all levels, but grew at a faster growth rate than Tier 1 institutes. The increase growth rate yielded the following for each of the nine South Texas border universities in table 19 that was significant in comparison to the rate of growth exhibited in table 20, which shows the lack of growth rate among the Tier 1 universities. Take for the

example, the percentage growth rate at the University of Texas at El Paso following the STBI. There was a growth rate for doctoral degrees at a percentage of 1180, for bachelors 141, and master's degrees rate of growth at 216. Whereas, the University of Texas at Austin only exhibited a growth rate for Masters at a percentage of 17.61, for bachelors 13.8 and for doctorates 14.83, therefore, significantly lower rates of growth were exhibited in Tier 1 universities. In utilizing Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board (THECB) institutional data, it was also important to look at whether or not this data correlated to data gathered from the U.S. Census on educational attainment of citizens.

Table 19. Percent Growth in degrees Awarded Border Public Institutions from 1988-89 to 2010-11

Percent Growth in Degrees Awarded Border Public Institutions from 1988-89 to 2010-11						
SRRGC		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	153	163	10	6.53	0.29
	Master's	62	36	-26	-41.94	-1.91
	Doctoral	0	0	0	*	*
	Special-Professional	0	0	0	*	*
	Total	215	199	-16	-7.44	-0.34
SRSU		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	236	187	-49	-20.76	-0.94
	Master's	159	173	14	8.8	0.4
	Doctoral	0	0	0	*	*
	Special-Professional	0	0	0	*	*
	Total	395	360	-35	-8.86	-0.4
TAMIU		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	414	766	352	85.02	3.86
	Master's	207	261	54	26.09	1.19
	Doctoral	0	2	2	*	*
	Special-Professional	0	0	0	*	*
	Total	621	1,029	408	65.7	2.99
TAMUK		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	649	738	89	13.71	0.62
	Master's	297	464	167	56.23	2.5
	Doctoral	9	22	13	144	6.57
	Special-Professional	0	0	0	*	*
	Total	955	1,224	269	28.17	1.28
TAMUCC		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	884	1315	431	48.76	2.22
	Master's	412	532	120	29.13	1.32
	Doctoral	8	30	22	275	12.5
	Special-Professional	0	0	0	*	*
	Total	1,304	1,877	573	43.94	1.99
UTB		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	494	1075	581	118	5.35
	Master's	167	205	38	22.75	1.03
	Doctoral	0	6	6	*	*
	Special-Professional	0	0	0	*	*
	Total	661	1,286	625	94.55	4.3
UTEP		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	1,247	3,008	1,761	141	6
	Master's	339	1071	732	216	9.81
	Doctoral	5	64	59	1180	53.63
	Special-Professional	0	14	14	*	*
	Total	1,591	4,157	2,566	161	7.33
UTPA		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	1,330	2658	1328	99.85	4.54
	Master's	293	818	525	179	8.14
	Doctoral	2	10	8	400	18.18
	Special-Professional	0	0	0	*	*
	Total	1,625	3,486	1,861	115	5.21
UTSA		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	2,212	4148	1936	87.52	3.98
	Master's	523	1007	484	92.54	4.21
	Doctoral	1	68	67	6700	304.5
	Special-Professional	0	0	0	*	*
	Total	2,736	5,223	2,487	90.9	4.13
UTHSCSA		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	381	451	70	18.37	0.84
	Master's	96	174	78	81.25	3.69
	Doctoral	31	49	18	58.06	2.64
	Special-Professional	291	363	72	24.74	1.12
	Total	799	1,037	238	29.79	1.35
*No year 1 and/or year 2 data to calculate percent growth						

Adapted Source: THECB and Institutional Data

Table 20. Percent Growth in Degrees Awarded to Non Border Public Institutions from 1988-89 to 2010-11

Percent Growth in Degrees Awarded Non Border Public Institutions from 1988-89 to 2010-11						
TEXAS TECH		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	2,860	4,605	1,745	61.01	3
	Master's	517	1300	783	151	6.88
	Doctoral	134	265	131	97.76	4.44
	Special-Profession	169	199	30	17.75	0.81
	Total	3,680	6,369	2,689	73.07	3.32
TEXAS A&M		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	6,786	8,748	1,962	28.91	1.31
	Master's	1,325	2,231	906	68.37	3.11
	Doctoral	488	618	130	26.64	1.21
	Special-Profession	0	121	121	*	*
	Total	8,599	11,718	3,119	36.27	1.65
UTAUSTIN		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	7,932	9,027	1,095	13.8	0.63
	Master's	2,539	2,986	447	17.61	0.8
	Doctoral	735	844	109	14.83	0.67
	Special-Profession	541	508	-33	-6.1	-0.28
	Total	11,747	13,365	1,618	13.77	0.63
UIH		1988-89	2010-11	Change(Degrees Awarded)	Growth Rate	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
	Baccalaureate	4,726	5,092	366	7.74	0.35
	Master's	1,465	1,927	462	31.54	1.43
	Doctoral	218	306	88	40.36	1.83
	Special-Profession	445	510	65	14.61	0.66
	Total	6,854	7,835	981	14.31	0.65
*No year 1 and/or year 2 data to calculate percent growth						

Adapted Source: THECB and Institutional Data

U.S. Census Data and Educational Attainment Data

As is well known, every ten years a U.S. Census is conducted by means of household surveys that contain data from each county in Texas. This 2000 and 2010 information provides an outlook of the growth rate yielded for higher educational degrees since adoption of the STBI. It was also important to compare those figures to Tier 1 counties. One of the main initiatives of STBI was to provide those communities with easily accessible programs of study that were of comparable quality and quantity with the rest of the public state institutions to improve on the poor economic conditions of the communities along the U.S. Mexico border region. The nature

of this comparison is to establish a positive or negative change to determine the probability of Texans ability to compete economically in the future. The production of a highly skilled workforce or a greater number of educated citizens has an enormous influence on the prosperity of the South Texas border. Therefore, border residents would have to go beyond high school and a bachelor's degree to meet the needs of the future. If one compares the 2000 demographic by county with the 2010 demographics, only a few counties and recipients of the STBI show having experienced a growth in graduate level or professional degree according to the U. S. Census.

Below in tables 21 and 22 are a depiction of the 2000 Texas County Demographics of border and Tier 1 institutions. As can be seen, the counties that housed Tier 1 universities all presented equal to or an above the state average of 7.60% of persons' ages 25 years and older with a graduate or professional degree. Interestingly, in border counties, only two presented above the state averages, Texas A & M-Kingsville and Sul Ross State University out of Brewster county. However, once again one must take into account the population of the county when looking at these numbers in order to be able gauge a true perspective of why these two counties did better than the most highly populated border counties. Remarkably, when looking at border counties alone, those places with the highest percentage of Hispanics had the least percentage of individuals with graduate or professional degrees.

Table 21. 2000 Texas County Demographics for STBI Recipients

									SRRGC			
Institution	TAMU	TAMCC	TAMK	UTB	UTEP	UTPA	UTSA	SRSU	Del Rio	Eagle Pass	Uvalde	TEXAS
Texas County	Webb	Nueces	Kleberg	Cameron	El Paso	Hidalgo	Bexar	Brewster	Val Verde	Maverick	Uvalde	
Population, 2000	193,117	313,645	31,549	335,227	679,622	569,463	1,392,931	8,866	44,856	47,297	25,926	20,851,820
Persons of Hispanic or Latino origin, percent	94%	55.80%	65.40%	84.30%	78.20%	88.30%	54.00%	43.60%	76.00%	95.00%	66.00%	32.00%
Mexican	75%	36.10%	45.50%	67.60%	65.80%	76.10%	38.10%	33.30%	64.50%	80.50%	47.10%	24.30%
White persons not Hispanic, percent,	4.90%	37.70%	28.50%	14.50%	17.00%	10.40%	35.60%	53.10%	21.70%	3.40%	32.70%	52.40%
High school graduates, percent of persons age 25+, 2000	17.90%	25.00%	23.10%	20.10%	22.50%	20.20%	24.30%	21.10%	24.80%	18.80%	22.40%	24.80%
Bachelor's degree or higher, pct of persons age 25+, 2000	8.60%	12.00%	12.80%	8.40%	11.00%	8.40%	14.30%	17.40%	8.90%	5.70%	9.70%	16%
Graduate or professional degree	5.35%	6.80%	7.60%	4.90%	5.60%	4.50%	8.30%	10.30%	5.30%	3.40%	4.10%	7.60%
Median household income 2000	\$28,100	\$35,959	\$29,313	\$26,155	\$31,051	\$24,863	\$38,328	\$27,386	\$28,376	\$21,232	\$27,164	\$39,927
Persons below poverty level, percent, 2000	31.20%	18.20%	26.70%	33.10%	23.80%	35.90%	15.90%	18.20%	26.10%	34.80%	24.30%	15.40%

(Source: U.S. Census -American Fact Finder, 2000: Profile of Selected Social Characteristics: 2000; Profile of Selected Economic Characteristics: 2000; Profile of General Demographic Characteristics: 2000).

Table 22. 2000 Texas County Demographics of Tier 1 Institutions

Institution	UH	TEXAS A&M	UT AUSTIN	TEXAS TECH	TEXAS
Texas County	Harris	Brazos	Travis	Lubbock	
Population, 2000	3,400,578	152,415	812,280	242,628	20,851,820
Persons of Hispanic or Latino origin, percent	32.90%	17.90%	28.20%	27.50%	32.00%
Mexican	24%	13.70%	21.60%	16.40%	24.30%
White persons not Hispanic, percent,	42.10%	66.00%	56.40%	62.50%	52.40%
High school graduate (includes equivalency), person 25+	21.60%	20.10%	17.30%	25.30%	24.80%
Bachelor's degree, 25+	17.90%	19.70%	26.10%	16.00%	16%
Graduate or professional degree, 25+	9.00%	17.30%	14.50%	8.40%	7.60%
Median household income 2000	\$42,598	\$29,104	\$46,761	\$32,198	\$39,927
Persons below poverty level, percent, 2000	15.00%	26.90%	12.50%	17.80%	15.40%

(Source: U.S. Census -American Fact Finder, 2000: Profile of Selected Social Characteristics: 2000; Profile of Selected Economic Characteristics: 2000; Profile of General Demographic Characteristics: 2000).

Below is a depiction of the 2010 Texas County Demographics of border institutions and Tier 1 institutions following the twenty-year aftermath of the South Texas Border Initiative. As can be seen below in table 23, most of the border counties still account for lower percentages of individuals reporting a graduate or professional degree with the exception of counties that house the University of San Antonio and Sul Ross State University. In comparison, all counties that house Tier 1 universities performed above Texas average. Once again, most counties with a larger percentage of Hispanics seem to have lower number of individuals with graduate or professional degrees when taking into account the total population by area.

Table 23. 2010 Texas County Demographics for STBI Recipients

									SRRGC			
Institution	TAMU	TAMCC	TAMK	UTB	UTEP	UTPA	UTSA	SRSU	Del Rio	Eagle Pass	Uvalde	TEXAS
Texas County	Webb	Nueces	Kleberg	Cameron	El Paso	Hidalgo	Bexar	Brewster	Val Verde	Maverick	Uvalde	
Population Estimates, 2011	256,496	343,281	32,196	414,123	820,790	797,810	1,756,153	9,232	49,106	55,405	26,535	25,674,681
*Mexican (Actual)	87%	50%	59%	81%	76.60%	85%	49%	38%	74%	92%	59%	32%
Persons of Hispanic or Latino origin, percent	95%	61.00%	70.30%	88.10%	81.40%	90.70%	58.90%	42.80%	80.10%	95.20%	69.70%	38.10%
White persons not Hispanic, percent, 2007-2011	3.60%	32.50%	22.60%	10.60%	13.70%	7.70%	30.20%	53.40%	17.40%	3.20%	28.60%	44.80%
High school graduates (includes equivalency), percent of persons age 25+, 2007-2011	21.30%	26.70%	25.10%	23.90%	24.30%	24.30%	25.20%	20.80%	25.60%	23.50%	25.40%	25.70%
Bachelor's degree, pct of persons age 25+, 2007-2011	12.30%	12.70%	15.10%	10.00%	13.20%	11.00%	16.40%	18.60%	12.30%	8.90%	11.40%	17%
Graduate or professional degree, 2007-2011	4.80%	7.80%	6.70%	4.60%	6.60%	4.30%	9.10%	13.80%	4.10%	3.50%	4.40%	9%
Median household income 2007-2011	\$37,868	\$44,815	\$37,222	\$32,156	\$38,259	\$32,479	\$48,083	\$39,316	\$38,747	\$29,504	\$34,456	\$50,920
Persons below poverty level, percent, 2007-2011	30.60%	18.80%	24.80%	34.90%	25.00%	35.30%	17.10%	13.90%	23.00%	31.50%	27.70%	17.00%

(Source: *U.S. Census 2010; U.S. Quick Facts, 2007-2011; SELECTED SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS IN THE UNITED STATES 2007-2011 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates)

Table 24. 2010 Texas County Demographics of Tier 1 Institutions

Institution	UH	TEXAS A&M	UT AUSTIN	TEXAS TECH	TEXAS
Texas County	Harris	Brazos	Travis	Lubbock	
Population Estimates, 2011	4,180,894	197,632	1,063,130	283,910	25,674,681
*Mexican	30.60%	19.80%	33.50%	26.50%	32
Persons of Hispanic or Latino origin, percent	41%	23.90%	33.90%	32.60%	38.10%
White persons not Hispanic, percent, 2007-2011	32.70%	58.80%	50.30%	56.60%	44.80%
High school graduates (includes equivalency) , percent of persons age 25+, 2007-2011	23.80%	22.40%	16.90%	26.00%	25.70%
Bachelor's degree, pct of persons age 25+, 2007-2011	18.30%	21.60%	27.80%	18.00%	17%
Graduate or professional degree, 2007-2011	9.60%	17.40%	16.20%	9.40%	9%
Median household income 2007-2011	\$52,675	\$37,161	\$55,452	\$43,983	\$50,920
Persons below poverty level, percent, 2007-2011	17.30%	29.70%	16.60%	19.10%	17.00%

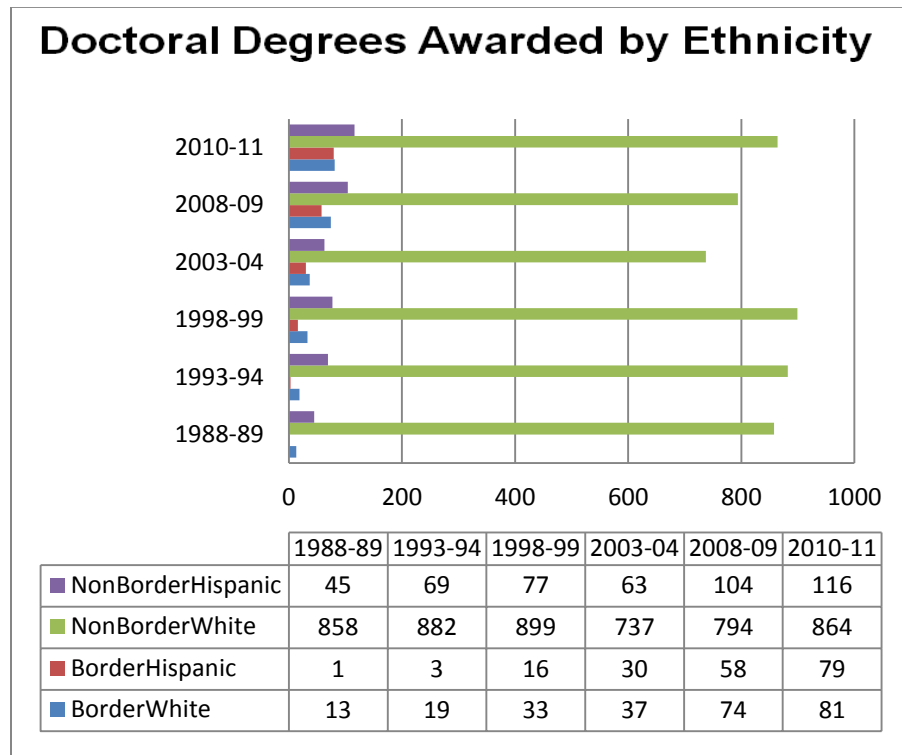
(Source: *U.S. Census 2010;U.S. Quick Facts, 2007-2011; SELECTED SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS IN THE UNITED STATES 2007-2011 American Community Survey 5-Year Estimates)

Webb County, which houses Texas A&M International; Kleberg County, which houses Texas A&M Kingsville; Cameron County, which houses the University of Texas at Brownsville; Hidalgo County, which houses the University of Texas at Pan American; and Val Verde and Uvalde counties, which are affiliates of Sul Ross Rio Grande College all reported a decreased in graduate or professional degree in spite of programs developed as a result of the STBI. Interestingly, in comparison to the four public Tier 1 universities, the nine South Texas border universities experienced a considerable elevation in the percentage of reported graduate or professional degrees. Lastly, it was important to point out the significant stratification in table 24 between bachelors and graduate degrees reported in the U.S. Census by county.

Degree Stratification

The figures were gathered from the THECB, below is a depiction of the stratification in level of degrees awarded between border recipients to public Tier 1 universities. The table in

figure 15 reflects the alarming disparity found between Hispanic and White students in doctoral degrees awarded. Therefore, it was once again important to correlate THECB institutional data with data presented in THECB 2012 report.



*Rice (Private Institution is not Include)

Figure 15. Doctoral Degrees Awarded by Ethnicity

Adapted Source: THECB and Institutional Data

Professional Degrees Awarded by Region

Another interesting facet of the THECB report was table 25, which shows the lack of professional degree programs available in South Texas and Upper Rio Grande regions. The report reflects that the majority of professional degrees awarded in the state as being from five regions: Central Texas, Gulf Coast, Metroplex, South Texas, and High Plains. The disproportion

of programs in four regions (Central Texas, Gulf Coast, Metroplex, High Plains) as compared to South Texas. In Figure 9 there is a depicts of population estimations for the High Plains as totaling 839,586. In addition this figure also depicts 74,766 of the High Plains population as enrolled in higher education. In contrast, it is depicted that the South Texas has an estimated population of 4,710,347, with 258,694 of the population in enrolled in higher education. One would assume that the South Texas region would have more professional program allocated in accordance with the population distribution of the state.

Table 25. Professional Inventory by Region

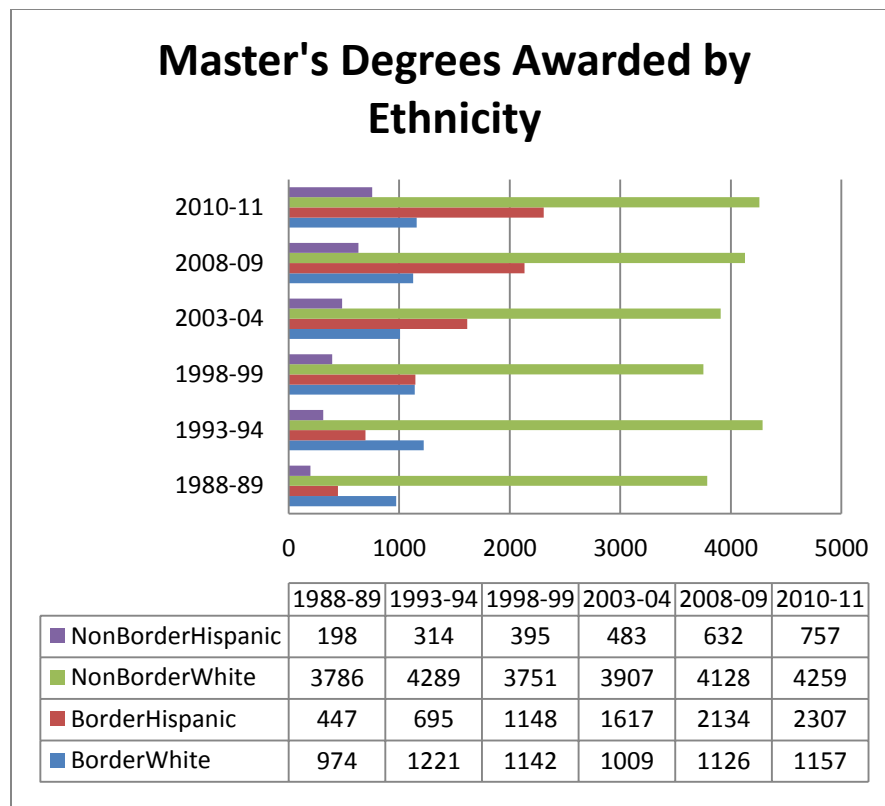
Region	Program Name	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
High Plains	Law	230	237	206	210	199
	Communication Sciences and Disorders, General				7	6
	Audiology/Audiologist	4	11	8		
	Medicine	112	137	124	145	144
	Pharmacy	76	84	81	92	117
	Physical Therapy/Therapist		45	66	51	78
	Nursing Practice				19	
Metroplex	Audiology/Audiologist	15	15	14	19	13
	Medicine	226	219	233	204	207
	Osteopathic Medicine/Osteopathy	126	128	128	151	159
	Physical Therapy/Therapist			12	164	154
Southeast	Audiology/Audiologist	4	4	7	2	1
Gulf Coast	Law	529	491	482	425	443
	Dentistry	60	59	75	79	81
	Medicine	576	560	546	592	632
	Optometry	91	100	87	98	102
	Pharmacy	204	234	245	206	238
	Physical Therapy/Therapist			21	38	53
Central Texas	Law	420	441	433	392	382
	Audiology/Audiologist and Speech-Language Pathology/Pathologist	3	1	6	8	9
	Dentistry	79	88	87	84	101
	Medicine	78	76	79	76	100
	Pharmacy	123	132	121	195	186
	Physical Therapy/Therapist					39
	Veterinary Medicine	129	129	119	125	121
South Texas	Dentistry	82	82	92	92	107
	Medicine	196	204	197	210	216
	Physical Therapy/Therapist			40	38	40
Upper Rio Grande	Physical Therapy/Therapist					14

Source: CBM009

Source: THECB-Texas Higher Education Regional Data, (2012)

Despite, South Texas having been identified as having significantly more population than the High Plains and more importantly double that of Central Texas, it remains relevantly uneven in higher educational resources. The determination of disproportion of the number of professional programs made available to the inhabitants of this region is plausible. More importantly, if educational opportunities continue to be deterred from areas with larger concentration of Hispanics population, known to be increasing rapidly throughout Texas especially along the border regions as reported by the U.S. Census in 2010 in table 23, it is less likely parity will ever be reached in Texas.

The figure below, depicts the number of master degrees awarded to border students, once again, border students attain master degrees at lower percentages than White students do. One interesting factor to note in figure 16 is the evident findings that border Hispanics exceed the number of degrees awarded in correlation to non- border Hispanic at Tier 1 universities. The same figure shows that Hispanic received a total of 2307 master's degrees in the 2010-11 school year and the non-border Hispanics for that same year only received 757 master degrees.

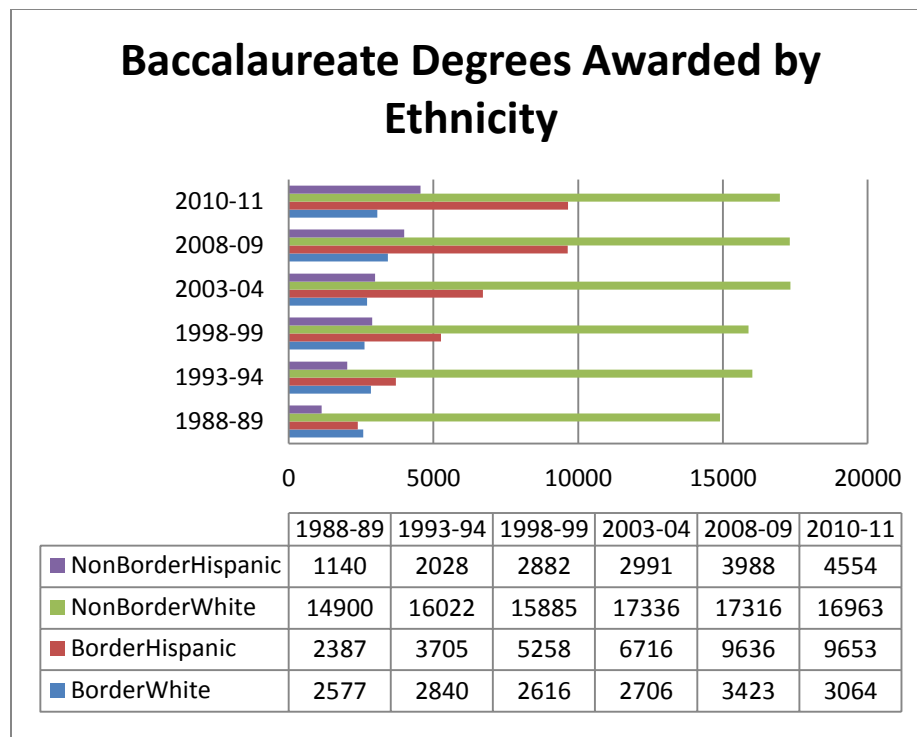


*Rice (Private Institution is not Include)

Figure 16. Master's Degrees Awarded by Ethnicity

Adapted Source: THECB and Institutional Data

Figure 17 discloses the number of baccalaureate degrees awarded to Hispanic and Whites students from the border institutions in comparison to Tier 1 universities. The data reveals a substantial disparity in degrees awarded among non-border Hispanics when compared to border Hispanics. On the other hand, there is a significant difference among the non-border Whites and border Whites in bachelor attainment. In looking at the 2010-11 school year, non-border Whites received a total of 16,963 bachelor's degrees in comparison to border Whites who only received 3,064. This could mean that border whites migrate in larger numbers outside the region for undergraduate degrees than border Hispanic students do.



*Rice(Private Institution is not Include)

Figure 17. Baccalaureate Degrees Awarded by Ethnicity

Adapted Source: THECB and Institutional Data

Finally, in terms of educational attainment, the THECB in 2012 reported a strong relationship between the increase in number of degrees attained and educational parity for Mexican Americans as shown in figures 18 and 19. Both figures provided by the THECB in 2012 show the “trends in overall enrollment for African American, Hispanic, and white students” (THECB-Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012, p. 12). Figure 18 portrays Hispanics as being in compliance with the targeted educational gaps necessary in closing the gap by 2015, and maintaining the educational edge over African Americans. Therefore, the implication is that Mexican Americans are experiencing exceptional educational gains, and moving towards acquiring educational parity. According to the data, Hispanics are up to par in undergraduate degrees awarded while African Americans have fallen below the target. What precipitates the

misconception that Hispanics had experienced a profound increase in educational gains is the omission of the data pertaining to Whites.

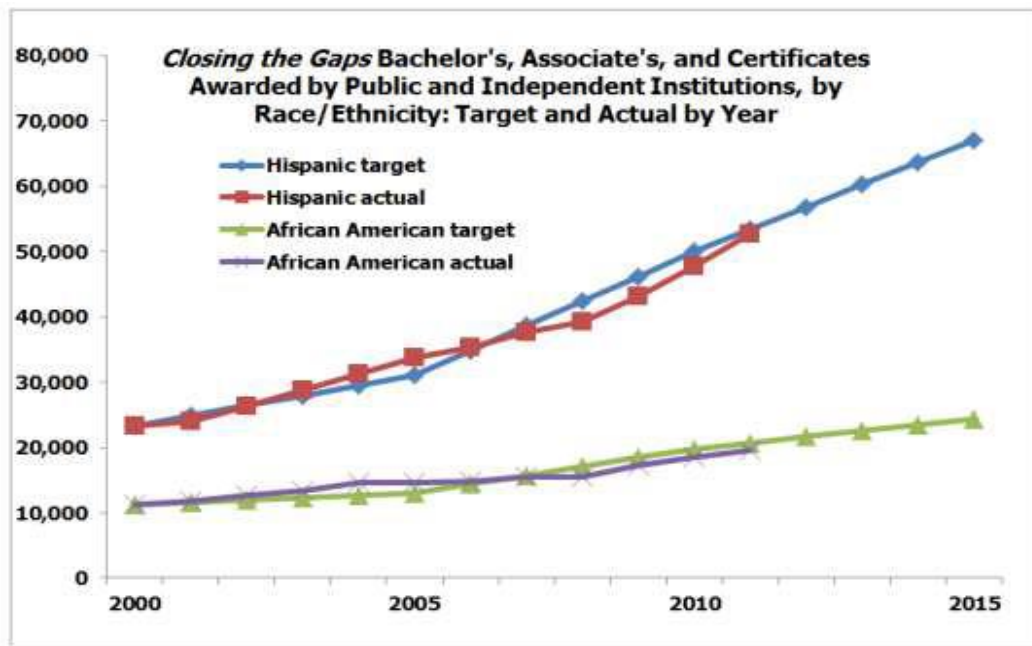


Figure 18. Closing the Gaps 2015, by Race/Ethnicity

Source: THECB-Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012, p.12

Yet, when analyzing figure 19 that includes the data pertaining to Whites, Hispanics are in compliance with the itinerary of Closing the Gap by 2015. However, the data implies that although Hispanics are experiencing gains they continue to lag further behind. Meanwhile, Whites are exceeding the targeted educational goals creating a bigger educational gap. Therefore, the difference in educational progression continues to create barriers in maintaining parity among Whites and Hispanics because of the substantial educational gap between them.

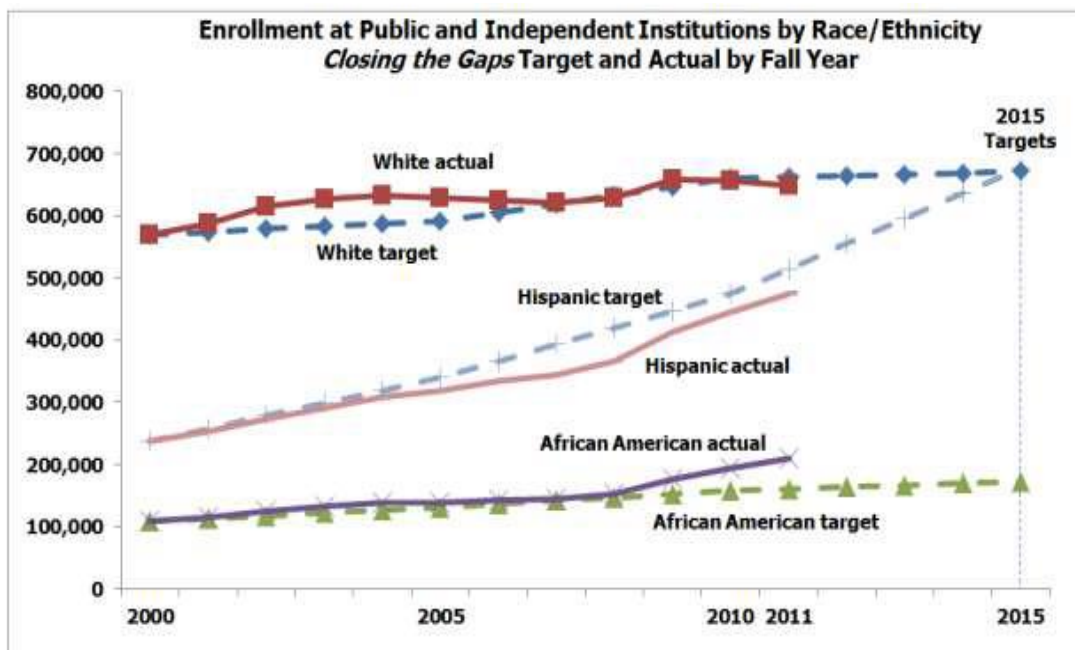


Figure 19. Enrollment at Public and Independent Institutions by Race/ Ethnicity

Source: THECB-Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012, p.12

Therefore, there is no question that there were major disparities found among the 2012 THECB report and the gathered THECB institutional data pertaining to for the nine border universities and the four Tier 1 institutions when looking at educational attainment. Another factor brought up in the case of LULAC vs. Richards was the lack of migration to Tier 1 universities. Therefore, once again, it is imperative to look at the percentage of high school graduates that migrate from each of the nine counties that houses South Texas Border Initiative institutions to the four Tier 1 universities in comparison to the THECB 2012 report.

Migration- Are Mexican American students residing on the South Texas border prone to migrate to other universities to attain a higher education in a Tier 1 university in Texas?

It was argued in the case of LULAC vs. Richards that Mexican American students residing on the South Texas border were not prone to migrate to other universities in order to

take advantage of the opportunity to attain higher education in a Tier 1 university in Texas. This argument produced a search for Mexican Americans' attendance records. After looking at the numerical records, the attendance records were found to be unreliable because of the data's failure to accurately differentiate White from Mexican American students enrolling at Tier 1 universities. However, statistics provided from El Paso, County records, from 2002, 2006, and 2010 revealed that the bulk of the high school students who graduate in the area enrolled at the University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP) or at El Paso Community College (EPCC). Only 1.18% of high school graduates from El Paso County in 2010 enrolled at the University of Texas at Austin (UT Austin), 0.3% enrolled at A&M University, 0% enrolled at the University of Houston, and 0.92 % enrolled at Texas Tech University. It is important to note that when looking at these charts the number of untraceable high school students and the number of students not found are almost half of those that were accounted for. These unaccounted high school graduates represent the number of high school graduates that either did not enroll in a college or university in Texas and /or the number of high school graduates that went out of state for higher education. Interestingly enough, almost all of the nine counties that received STBI funds were similar. Most of the high school graduates accounted for in these areas had the propensity to enroll at their local four-year university or two-year College.

Table 26. Fall 2010 Percentage of Texas High School Migration to Tier 1 Universities

Percentage of Texas High School Graduates From FY 2010 by Texas County Enrolled in Tier 1 University for Fall 2010					
	County	Texas A&M	UT AUSTIN	Texas Tech	UNIV- Houston
Texas A&M International UNIV	Webb	1.07	1.21	0	0
Texas A&M UNIV-Corpus Christi	Nueces	2.03	1.43	0.94	0.23
TEXAS A&M UNIV-Kingsville	Kleberg	0	0	0	0
U. OF Texas at Brownsville	Cameron	1.82	1.95	0.1	0
U. OF Texas at El Paso	El Paso	0.3	1.18	0.92	0
U. Of Texas-Pan American	Hidalgo	1.09	1.36	0	0
U. Of Texas at San Antonio	Bexar	1.81	2.17	0.95	0.2
Sul Ross Rio Grande College	Val Verde	3.6	2.95	1.15	0
	Maverick	2.55	2.78	0	0
	Uvalde	1.75	2.34	0	0
Sul Ross UNIV	Brewster	0	0	0	0

Adapted Source: THECB and Institutional Data

Texas' land mass is the second largest in United States next to the state of Alaska and has the second-largest number of occupants in comparison to California. Despite Texas currently having approximately four public Tier 1 and one private Tier 1 institutions, certain regions of Texas continue to fall short in providing for the educational needs of its inhabitants, especially of those who reside along the South Texas border region. Table 26 provides evidence of diminished educational opportunities that occurred because of Hispanics' reluctance to migrate to Tier 1 universities in far proximity from their hometown. During the case of LULAC vs. Richards, Texas had only two public comprehensive universities known today as Tier 1 institutions. After Texas had failed to desegregate institutions of higher education, border officials filed the lawsuit LULAC vs. Richards. This case brought to the forefront the notion of spatial discrimination or segregation in higher education in Texas. Spatial discrimination is defined as the lack of proximity to educational opportunities for persons of color. At this time, Whites responding to the mandates of educating all residents regardless of their race or ethnicity decided that they would not recognize other races as equal and refused to make education

accessible. Considerable numbers of Whites were committed to the goal of keeping minorities uneducated, a goal that rested on the belief in the essential inequality of minorities and the impossibility of Whites coexisting with minorities. Therefore, spatial discrimination resulted in response to Whites' resistance to assimilate into a diverse culture. This step was intended to undermine the law and the collective nature of minorities. Prestigious universities were erected away from the South Texas border where indigenous people and Blacks resided because the majority of the population found living in the border region were Black and people who were economically disadvantaged (Sharp, 1998). The lack of economic development along the South Texas border elicited the manifestation of consequences that derived from the state officials' failure to distribute educational opportunities equally by making education easily accessible to all Texas residents. Residents had to travel the proximity calculated in Table 27 to attend any of the four Tier 1 institutions.

Table 27. Approx. Driving Distance to Tier 1 University

Approx. Driving Mileage by Texas County to Tier 1 University						
	County	Texas A&M	UT AUSTIN	Texas Tech	UNIV-Houston	Avg. Distance by County
Texas A&M International UNIV	Webb	342.95	233.57	530.44	314.71	355.4175
Texas A&M UNIV-Corpus Christi	Nueces	246.14	194.26	551.01	209.65	300.265
TEXAS A&M UNIV-Kingsville	Kleberg	272.36	212.23	566.03	235.87	321.6225
U. OF Texas at Brownsville	Cameron	392.08	331.96	685.75	355.59	441.345
U. OF Texas at El Paso	El Paso	682.31	577.28	344.7	737.55	585.46
U. Of Texas-Pan American	Hidalgo	374.52	301.88	636.1	338.03	412.6325
U. Of Texas at San Antonio	Bexar	169.9	79.33	407.11	197.62	213.49
Sul Ross Rio Grande College	Val Verde	321.78	231.2	348.58	347.93	312.3725
Sul Ross Rio Grande College	Maverick	312.24	221.21	408.52	337.11	319.77
Sul Ross Rio Grande College	Uvalde	252.17	161.6	378.9	278.33	267.75
Sul Ross UNIV	Brewster	508.71	403.69	289.47	552.26	438.5325

Source: MapQuest Online Website, 2012

The average driving distance to any of the four Tier 1 institutions for those who resided in the border region is more than two-hundred miles. What makes Tier 1 institutions starkly different and valuable from any other type of public institution in Texas is that they have considerable amounts of funding available for top-notch programs, the recruitment of prestigious faculty and students, and research.

Today, as discussed in chapter three, there were several universities along the south border striving to obtain a Tier 1 status in order to secure additional funds. To acquire a Tier 1 status, an institution must award over two-hundred doctoral degrees yearly. Currently, it is important to question the likelihood of an institution located along the South Texas border becoming a Tier 1 institution due to the exorbitant degree quota. This validates the concern on

whether STBI funding was able to create sufficient educational opportunities at the universities along the South Texas border, and its ability to accommodate the large population of Mexican Americans who have long resided in these areas in order to meet the issuance of degrees mandated. Therefore, it was imperative to conduct a student population comparison between Hispanics and Whites. The comparison consisted of students residing within one of the 41 counties, as identified in the case of *LULAC vs. Richards*. It also included students who were in attendance in any of the nine universities along the South Texas border as well as Hispanics and Whites that attended the Tier 1 universities in Texas in order to configure whether or not the state has truly advanced in bringing about parity among the two groups.

THECB Higher Education Enrollment Within/Outside of the Region

According a 2012 report by the THECB, two flagship institutions in Texas attracted students across the state. These flagships institutions were the University of Texas at Austin and Texas A&M. One of the reasons these flagship institutions attracted a diverse student body from every region of the state was the Top 10% Plan as was noted in chapter two. Following the case of *Hopwood vs. University of Texas at Austin*, Texas implemented the Top 10% Plan, which meant that if a Texas student graduated in the top 10% of his or her class he or she was automatically granted admission to these flagship universities. This rule recently changed in the case of UT-Austin. Below is a table that depicts student enrollment by region and type of institution. It also depicts the number and percentage of students that remain in the South Texas border region or leave the region by institution type.

Table 28. Texas Public Higher Education Participation In-or Out-of-Region, Fall 2011

Texas Public Higher Education Participation In- or Out-of-Region, Fall 2011												
Region	Universities				Two-year Institutions				Total			
	In Region	Out of Region		Total	In Region	Out of Region		Total	In Region	Out of Region		Total
		Number	Percent of Total			Number	Percent of Total			Number	Percent of Total	
High Plains	12,489	2,978	19.3%	15,467	21,776	779	3.5%	22,555	34,265	3,757	9.9%	38,022
Northwest	2,865	5,889	67.3%	8,754	10,061	1,925	16.1%	11,986	12,926	7,814	37.7%	20,740
Metrolplex	87,896	45,355	34.0%	133,251	179,739	14,777	7.6%	194,516	267,635	60,132	18.3%	327,767
Upper East	5,627	9,422	62.6%	15,049	32,026	1,492	4.5%	33,518	37,653	10,914	22.5%	48,567
Southeast	10,654	5,821	35.3%	16,475	12,604	3,457	21.5%	16,061	23,258	9,278	28.5%	32,536
Gulf Coast	73,793	60,275	45.0%	134,068	171,152	10,613	5.8%	181,765	244,945	70,888	22.4%	315,833
Central Texas	34,513	21,065	37.9%	55,578	69,160	4,088	5.6%	73,248	103,673	25,153	19.5%	128,826
South Texas	70,048	31,285	30.9%	101,333	140,350	4,609	3.2%	144,959	210,398	35,894	14.6%	246,292
West Texas	6,156	4,616	42.9%	10,772	13,789	1,153	7.7%	14,942	19,945	5,769	22.4%	25,714
Upper Rio Grande	19,910	3,619	15.4%	23,529	26,389	535	2.0%	26,924	46,299	4,154	8.2%	50,453
Total Texas Residents	323,951	190,325	37.0%	514,276	677,046	43,428	6.0%	720,474	1,000,997	233,753	18.9%	1,234,750
Total Non-Texas Residents	0	54,662	100.0%	54,662	0	32,514	100.0%	32,514	0	87,176	100.0%	87,176
Total Enrollment	323,951	244,987	43.1%	568,938	677,046	75,942	10.1%	752,988	1,000,997	320,929	24.3%	1,321,926

*In/out-of-region data is based on individual student enrollment patterns instead of headcount enrollment figures reported by institutions.

Health-related institution enrollment is not included in this analysis.

Source-THECB Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012

In order to grasp a true sense of what has taken place in the South Texas and Upper Rio Grande regions, it is vital to look at the report in table 28 in relation to THECB institutional data as discussed above. According to Jones & Kauffman (1994), prior to the STBI, border students were less likely to travel outside the region in seeking a comprehensive university. Below are three figures that depict the enrollment of students outside of their region during the fall of 2011. In looking at the statistics regarding the South Texas region in table 28, there were 35,894 students enrolled in a public institution out of their region during the fall of 2011 while a total 70,048 students enrolled in a public institution in their region. Since the in region and out of region attendance by residents in South Texas was unavailable prior to the STBI, a pre and post comparison was not conducted. Interestingly enough, when comparing student enrollment for in/out of region from Central Texas to that of South Texas, a higher percentage of Central Texas students are more likely to enroll out of their region than those that stay within the region. For example, when looking at public university enrollment for Central Texas, a total of 34,513

remain in region while a total 25,153 enrolled outside of the region, a drastic difference in the total percentage of students who remained in region in the fall of 2011 at South Texas public universities. Finally, in looking at the Upper Rio Grande region, a total of 4,154 enrolled out of region while 19,910 remain within the region. Since Whites comprise a majority of the student population in non- border universities and Hispanics comprise the majority of the student population in the Border universities, this implies that commuting to Tier 1 universities is a non-factor for Whites compared to Hispanics.

Regional planning for Texas higher education must incorporate an understanding of student migration within and across regions. Ensuring that there are viable opportunities for students with different needs and abilities in all regions is critical for minorities in Texas to close the educational gaps.

Enrollment Outside of Region by Region of Attendance, Fall 2011

High Plains			Northwest		
High Plains to:	Public	Private	Northwest to:	Public	Private
Central Texas	1,448	204	Metroplex	2,814	236
Metroplex	875	225	High Plains	1,889	392
West Texas	481	0	Central Texas	1,357	236
Northwest	278	352	West Texas	1,117	0
South Texas	222	53	South Texas	224	67
Gulf Coast	192	31	Gulf Coast	156	15
Southeast	112	0	Southeast	115	0
Upper Rio Grande	94	0	Upper Rio Grande	74	0
Upper East	55	19	Upper East	68	32
Total	3,757	884	Total	7,814	978

Gulf Coast			Central Texas		
Gulf Coast To:	Public	Private	Central Texas To:	Public	Private
Central Texas	40,518	4,718	Metroplex	9,161	1,340
South Texas	9,422	1,755	Gulf Coast	5,122	434
Metroplex	7,704	2,075	South Texas	4,163	1,139
Southeast	7,004	0	High Plains	2,920	407
High Plains	4,052	110	Southeast	1,247	0
Upper East	961	1,223	West Texas	1,115	0
West Texas	528	0	Upper East	651	308
Northwest	448	600	Northwest	516	805
Upper Rio Grande	251	0	Upper Rio Grande	258	0
Total	70,888	10,481	Total	25,153	4,433

Source: THECB, CBM001

Figure 20. Enrollment Outside of Region by Region of Attendance, Fall 2011

Source-THECB Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012

Enrollment Outside of Region by Region of Attendance, Fall 2011

Metroplex			Upper East		
Metroplex to:	Public	Private	Upper East To:	Public	Private
Central Texas	28,360	5,057	Metroplex	4,155	577
High Plains	9,126	313	Central Texas	3,018	580
Upper East	7,153	1,725	Southeast	1,732	0
Gulf Coast	5,480	579	Gulf Coast	795	69
Southeast	4,343	0	High Plains	773	23
Northwest	2,416	2,178	South Texas	194	128
South Texas	1,954	823	Northwest	113	162
West Texas	1,031	0	West Texas	104	0
Upper Rio Grande	269	0	Upper Rio Grande	30	0
Total	60,132	10,675	Total	10,914	1,539

South Texas			West Texas		
South Texas To:	Public	Private	West Texas To:	Public	Private
Central Texas	24,545	2,644	High Plains	2,306	170
Metroplex	3,242	1,085	Central Texas	1,606	179
High Plains	2,683	1,625	Metroplex	649	169
Gulf Coast	2,610	480	South Texas	394	87
West Texas	1,120	0	Upper Rio Grande	304	0
Southeast	760	0	Northwest	240	299
Upper Rio Grande	462	0	Gulf Coast	141	21
Northwest	263	631	Southeast	87	0
Upper East	209	161	Upper East	42	11
Total	35,894	6,626	Total	5,769	936

Source: THECB, CBM001

Figure 21. Enrollment Outside of Region by Region of Attendance, Fall 2011

Source-THECB Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012

**Enrollment Outside of Region
by Region of Attendance, Fall 2011**

Southeast		
Southeast To:	Public	Private
Gulf Coast	3,670	134
Central Texas	2,812	281
Upper East	1,379	309
Metroplex	752	162
South Texas	333	65
High Plains	200	8
Northwest	54	43
West Texas	52	0
Upper Rio Grande	26	0
Total	9,278	1,002

Upper Rio Grande		
Upper Rio Grande To:	Public	Private
Central Texas	1,648	209
High Plains	784	49
South Texas	575	493
Metroplex	508	149
West Texas	348	0
Gulf Coast	172	45
Northwest	49	124
Southeast	43	0
Upper East	27	17
Total	4,154	1,086

Source: THECB, CBM001

Figure 22. Enrollment Outside of Region by Region of Attendance, Fall 2011

Source-THECB Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012

THECB High School to College Data

Lastly, an analysis of the number of high school students enrolling in college is also essential. THECB institutional data gathered for the nine border universities and the four Tier 1 institutions depicted that high school graduates were more likely to enroll in their local two-year college. Since the number of Hispanics is anticipated to continuously increase in Texas, especially along the border region, the college enrollment trends for those regions with a higher

proportion of Hispanic population is subject to change for students between the ages of 18 to 35 as demonstrated in the THECB 2012 report. The THECB 2012 report revealed that most high school graduates in Texas in 2011 attended two-year colleges first rather than a four-year university. The report also revealed that the rate of South Texas high school graduates for 2011 who attended a two-year college is more than double the rate of the 2011 high school graduates from Central Texas. Later, further analysis will show the percentage of high school graduates from selective Texas counties who received funding from STBI. In the attempt to establish the percentage of STBI residents enrolling at one of five Tier 1 universities in Texas versus the local public two-year or four-year colleges at home it is important to disaggregate further the data the data to include only STBI residents in order to distinguish the current enrollment trends of high school graduates in the effected regions.

Texas Public High School Graduates, FY 2000 and 2011 Percent Enrolling in Public Higher Education the Following Fall								
Region	High School Graduates		Percent University		Percent Two-Year		Percent All	
	2000	2011	2000	2011	2000	2011	2000	2011
High Plains	9,311	9,383	20.6%	18.5%	23.9%	28.3%	44.4%	46.9%
Northwest	6,424	7,016	22.9%	18.2%	18.6%	23.4%	41.5%	41.7%
Metropex	49,049	76,023	20.7%	20.8%	25.5%	29.4%	46.3%	50.1%
Upper East	10,915	12,021	12.2%	12.4%	32.3%	35.7%	44.4%	48.0%
Southeast	8,253	8,213	23.7%	24.4%	20.9%	26.2%	44.5%	50.7%
Gulf Coast	47,905	70,111	25.6%	24.0%	25.7%	30.3%	51.3%	54.3%
Central Texas	21,408	29,921	19.8%	23.0%	25.2%	26.9%	45.0%	49.9%
South Texas	44,156	59,475	20.2%	22.4%	24.8%	28.0%	45.0%	50.4%
West Texas	6,721	6,399	21.8%	19.9%	23.8%	27.3%	45.6%	47.1%
Upper Rio Grande	8,783	12,019	22.9%	25.4%	18.9%	27.7%	41.8%	53.1%
Statewide	212,925	290,581	21.4%	21.9%	24.9%	28.9%	46.4%	50.8%

Source: THECB and Institutional Data

Figure 23. Texas Public High School Graduates, FY 2000 and 2011 Percent Enrolling in Public Higher Education the Following Fall

Source-THECB Texas Higher Education Regional Data, 2012

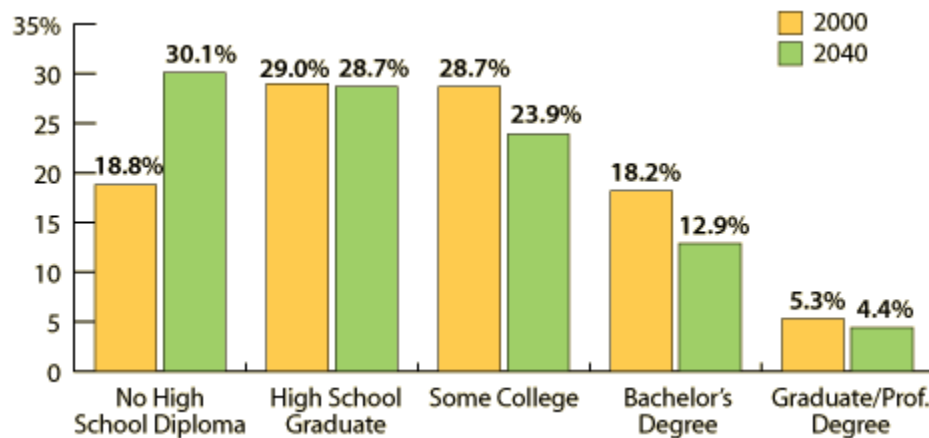
The final question of this analysis looks at the usefulness of the historical framework provided by Tyack and Cuban in understanding and analyzing higher education inequity in Texas. In order to compile the narrative Mexican Americans' access to higher education in Texas, several historical documents containing policy talk were analyzed. The Tyack & Cuban policy cycles model essentially served as a road map in tracing the development of social reform over time and comparing those developments across time to conclude if parity existed among Hispanics and Whites in the educational arena. The Tyack & Cuban Policy Model served to identify the rationales and efforts of many border officials that paved the way to the creation of the South Texas Border Initiative. The discussion will close with a brief look at educational attainment data in comparison to workforce and occupational data.

Workforce and Occupational Data by Region

One of the last and most interesting facets of this report is the projection of new Texas jobs by type and by region for the year 2018. As noted in the report,

The [Texas Workforce Commission]TWC projects that the Gulf Coast will add the most new jobs (564,220) of any region by 2018, followed by the Metroplex (551,560 new jobs). The Gulf Coast and South Texas should have the fastest regional growth, with both projected to have 19 percent more jobs by 2018. The fastest-growing occupations (typically needing an associate's degree or higher) in these two fast-growing regions are mostly in education, medical services, and network systems and data communications.

As a result, the figure below shows the projected comparison of labor force educational attainment rates in Texas for 2000 and 2040, which are projected to decrease.



*Using U.S. Census Bureau count for 2000 and Texas State Data Center 1.0 population projection scenario for 2040.

Note: Figures rely on the Texas State Data Center's "high-growth" scenario, which assumes the age, sex and race/ethnicity rates of net migration experienced in Texas from 1990 to 2000 will continue.

Figure 24. Projected Comparison of Labor Force Education Attainment Rates in Texas, 2000 and 2040*

Source: (Texas State Data Center, University of Texas at San Antonio; Combs, 2008)

Acknowledging this projection from the figure above, the composition of the Texas labor force is predicted to change significantly from 58.4% Anglo or white to 58.7% Hispanics by 2040. Undoubtedly, Texas must work to produce a highly skilled Hispanic workforce in order to remain economically competitive and sound.

Racial/Ethnic Group	2000	1.0 Scenario 2040
Anglo	58.4%	25.2%
Hispanic	27.5%	58.7%
Black	10.7%	7.9%
Other	3.4%	8.2%

*Using U.S. Census count for 2000 and Texas State Data Center 1.0 population projection scenario for 2040

Note: Figures rely on the Texas State Data Center's "high-growth" scenario, which assumes the age, sex and race/ethnicity rates of net migration experienced in Texas from 1990 to 2000 will continue.

Figure 25. Projected Change in Texas Labor Force, 2000 to 2004*

Source: (Texas State Data Center, University of Texas at San Antonio; Combs, 2008)

An even more critical issue that has been identified is the stratification of educational attainment for Hispanics compared to other ethnicities in Texas in 2006. The figure below attests to the stratification of educational attainment for Hispanics in Texas. As degree levels increase, there is a decline in Hispanic representation. The same noted problem is also evident on a national level (Perna et. al. 2009). Since the concentration of the Hispanic population is vital to a state's economic status. Texas must focus on allocating or improving the educational resources in those communities if Texas hopes to improve on producing a highly qualified workforce.

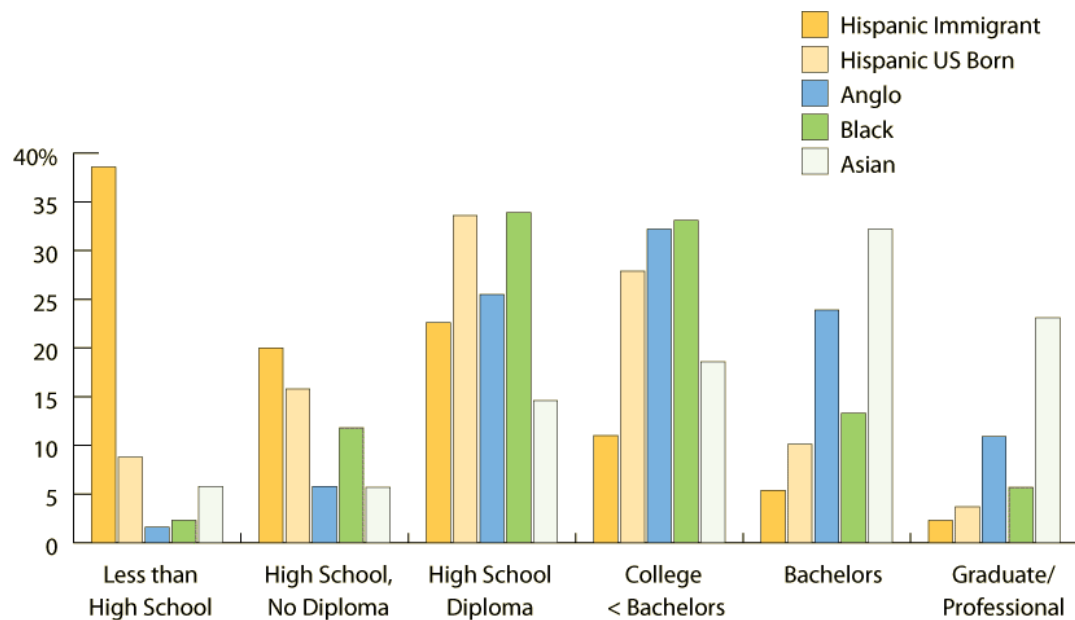


Figure 26. Educational Attainment Texas Adults Aged 25 to 64 by Ethnicity, Texas 2006

Source: (Texas State Data Center, University of Texas at San Antonio; Combs, 2008).

This historical research utilized the Tyack and Cuban model in order to contribute to the currently absent literature on the effectiveness of the STBI. The comparison of historical information became the measuring tool as a determinant of successes and deficiencies. The findings offer tangible evidence to make an informed decision on whether needs have been met to bring parity to the South Texas region. The STBI has delivered an increase in educational opportunities that derive from the adoption of a diverse selection of educational programs. Changes have positively benefitted Hispanics in experiencing an increase in the obtainment of higher-level degrees. Hispanics are leading the battle to maintain an increase in educational programs in the regions where they reside due to their reluctance to migrate out of their hometown. The reliable evidence shows the compatibility of the Tyack and Cuban model to the historical research. This model offers the means to go to the past and recreate the events that took place in order to infer a clear and concise understanding.

Due to the outcomes of this research, speculations that a positive impact derived from the STBI are put to ease. The concepts found included an increase in educational opportunities and degree attainment as well as the reluctance of migration on behalf of Hispanics. Lack of tangible evidence has elicited opposing viewpoints that have characterized the debate about the effectiveness of the STBI on educational parity for Hispanics. The historical data theorized that Hispanics have endured discriminatory acts in the educational arena that has caused significant educational stratification between Whites and Hispanics. In the educational arena, the battle for educational parity was an impossible task without the implementation of the STBI. The implementation of the STBI began with funding to create educational opportunities at universities located along the South Texas border. The evidence demonstrated significant growth in educational programs. Misconceptions regarding the increase of number of educational programs are to be discussed in chapter five.

Findings showed that the quantity of programs is capable of increasing the attainment of degrees for Hispanics in the different levels required to bridge educational gaps. The feasibility for Hispanics residing along the South Texas border to enroll in a university and obtain a higher education negates the evidence established that Hispanics are notorious for their unwillingness to commute from their hometown in order to obtain a higher education. The Tyack & Cuban policy model increased the understanding of the circumstances that influenced the response and contribution to the implementation of the STBI that facilitated the process of evaluating the effectiveness of the STBI. Chapter 5 will present an array of compiled data that brings in-depth meaning by clarifying misleading conceptions and the reasoning behind it.

Chapter 5-Summary, Conclusions & Recommendations

Introduction

The focus of this study was to uncover and examine the progression of events that led to the South Texas Border Initiative and its aftermath. The history of Mexican Americans has produced a significant impact on the transformation of the Texas higher education system. In Texas, the center of discriminatory acts was Mexican Americans and African Americans due to their vision of progress and self-improvement. Any positive or negative experiences encountered by African Americans created a ripple effect for Mexican Americans. When documentation of early educational experiences for Mexican Americans was nonexistent, the research diverted to the history of African Americans in the educational system. With considerable success, accounts regarding Mexican Americans in the educational arena manifested in the African American history. Mexican Americans were victims of injustice and humiliation that stunted their educational growth that has manifested in a significant educational gap in comparison to Whites. In efforts to fight against inequality in the education system, a plethora of legal cases was filed on behalf of Mexican American children. The acquisition of educational equality and equity that would further allow Mexican Americans to gain educational opportunities took form in the implementation South Texas Border Initiative. Therefore, the study was geared to evaluate the impact of the STBI to conclude if inequality in higher education needs to be readdressed in order to prevent history from repeating itself.

Summary of the Study

This research explored Mexican American access to educational equity in Texas from the mid-1800s to the South Texas Border Initiative. The primary focus of this work was to look at the progression of events as they unraveled in the quest for quality educational access for Mexican Americans in the nine border institutions. As was mentioned in prior chapters, the

primary limitation in examining the struggle of Mexican Americans in accessing higher education was due to the absence of viable documentation on this topic because Mexican Americans were not identified as a distinct racial group, but were instead categorized as White. What helped in uncovering the struggle faced by Mexican American children was the litigation that ensued following their segregation. In the review of historical documents, Mexican Americans and their schooling was primarily cut short in the early elementary years, therefore most of the litigation was attributed with elementary schooling. (Funkhouser, 1996) Having found the commonalities suffered by both African Americans and Mexican Americans in the educational arena, the narrative of Mexican Americans plight to equity in higher education in Texas came easily to identify.

The plight of Mexican Americans can be traced as far back as when Texas was annexed over to the United States. The Treaty of Guadalupe of Hidalgo promised Mexican citizens, soon to be American citizens, full citizen rights meaning that they were to be given rights equal to those of Whites American citizens. Of more importance was the fact that Mexican Americans were categorized as White instead of colored. As many Mexican Americans soon discovered, the treaty wasn't worth the ink it was printed on. In that they, the children of Mexican Americans, would be forced to attend segregated and dilapidated schools as was common for African American children. They would be denied access to public facilities like swimming pools and would have to use bathrooms and drink from water foundations labeled for the colored. The use of public pools by African American and Mexican American children would only be allowed on the day before they were to be drained. Commonalties such as these led to parallelization of two very similar, yet distinct histories for access to education by these two minorities.

The gradual establishment of Texas public higher education institutions came hand in hand with discrimination and racial segregation. Following the emancipation of slaves in Texas,

African Americans would briefly be afforded the right to schooling. However, this would not last. Following the Reconstruction of Texas, Texas officials eventually worked quickly to re-segregate K-12 schooling and segregate institutes of higher education by rewriting the Texas Constitution.

Unlike Mexican Americans, much has been written on the access of African Americans to higher education in the United States, but little was known about Mexican Americans because nowhere did any official agencies distinguished from White. Therefore, Mexican Americans' legal struggles for equal access to schooling oftentimes were difficult to prove and unsuccessful due to the fact that they were unable to claim discrimination based on race. Early on, it is well documented that White officials often used this to their advantage; however, it is also well documented how Mexican American elite groups also impeded this process from taking place.

In tracing these events through time, it was essential to reevaluate all the contributing factors that led to the STBI formation and in order to make generalizations on plausible causation as how such factors may have influenced its successes or failures in terms of hindering or in stimulating educational opportunities for Mexican Americans who predominately resided along the U.S. and Mexico border region in Texas. To date, it had remained unknown how significantly the STBI influenced the growth in education between Border Region institutions and non-border institutions. While the 2012 Regional Plan indicates that universities and colleges continue to expand in the quality and quantity of educational opportunities for this particular region, and of course in meeting their goals, the research shows some key areas where they have failed.

Summary of Findings and Conclusion

As a result of this study, whether or not these institutions that are spatially located along the border and far from Tier 1 institutions are closer to equity is no longer questionable. The fact is the THECB is no closer to parity than what it was in 1987. In this dissertation, the following four research questions were analyzed:

1. Have educational opportunities been created at the universities located along the South Texas border?
2. Have Mexican American students residing in South Texas experienced an increase in the attainment of higher-level degrees in comparison to White students?
3. Are Mexican American students residing on the South Texas border prone to migrate to other universities to attain a higher education in a Tier 1 university in Texas?
4. To what extent is the historical framework provided by Tyack and Cuban useful in understanding and analyzing higher education inequity in Texas?

The general approach of the study was a historical case study design. The population for the study included the nine institutions that received South Texas Border Initiative funds: Texas A&M International University, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi, Texas A&M University-Kingsville, The University of Texas at Brownsville, The University of Texas at Brownsville, The University of Texas at El Paso, The University of Texas-Pan American, The University of Texas at San Antonio, Sul Ross State University (including Sul Ross University Rio Grande College), and The University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio. (Flack, 2003, p. 1) The four public Tier 1 universities were Texas Tech University, Texas A&M, The University of Houston, and The University of Texas at Austin. In replicating a comparison between border and comprehensive universities, as was made in prior research papers that proved a lack of parity in Texas in the late-80s, it was important to approach this topic utilizing the newly formulated Tier

1 universities in relation to the nine institutions. As was mentioned in prior chapters of this dissertation, excluded from this study was one private Tier 1 university, because there were no private institutions in the initial plan.

As stipulated above, the selection of this particular methodology was based on lack of research on the topic of Mexican American's access to higher education in Texas, the mere invisibility of contributory links from the past and present sparked interest in the formation of this historical analysis. In doing so, this unique design allowed for the in-depth description and examination of the particularities of this topic within a "real-life" context. (Yin, 2004 a).

In itself, the exclusivity of this case that arose out of a congressional act that allocated millions of dollars to nine institutions while it was still being litigated in state court makes this case distinctive from other educational reform efforts. Undoubtedly, these funds worked to build the quality and quantity of academic programs in the border region. However, even more interesting was the fact that following this reform, no research explored whether equity had been achieved.

The trajectory of events evaluated among the nine border institutions and the four Tier 1 universities was made possible by the utilization of Tyack & Cuban's Policy Cycles and Institutional Trends Model. This model afforded the researcher the map in tracking an educational reform. In addition, it also afforded the mode in which to examine and uncover the evolution of this initiative to its current state. One limitation of this model was that it did not provide for the evaluation of an educational reform; therefore, a contributing component of this research was to evaluate this initiative twenty plus years since it began. Relying heavily on current descriptive datasets, formulated from Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board Institutional Dataset and U.S. Census dataset, several conclusions were made on whether or not parity had been extended to the border region in comparison to Tier 1 institutions. These three

specific datasets were utilized in answering research question 1, 2, and 3. **Question 1 was measured by comparing the percentage in the number of degrees awarded in border institutions versus non-border institutions.**

Findings showed that despite program improvements, parity has not been reached. The main purpose of the South Texas Border Initiative was to create undergraduate, graduate and professional programs in the region. Initially, the rest of the state institutions had a total of 589 doctoral programs while the border state institutions only had 3. Today, gaps found between the numbers of doctoral degrees in Tier 1 universities have shown some minor improvements. For example, currently the border region houses 77 doctoral programs, while the rest of the state has 624. Despite the remaining gaps between the two numbers, unquestionably the gap has indeed lessened when referencing the initial number of doctoral programs located at the border in contrast to the rest of the state in the 1990s. In looking at the number of undergraduate programs and graduate programs, the same has taken place; widening the gap.

When considering whether or not the state indeed was cognizant in allocating more programs to the border regions, it is important to note that the growth rate at which these universities allocated programs in contrast to Tier 1 institutions. For example, if one looks at the growth rate of the doctoral programs, it grew at a rate of 1180% in comparison to the University of Texas at Austin growth rate of 14.83%. Therefore, if this case was to be argued again on the basis of bias in the allocation of programs, border institutions would fail to prevail in court.

Question 2 asked whether Mexican American students residing in South Texas experienced an increase in the attainment of higher-level degrees in comparison to White students.

The hypothesis that concluded an increase in attainment in higher-level degrees among Mexican Americans was invalidated. The primary stipulation in this research, as alluded to in chapter 1 and chapter 2, is that Hispanics in Texas public institutions do not pursue graduate

degrees at the same rate as White students. A pre and post comparison was conducted to measure the degrees awarded to Mexican Americans and Whites from the implementation of the STBI to recently. Findings revealed a significant correlation between the disparities found among the nine South Texas border universities and the decrease in attainment of higher-level degrees. The data collected in Chapter 4, from 1989 to 1990, displayed that there were 5,707 bachelors, 1,675 masters, and five doctorate degrees awarded at border institutions in comparison to the four Tier-1 institutions that totaled 19,196 bachelors, 5,152 masters, and 1,296 doctorates. In 2009-2010, there were a total of 13,840 bachelors, 3,994 masters, and 168 doctorates awarded in the nine border institutes in comparison to the four Tier-1 institutions that amounted to 26,657 bachelors, 7,896 masters, and 1,895 doctorates. Over twenty-years, there has been significant gains made in the number of degrees awarded in the border region; however, it can also be argued that there continues to remain a significant number of disparities between the two types of institutions when taking into consideration race and degree attainment.

The nine border institutions have been linked to awarding significantly more undergraduate degrees to Hispanics in contrast to Tier-1 universities. Although border Hispanics are acquiring a more considerable number of bachelor degrees than non-border Hispanics, the overall awarded bachelor degrees by the four Tier 1 universities outweighs the overall number of bachelor degrees awarded by nine South Texas border universities. In the 2010-2011 school year, border Hispanics were awarded 9,653 bachelor's degrees in contrast to non-border Hispanics who were awarded only 4,554. The data reflects a lower percentage of Hispanics enrolled at the Tier 1 universities than at border institutions. Many may be apt to reason that the border institutions are doing a better job of educating their Hispanic population in comparison to Tier 1 institutions, but we cannot make the same generalization here without further consideration. Therefore, a limitation of this research is that in order to make such

generalizations the research would have to yield a sample population of similar size that could be utilized to measure the rate of persistence for non-border Hispanics in seeking a bachelor's degree at Tier 1 institute versus Hispanics seeking a bachelor's degree at a border institution.

Once again, border Hispanics seem to exceed the number of master's degrees awarded to non-border Hispanics at the Tier1 universities. The table provided in chapter 4 showed that Hispanics received 2,307 master's degrees in the 2010-2011 school year, and the non-border Hispanics for that same year only received 757 master's degrees. The low attainment of bachelor's degrees for non-border Hispanics is associated to their low attendance rate. Since the population of Hispanics obtaining higher numbers of masters in border institutions is significantly higher than the population of Hispanic at non-border institutes, the lack of master's has been correlated to non-border Hispanic students' failure to seek out graduate level degrees. Yet, border Whites may have significantly lower number of master's degrees awarded in comparison to Whites attending Tier 1 universities because they enroll at a significantly lower rate in graduate programs in comparison to Tier 1 universities enrollment figures. Conversely, all one can argue is that all students attending universities along the South Texas border suffer educational disparity, including Whites.

Lastly, evidently this research reflects the alarming disparity found between Hispanic and White students in doctoral degrees awarded in both border and non-border institutions. In 2010-11, 864 non-border white students graduated with doctoral degrees in contrast to a 116 non-border Hispanics. Keep in mind that, Hispanic students once again outnumbered white students in Tier 1 institutions. However, in border institutions, these numbers are lower significantly. For example, there were 81 doctoral degrees awarded to white students in comparison Hispanic who were awarded 79 doctoral degrees in the 2010-2011 school year. It is important to also note, that the gaps found between White students and Hispanic students is less significant in border

institutions, but this may only be attributed to lower white student enrollment figures in border universities.

In order to answer the sub question regarding degree attainment in the border region, the examination of the STBI included a comparison between 2000 and 2010 U.S. Census information for both South Texas Border Initiative recipients and the four public Tier 1 institutions. The tables contained percentages from the U.S. Census reflecting the Texas county population from 2000 and 2010. The percentages that were included consisted of: persons of Hispanic or Latino origin, percentage of Mexicans, White persons not Hispanic, person 25+ of high school graduates (including equivalency), persons 25 + with bachelor's degrees, person 25+ with graduate or professional degrees, persons with median household income, and persons below poverty level. As stipulated in the Ramseyer (2000), it usually takes a number of years for this type of initiative to show any type of effect. These tables were important to determine whether the educational attainment of the region had indeed increased following the installation of quality and quantity programs in the border region. The data showed that there has been a decrease in the educational level of the border region, so some may generalize that in spite of program development in the region it failed to improve on the educational attainment of the region. However, one cannot generalize that the STBI failed, because it may be that the population grew at a faster rate in contrast to the populace rate of degree attainment.

Question 3 asked whether Mexican American students residing on the South Texas border were prone to migrate to Tier 1 universities in Texas.

One primary question asked in this study that had not been examined within prior research was in relation to border student migration. The case argued that border students failed to travel outside of the region because of several factors, one of those being distance, but failed

to show any exact figures proving that claim. As stipulated in the work of Jones & Kauffman (1994), the average distance traveled by border students to a comprehensive university was 150 miles or more as discussed in chapter 2. Provided in chapter 4 of this dissertation was a table showing the average driving distance by county to the public Tier 1 universities. On average, the driving distance to Tier 1 universities was accounted to be approximately 200 or more miles. In order to reexamine this belief, it was important to look at the numbers of border high school students by county that enrolled and migrated to a Tier 1 university. In utilizing Texas Higher Education Data, three timeframes were collected which were: 2002, 2006, and the 2010 school year.

The findings showed that border high school students are more likely to enroll at the local two-year public college. Secondly, they were more likely to enroll at the local four year institutions than at any of the Tier 1 universities. The percentages for border students that did migrate to Tier 1 universities seemed to be higher in areas such as those that had the least amount of programs like Sul Ross University and its' affiliate campuses or those who were in close proximity to a particular Tier 1 university. For example, those students from Bexar County had a higher percentage of students migrating to the University of Texas at Austin meaning that one could assume that driving distance could be a confounding factor that can be attributed to these results. The average driving distance that Bexar county students would have to drive amounted to 79 miles to the University of Texas at Austin. Therefore, it is important to note that driving distance may be attributed to student migration patterns when analyzing the population enrolled in a particular Tier 1 university.

Implications

The purpose of this research was to understand, describe, and evaluate the aftermath of the STBI. Unquestionably, disparities between border institution and the Tier 1 universities still exist. Even more significant, today is the lack of research into these types of educational reforms that were implemented in an effort to correct such disparities. If certain Texas regions, or more importantly, certain regions fail to meet these projected educational goals as stipulated by the THECB, the future economic prosperity of the entire state will experience catastrophic repercussions. It is important to shed light on this issue because inequitable access to educational opportunities works to perpetuate social, political and economic differences. Therefore, the time came to reevaluate the STBI and uncover why, despite the growth in the quantity and quality of academic programs, the region had continued to lag behind other regions of Texas, and has failed to produce a truly equitable system of higher education in the border region.

According to Flack (2003), THECB began doing regional planning that takes into account factors such as population growth, economic trends, high school graduation rates, student access and retention in institutions of higher education in order to realize the needs and goals of both local and state government (THECB, 2011). However, despite this regional planning there remained persistent problems among the Texas Border Region as presented in Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

According to Sharp (1998) educational disparities exacerbated the number of economically disadvantaged and unemployed residents consequentially halting the number of opportunities in these regions.

Future Research Recommendations

Undisputable, it is not enough for future researchers to explore the outcomes of educational reforms for Mexican Americans, but it would be more revealing to holistically understand and describe these reforms within a unique multifaceted context. Many educators have contended that education operates with a unique set of features.

Education is multilayered, constantly shifting, and occurs within an interaction among institutions (e.g., schools and universities), communities, and families. It is highly value laden and involves a diverse array of people and political forces that significantly shapes its character. These features require attention to the physical, social, cultural, economic, and historical contextual factors often influencing results in significant ways. Because the U.S. education system is so heterogeneous and the nature of teaching and learning so complex, attention to context is especially critical for understanding the extent to which theories and findings many generalize to other times, places, and populations (The National Research Council, 2002, p.5).

Therefore, it is important to shed light on this when researching any education reform.

Historically, the road to equity in schooling for the benefit of the minority student has been long and often very complicated. Despite the historical gains in equity for African Americans, and all other minorities of color in the last fifty years, there have also been some major reversals. According to a new civil rights report published at UCLA, *Reviving the Goal of an Integrated Society: A 21st Century Challenge*, by Gary Orfield:

U.S. continues to move backward toward increasing minority segregation in highly unequal schools; the job situation remains especially bleak for American

blacks, and Latinos have a college completion rate that is shockingly low. At the same time, very little is being done to address large-scale challenges such as continuing discrimination in the housing and home finance markets, among other differences across racial lines [...] (Orfield, 2010).

The dismantling of civil rights case law is cited as one of the lead causes of the U.S. moving backwards, like that of the landmark case of *Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka*.

Regardless of these legal battles, new court cases have slowly dismantled the gains made for equity. The 2007 case of *Parents Involved in Community Schools vs. Seattle School District* was cited as overturning *Brown*. Supreme Court Justice Roberts ruled the racial balancing of schools in the U.S. is no longer a “compelling state interest” (Ibid, p.1). Orfield (2010) suggested that this decision by the court will lead to re-intensification of racial segregation in America’s schools; in hindsight it perpetuates the oppressive conditions for the underprivileged (minority) ethnic groups (p.4). Take for example the case of *Fisher vs. University of Texas*, which seeks to override current affirmative action policy in higher education (Carey, 2012). According to Heilig, Reddick, Hamilton, and Dietz, (2010), the door to equitable access to quality schooling in America has been slowly closing for those who come from disadvantaged backgrounds, not only in K-12, but in higher education.

Early on, in Texas, the legal system was often the most powerful barrier for minorities seeking educational equality. Future researchers must continue to focus on the role of the legal system in perpetuating educational equity. Upon reviewing the litigation brought by minorities in Texas, it is easy to conclude that inner-workings of both the Texas courts and Texas congress delayed most of the litigation brought by minorities seeking equitable school conditions for their students.

Furthermore, when researchers take on the task of examining the law, it must look at the wording used by the courts. The most important reforms that pushed for the dismantling of segregated schools like *Brown* came with no regulatory enforcement or accountability system in the wording. For example, no one can dispute the fact that *Brown* made significant changes to the plight of young minority students in the southern states, but the fact is that it was not immediate. Why was it so slow and not immediate? To answer this question all one has to do is look at the wording used by the U.S. Supreme Court in regards to implementation of this ruling which reads, ‘all deliberate speed’ (Zirkel & Cantor, 2004, p.3). These three words left it up to the majority decision body of a community to integrate at its own pace, and did little else for the enforcement of *Brown*. There was no set date for compliance, and no agency to enforce the new law. This lack of action taken by the U.S. court system would also serve to perpetuate the persistent practice of discrimination against minorities in all areas of life. Despite the ground gained in *Sweat vs. Painter* (1946), in higher education change was slow. It was not until after the Office of Civil Rights set forth government mandates that Texas was forced to address the issue of race in higher education. Therefore, the vagueness of legal rulings can allow both state and local officials the room to avoid the equitable practices in educational opportunities for minority students if there are no regulatory systems in place.

In addition, the role of politicians who shape public policy have also brought forth the second most powerful barrier to accessibility and availability of educational opportunities for minority students. Policymakers can both work to ignore and contribute to the continuation of these types of inequalities found among educational institutions in Texas. It is important to note that all change is traceable and one can follow the process of school policy back to a particular group or person in time, a significant social crisis, dialogue, or school institutional trend (Fowler, 1998). Therefore, future researchers must continue to examine the role of the policymaker.

The third most powerful barrier for accessibility and availability in educational opportunities for minority students is the dominant social structure. For example, in 1997, George W. Bush was the Governor of Texas and Dan Morales was the Texas State Attorney General, both conservative thinkers. At the same time, Governor Bush and Mr. Morales were top officials in Texas during the case of *Hopwood*, which put an end to the use of affirmative action in higher education. Keep in mind that public policy and the dominant social structure often overlap. Following *Hopwood*, colleges and universities were prohibited from using race in the admission process and in financial aid decisions. Orfield (2010) states:

The dominant assumption of social policy during the conservative era was that race should be ignored, inequalities should be blamed on individuals and schools, and existing civil rights remedies should be dismantled. This was the position manifested by the Bush Administration in the Supreme Court battles over affirmative action and voluntary school integration and particularly of President Bush's appointee as Supreme Court Chief Justice, John Roberts. The civil rights agency officials appointed by President Bush were active opponents of these policies and advised the nation's colleges and school districts to cut back on their efforts. The price of ignoring race before underlying problems are solved, it is now apparent, is to deepen divisions and perpetuate inequalities. (p.5)

Subsequently in 2001, former Governor of Texas, George W. Bush, would go on to become the President of the United States, and his conservative views only served to perpetuate the problem of racial inequalities in the entire U.S., as they had done in Texas. The *Hopwood* case only worked to decrease educational opportunities for minority students (Holley & Spencer, 1999). In response to such detrimental effects, state politicians shaped a policy that would tackle the effects of *Hopwood*; the Texas State Legislator passed a law drafted by then Representative Irma

Rangel known as the Texas Top Ten Percent Plan. Rangel was the Texas representative who had also played a major role in the STBI.

Summary

In summary, when looking at education reform efforts in bringing about parity for minorities, researchers must first seek to holistically understand the reforms' content in context by taking into account the laws that govern it, the politicians who created it, and the dominating social structures that enabled or restrict its ability to flourish. Segregation and discrimination have produced much bitterness and created such enduring controversy that has been costly to Texas. Through research, there is a way to prevent the cycle of negative socioeconomic ramifications by assisting in the creation of a higher education system built on freedom and equality so that minorities can avoid facing a system of economic peonage and subordination alone. Research serves as a vehicle for continuous improvement for the betterment of whole.

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Curriculum Vita

Denise is currently an Instructional Support Teacher with the Ysleta Independent School District where she provides instructional support to 7th - 8th grade teachers in all content areas. She has dedicated seven years to teaching, six of those years as a 6th–8th English and Language Arts teacher with the El Paso Independent School District. Striving to make an impressionable impact on the community, she has recently obtained a Doctoral of Education (Educational Leadership and Foundations). Her previous accomplishments include a Master of Education (Educational Administration), Master of Arts (Public Administration), Bachelor of Arts (Major: Criminal Justice, Minor: Psychology), Bachelor of Arts (Major: Criminal Justice, Minor: Psychology), and Associate of Arts (General Studies). Given the combination of these competencies, Denise has developed a professional resourcefulness and personal diversity that enables her to become an asset to El Paso. Attentive to the needs of the community, Denise has gained a reputation as a prominent community activist over the years working closely with local legal organizations such as the Mexican American Bar Association and the El Paso Young Lawyers Association. She has empowered students by providing mentoring opportunities and career information as well as built close ties with other educational programs for the purpose of enhancing educational opportunities for the students in the El Paso area. In gratitude for her efforts, Denise has been the recipient of numerous honors and awards including: an appointment by The Mexican American Bar Association of El Paso as Educational Director in 2009, awarded the El Paso's Legal Community Liberty Bell Award in 2011, and served as a board member for Las Americas Immigrant Advocacy Center in 2012. Her efforts have not ceased to be fruitful. Armed with her recent accomplishment, Denise aspires to advocate for changes in law and policy to further empower minorities.

Permanent Address: 844 Cloudburst Dr.
El Paso, TX. 79912

This dissertation was typed by Denise Razo