DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 100 540 RC 008 229

AUTHOR Henry, William F.; Miles, Guy H.
TITLE An Analysis of the Occupational Adjustment of Spanish-Surname Youth from the Rural Southwest. Volume 3 of a Four Volume Final Report.
INSTITUTION North Star Research and Development Inst., Minneapolis, Minn.
SPONS AGENCY Manpower Administration (DOL), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO DLMA-41-2-002-27-5
PUB DATE Sep 74
NOTE 140p.; For related documents, see RC 008 227-228, and RC 008 230
AVAILABLE FROM National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Virginia 22151

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.75 HC-$6.60 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS Comparative Analysis; Educational Assessment; Employment Opportunities; *Hypothesis Testing; Job Market; Longitudinal Studies; *Mexican Americans; Occupational Aspiration; Rural Environment; *Rural Youth; *Social Adjustment; Surveys; Tables (Data); *Vocational Adjustment
IDENTIFIERS Rural Urban Migration; *Southwest

ABSTRACT

A 1972 follow-up study of 282 Spanish-surname and 176 Anglo youths who grew up in the rural Southwest analyzed data (results to be used to develop future Federal programs) on occupational and social adjustment. Surveyed 7 years after 8th grade graduation, each subject represented 1 of 14 rural counties with 10 percent or more Spanish-surname population. Areas surveyed included the changing rural environment, the rural education system, educational response, rural to urban migration, and occupational adjustment. Over 60 hypotheses developed from a previous study, "Perspectives of Adjustment: Rural Chicano Youth", were tested; some hypotheses were found to be valid, some invalid; others produced new factors. For example, the hypothesis that there was a stronger relationship among Chicano youth than among Anglo youth between family income and high school completion proved invalid; that more Chicano youths than comparable Anglos report feelings of discrimination and discriminatory employment practices proved partially valid (feelings of discrimination were valid, but almost no one in either group attributed employment difficulties to discrimination); that rural Chicano youths who migrate to the city obtain higher paying jobs than those remaining in rural areas proved valid, though the urban jobs were not more skilled. (JC)

AN ANALYSIS OF THE OCCUPATIONAL ADJUSTMENT OF SPANISH-SURNAME YOUTH FROM THE RURAL SOUTHWEST

This is Volume 3 of a
Final Report on a Pro
Research Conducted un
No. 41-2-002-27

by

William F. Henry and Guy H. Miles

to

MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

from

NORTH STAR RESEARCH INSTITUTE
3100 38th Avenue South
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55406

September 1974

DISCLAIMER

This research was prepared under Contract No. 41-2-002-27 with the Manpower Administration, U. S. Department of Labor, under the authority of the Economic Opportunity Act. Researchers undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express their own judgments. Interpretations or viewpoints stated in this document do not necessarily represent the official position or policy of the Department of Labor.

1. Report No. 41-2-002-27-5	2.
4. Title and Subtitle: An Analysis of the Occupational Adjustment of Spanish-Surname Youth from the Rural Southwest	5. Report Date: September 1974
7. Author(s): William F. Henry and Guy H. Miles	8. Performing Organization Rept. No.
9. Performing Organization Name and Address: North Star Research Institute, 2400 - 28th Avenue South, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55406	10. Project/Task/Work Unit No.
	11. Contract/Grant No.: DL 41-2-002-27
12. Sponsoring Organization Name and Address: National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, & Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20210	13. Type of Report & Period Covered: Final
	14.

This report presents the results of a follow-up study of 282 Spanish-surname and 282 Anglo youths who grew up in the rural Southwest. Data were gathered concerning each youth's home community, the schools he attended and his school-age experiences. These data were analyzed in relation to information about his later occupational and social adjustment.

17. Key Words and Document Analysis

Education (including training)
Employment
Ethnic groups
Rural areas
Unemployment

18. Availability Statement: Unlimited. Available from National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Va. 22151.	19. Security Class (This Report):	21. No. of Pages: 141
	20. Security Class (This Page):	22. Price: $3.00

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is not possible, of course, to acknowledge the help of all the people who have contributed to this effort. Special thanks, though, are due the staff of Dr. Howard Rosen in the Manpower Administration, in particular, Dr. Harry Lieberman.

We wish to thank Abner Arauza, who conducted many of the interviews and supervised much of the field work.

We also wish to thank Ms. Tamara Sparks who edited the manuscript and Ms. Bonnie Dahlman and Mrs. Marcia Ely who typed the interviews and the several drafts of the report.

Finally, and most important, we must thank all the people who took the time to talk with us about rural Spanish-surname youth.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

General Design

The goal of this research program has been to investigate the occupational adjustment of ethnic minority youth in the rural Southwest and to develop programs to optimize that adjustment. The research focuses on Spanish-surname youth and Navajo and Papago Indian youths in rural counties in the states of Texas, Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado and California.[1/] The study design is similar to that of previous studies conducted for the Manpower Administration in the North Central states and in the Southeast.

The design for the research called for four phases:

- In the first phase, the relevant literature was reviewed to determine the kinds of problems faced by rural youths in the Southwest.
- In Phase 2 a large number of intensive interviews were conducted with leaders of rural communities in the Southwest; with Navajo and Papago tribal leaders; with individuals concerned with the education, employment, and well-being of ethnic minority youths in the Southwest; and with Anglo, Spanish-surname, Navajo and Papago youths and their parents.

The results of the first two phases tentatively defined the problems [illegible] youths and provided some discussion of potential solutions to [illegible] problems. In addition, a large number of hypotheses concerning factors that affect the later occupational adjustment of these rural youths were generated from the literature reviewed, the interviews, and previous research experiences with rural youths in other regions of the nation.

[1/] [illegible] Volume II of the final report covers only that [illegible] research that focused on Spanish-surname youth, this [illegible] study is intended to explain to the reader the overall research context within which this study was carried out.

- In Phase 3 these hypotheses were tested by following up representative samples of Chicano youths, of Navajo youths, and of Papago youths who had grown-up in rural parts of the Southwest.

- In Phase 4, the results of this follow-up study were combined with information from the literature and from the interviews to form the basis of guidelines which were developed for model youth programs for these populations.

The research covering Spanish-surname rural youth was conducted essentially as described above. However, the response rate of the Navajo and Papago youths in our sample was insufficient to allow adequate tests to be made of hypotheses.

Reports

Results of Phase 1 (the literature survey) for each group of youths were published previously in two reports submitted to the Manpower Administration:

> Belding, Nancye, William F. Henry, and Guy H. Miles, "A Survey of the Literature Relevant to Spanish-surname Rural Youths in the Southwestern States". 1972.
>
> Schneider, William S., Nancye Belding and Guy H. Miles, "A Survey of the Literature Relevant to Indian Rural Youth in the Southwestern States". 1972.

Results of the other phases are reported in four volumes of the present report:

> Vol. 1 "Perspectives of Adjustment: Rural Chicano Youth". This volume reports the interview information regarding rural Spanish-surname youth.
>
> Vol. 2 "Perspectives of Adjustment: Rural Navajo and Papago Youth". This volume reports the interview information regarding Navajo and Papago youths.

Vol. 3 "An Analysis of the Occupational Adjustment of Spanish-Surname Youth from the Rural Southwest". This volume reports the empirical data on rural Chicano youth.

Vol. 4 "A Model Program for Ethnic Minority Youth in the Southwest". This volume contains the guidelines for model rural youth programs, developed on the basis of the research.

SUMMARY

General Design of the Study

This report presents the results obtained from a follow-up study of 252 Spanish-surname and 170 Anglo youths who grew up in the rural Southwest and 150 youths who grew up in small Southwestern cities. These young people attended the eighth grade in the 1963-1964 school year. The rural youths were chosen from one of fourteen rural counties that have 10 percent or more Spanish-surname population.*

The purpose of this follow-up study was to test over 60 hypotheses regarding various factors that may influence the later occupational and social adjustment of young Chicano youths who grow up in our rural Southwestern counties. To test these hypotheses, extensive data were gathered concerning the communities in which the young people in our sample grew up, the institutions within those communities including the schools, specific areas of past experiences of these youths and detailed information regarding their recent occupational and social adjustment.

The results of this study will be used later as an aid in developing a set of guidelines for future federal programs for these rural youths.

The Economic Environment of Rural Youths of Spanish-Surname

The Spanish-surname rural population tends to be concentrated in counties having low family incomes, high unemployment, and few essential services or recreational facilities. These rural counties tend to be close to small cities, but great distances from cities of 100,000 population or over.

* See Appendix A for the sampling frame and response rate.

In comparison with rural counties in the Midwest, rural counties in the Southwest are much less dependent upon agriculture. Yet, the rural counties that have a large Spanish-surname population tend to be those that are most dependent upon agriculture; those with a smaller Spanish-surname population are more dependent upon mining and manufacturing. In these rural Southwestern counties, high unemployment rates and low family incomes go with high percentage employed in agriculture. Two-thirds of the Chicano youths, but only 18 percent of the Anglo youths in our sample, came from families with reported annual incomes below $5,000.

The few job openings that become available in these rural counties often are not attractive to young people and the majority of youths leave to seek employment in urban areas.

Part-time job availability for youths of high school age was found to be about the same as that in the rural Southeastern states. Among Anglo rural youths, the proportion who worked part-time was the same for those from poor families and those from more affluent families. However, among Spanish-surname youths, those from poor families were more likely to have worked part-time than those from affluent families. Of those Spanish-surname youths who worked part-time, poor youths more often worked on farms or ranches and less often on nonfarm jobs than did youths from more affluent families.

The Rural Educational System

In comparison with rural schools in other parts of the country, the schools in the rural Southwest tend to be large. The student-teacher ratio in these schools is low and although one-fourth of the schools were found to have no one assigned to the job of guidance counselor, this is a smaller proportion than we found in other sections of the country.

Spanish was the only language spoken in the homes of 50 percent of our rural Spanish-surname sample. Both the literature and the community leaders whom we interviewed emphasized the difficulty that Spanish-speaking children have in entering schools where English is the only language spoken. Yet, 90 percent of the schools attended by our Spanish-surname youths had less than 10 percent Spanish-surname staff and over three-quarters had no teachers of Spanish-surname.

Expenditure per pupil tends to be high in rural schools in the Southwest. Counties that are isolated from any city all have high expenditures per pupil, as do almost all the counties that have median family incomes of $5,000 and over. We found no consistent relationship -- either positive or negative -- between course offerings and expenditure per pupil in the rural schools in this region.

Over half of the rural schools that we studied offer no vocational shop courses. However, in the counties with over 50 percent Spanish-surname population, the schools are about twice as likely to offer more than one year of vocational shop and of shop math than are schools located in counties with smaller proportions of Spanish-surname residents.

The school dropout rate among rural Chicano youths is about four times as high as among Anglo youths in the same county. The dropout rate is high among Spanish-surname youths from high-income rural families as well as among those from low-income families. In the same rural communities, the dropout rate is quite high among low-income Anglo youths and almost nonexistent among Anglo youths from high-income families. It appears from these findings that a program to discourage or prevent youths from dropping out of school should be offered to all Spanish-surname youths regardless of family income, but to only the low-income Anglo youths. Almost half of the rural Spanish-surname dropouts said they would have stayed in school if they had been given some extra money.

Rural Spanish-surname youths who come from homes where no English is spoken are clearly disadvantaged in school. They score lower on IQ tests and rank lower in their school class. Spanish-surname rural youths who come from a home where English is spoken are more than twice as likely to go on to college as are comparable youth who come from a home where only Spanish is spoken. As in the case of dropping out of school, college attendance among those who do graduate from high school is more affected by income level among Anglo youths than it is among Chicano youths. Among those who come from families who have sufficient income to afford some extras including education, a much higher proportion of Anglo than of Chicano high school graduates go on for further education. Overall, 62 percent of the Anglo youths but only 29 percent of Chicano youths in our sample received post high school education.

Rural-to-Urban Migration

At the time of the survey (seven years after eighth-grade graduation) 72 percent of the rural Spanish-surname youths and 87 percent of the Anglo rural youth had moved from their home county. Among those who attended college, identical percentages (9 percent) of Anglos and of Chicanos, remained in their home county. Only 64 percent of the noncollege Chicanos moved away from their home county compared with 80 percent of the noncollege Anglos. Among Chicanos, more females than males remain in the home county; for Anglos, the opposite is true.

Few of the rural youths who left their home counties moved to another rural area, and only 5 percent of the Chicano and 9 percent of the Anglo rural sample moved out of the Southwest. The migration pattern is rural-to-urban and is not interregional.

Among Spanish-surname noncollege males, the more isolated the rural community in which they grew up, the greater is their out-migration. Out-migration among the males is greatest from those counties that have a large percent employed in agriculture -- the counties that have a high percentage of unemployed.

Yet, among the females, these relationships do not exist. Among rural noncollege females, a move to a city frequently follows marriage. This reason for moving is given less often by noncollege females than by college females. Although there is no relationship between the migration pattern of noncollege Spanish-surname girls and the socioeconomic conditions in their home county, those girls who work part-time while in high school are much more likely to leave for the city than are those who do not work during their high school years. Those girls who are familiar with a city from having spent at least one day there are much more likely to leave their home county than are those who have not visited a city.

Rural youths in the Southwest do not adjust well to city life. Of those in our sample who migrated to a city to live, only 57 percent of the Chicano and 43 percent of the Anglo youths still lived in a city at the time of the survey. Anglo youths tend to dislike city life more than Chicano youths. Economic pressures of city life were not especially important influences on decisions to return to the rural area. Only 12 percent of the Chicano and 16 percent of the Anglo youths who moved to the cities failed to find a job. Only 2 percent of Chicanos indicated that racial discrimination in the city was an important factor in their decision to return to a rural area.

In general, close family ties in the rural community influenced most of those who returned to the rural community.

Among these young rural-to-urban migrants, three-quarters of the Spanish-surname and two-thirds of the Anglo youths moved to a city where friends or relatives already lived. Among the Chicano youths, two-thirds of those who moved to cities where they had no friend or relatives did not stay in the city.

Occupational Adjustment

Among Spanish-surname girls from families that have enough money to provide some extras, about one-fourth neither go to college nor enter the labor market. Among girls from lower-income families, those who want to work migrate to the city. Only 12 percent of the noncollege girls who migrate do not participate in the labor force compared with 34 percent of those who remain in their home towns.

Among Spanish-surname noncollege youths who did not migrate, occupational success was not significantly related to whether or not they had worked part-time while in high school. Among the young males who moved to a city, those who had worked part-time in high school adjusted better occupationally than did those who had not worked during high school.

The jobs that the migrant Chicano youth obtained in the city were not much different from the jobs obtained by those who remained in the rural community, except that the jobs paid more per hour.

About 37 percent of the rural Spanish-surname youths in our sample had participated in NYC; only 5 percent of our Anglo sample from the same counties had participated in the program. Among those Spanish-surname youths who remained in the rural community, NYC experience was related negatively to employment adjustment. Among those who migrated to the cities, the NYC experience was negatively related to occupational success among females and positively related to occupational success among males.

Although the NYC program is for youths from low-income families, we found a much more negative relationship, among noncollege youths, between family income and later occupational adjustment than between NYC participation and occupational adjustment. Thus, the findings with respect to NYC's

having a negative relationship to employment may merely reflect the very strong influence of family income on occupational success among Spanish-surname rural youths who do not go on to college. Actually the results that we obtained could be interpreted to mean that NYC is effective in overcoming part of the strong negative effect that poverty has on occupational adjustment.

We found that enrollment in bilingual education programs at the high school level has a positive effect on the occupational success of noncollege Spanish-surname females who migrate to the city. Those who attended schools in which few courses were taught bilingually received much lower occupational adjustment scores than those who attended schools in which a large proportion of the teachers taught their courses bilingually.

In general, it was found that Spanish-surname youths from very isolated counties do less well occupationally than those who grow up in less-isolated counties. If the youth from an isolated county stays there, he has little chance of being employed regularly in a job at his highest skill level; if he migrates to the city, he does less well than his peers who move to the city from less isolated rural counties.

A recurrent theme throughout the literature and the interviews that we conducted was discrimination against Mexican-Americans in employment. We found a significant difference between Anglo and Chicano rural youths in the degree to which they feel that Anglos and Chicanos have an equal chance at getting jobs. Yet, even though a large proportion (22 percent) of Anglos and a significantly larger proportion (39 percent) of Chicanos in our sample report difficulties in finding work, almost no one in either group attributes these difficulties to discrimination because of race.

Thus, in some respects the findings in this study are similar to those in an earlier study in the North Central States. The majority of rural young people move to the cities; they have difficulty adjusting to the city; those that come from the most isolated counties are the most disadvantaged whether they stay at home or move to the city. The rural Chicano youth, however, is very likely to be a school dropout whether his family is poor or rich. He is faced with especially difficult problems if he comes from a family in which English is not spoken in the home. These findings suggest the need for a program that will prepare the young rural people for a move to the city if that is their choice and a program to help bridge the language barrier which is so closely related to their educational difficulties.

INTRODUCTION TO VOLUME 3

The first two phases of this research program developed a set of hypotheses concerning factors that affect the occupational and social adjustment of Spanish-surname youths in the rural Southwest. These hypotheses reflect a cross section of commonly held beliefs about the problems of Chicano rural youths, the causes of these problems and what should be done to alleviate them. It is on the basis of such "expert opinion" that federal programs are often born, nurtured and guided.

It is just as important in this study to learn which hypotheses are not supported by empirical data as it is to determine the commonly held beliefs that are supported by the data. Unwarranted generalizations and stereotypes about a large group arise quickly even among people who are quite liberal in their views and among the group members themselves. Repeated often enough, these generalizations and stereotypes become accepted "facts" on which to base large-scale, expensive "remedial" programs.

The reader will find that the data presented in this volume explode a number of popular beliefs; they also show a number of relationships to be important that were not mentioned by any of the experts in the course of our interviews.

We have three different sets of important material to present in this report. One is a long list of hypotheses not supported by the research findings. We have found it most difficult to set forth and explain this long list of unsupported beliefs. The second is a much shorter list of hypotheses that were substantiated by our research findings. The third is a new set of factors suggested by the research findings as being important.

To be useful, this report should present these three kinds of information thoroughly and accurately. On the other hand, to be useful, this report must be read by a large audience. We ourselves sometimes find it difficult to keep our attention on lengthy discussions of unsupported hypotheses. So, to make the report as readable as possible while retaining

the kind of detail required for a scholarly analysis of the issues, we have listed all the hypotheses that were tested in an appendix to the report. Each hypothesis is cross referenced to those page numbers in the report that are relevant to the hypothesis. However, the relegation of unsupported hypotheses to a listing in an appendix should not be interpreted to mean that these negative findings have little value.

In addition, detailed discussions of sampling problems and sample characteristics are presented in another appendix to this report.

THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

A Definition of "Rural"

The U. S. Census divides the rural population into two categories -- farm and nonfarm. The "rural farm" population consists of persons living in a rural area on a place of 10 or more acres from which yearly farm product sales amount to $50 or more, or on places of less than 10 acres from which yearly farm product sales are $250 or more. All other residents, including those who live in towns of 2500 or less, are "rural nonfarm".

In our research in rural areas, however, we have found that the Census definition is not adequate, sociologically, for two reasons. In the first place, towns of 2500 or less population may be suburbs of or close enough to take on the character of large urban areas. And, in the second place, some towns of more than 5000 population are located in areas whose economy is largely based on agriculture. The inhabitants of these towns think of themselves as rural residents and their activities are largely rural in character.

We have, therefore, in this study adopted as our definition of a "rural" county: a county in which no towns have over 5000 population or in which 60 percent or more of the population live in towns of 2500 or less.

The Definition of Spanish Surname

The 1970 Census of Population defines persons of Spanish heritage in a variety of ways: as "Persons of Spanish language"; as "Persons of Puerto Rican birth or parentage"; as "Persons of Spanish Surname"; and as "Persons of Spanish origin or descent". In five southwestern states this population is identified as "Persons of Spanish language or Spanish surname".

Writers have used a number of different terms to describe persons of Spanish or Mexican descent; these include "Spanish-American", "Mexican-American", "Latin", "Latin-American", "Hispano" and more recently "LaRaza"

or "Chicano". Chicano is the term most often used among young people; Mexican-American is the most frequently used term in the writings surveyed. In this report, the terms "Spanish surname", "Chicano", and "Mexican-American" will be used interchangeably.

It is often difficult to identify persons of Spanish descent because many members of this population have intermarried with members of other populations -- mainly with Indians and Anglos. Thus, use of the Spanish language as the mother tongue or appearance of one's surname on the list of Spanish surnames compiled by the Immigration and Naturalization Service is the only practical method of identifying persons of Spanish origin. It is probably impossible, however, except for those who are recent immigrants from Mexico, to say with any degree of certainty that a given person is of Spanish or of Mexican descent.

In this study, preliminary determination of Spanish surname was made on the basis of Immigration and Naturalization Service lists. This determination, however, was used only for assignment to the portions of the sample. Final designation of the ethnic group to which a particular youth belonged was based on the youth's own designation of his ethnicity. It is this self-designation that has been used in grouping the data for analysis.

The Data Base

Much of the information on which this report is based was derived from the responses to a questionnaire mailed to a sample of young people in rural counties in the Southwest.

The sample of youth was intended to consist primarily of Spanish-surname rural youths and, therefore, the sample of rural counties was selected so as to be a representative cross section of those rural counties in the Southwest that had at least 10 percent Spanish-surname population. A smaller group of non-Spanish-surname rural youth from these counties was included as a contrast group. Similarly, a small sample of the Anglo and Chicano youth from small cities in the Southwest having high proportions of Spanish-surname population was also surveyed as a contrast group.

In addition to the questionnaires received from the sample of youths, considerable ancillary information was gathered, including the following:

A form on each individual's high school performance (completed by field staff from high school records).

An analysis of services and facilities available in each rural community, the occupation and wage structure for unskilled and semiskilled labor in each community, and various measures of social and geographical isolation (completed by field staff).

An analysis of each high school's academic, vocational and extracurricular programs (completed by school superintendents).

A questionnaire sent to every high school teacher and counselor of each school, concerned with the teacher's training and experience.

A broad array of census and demographic information on each rural county.

Appendix C contains the data-gathering forms that were utilized in the research.

Appendix D presents information on the sample which will be useful in interpreting the report.

Geographic Context -- Characteristics of the Home Counties of the Rural Youths in the Sample

Income Level

In general, Spanish-surname youths were raised in economically poorer rural counties than were the non-Spanish-surname youths. Table 1 shows that 66 percent of the rural Chicano sample but only 39 percent of the rural Anglo sample were raised in counties with low median family income. In addition, Table 2 shows that Chicano rural youths are much more likely than Anglos to have been raised in counties with relatively high unemployment.

Table 1

Median Family Income of Home Counties of Rural Youth

Median Family Income of Home County	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Low (less than $5,000)	185	(66%)	69	(39%)	254
Medium ($5,000-$7,300)	37	(13%)	57	(32%)	94
High (more than $7,300)	60	(21%)	50	(28%)	110
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 35.5$, df = 2: $p < .001$

Table 2

Percent Unemployment (per 1970 Census) in Home Counties of Rural Youth

Unemployment	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Low (less than 3.8%)	58	(21%)	96	(55%)	154
Medium (3.8%-5.5%)	95	(39%)	38	(22%)	133
High (more than 5.5%)	129	(46%)	42	(24%)	171
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 56.57$, df = 2; p = <.001

Population Density

There is little difference in the population density of the home counties of Anglos and Chicanos in the rural youth sample. As Table 3 shows, 30 percent of Chicanos and 39 percent of Anglos came from counties with fewer than 5 people per square mile.

Table 3

Population Density of Home Counties of Rural Youth

Population Density of Home County	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Low (<5 people/sq.mile)	86	(30%)	68	(39%)	154
High (5 or more people/ sq. mile)	196	(70%)	108	(61%)	304
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 3.28$, df = 1; p = not significant

Comparable Information Derived from Census Reports

The information shown in Tables 1, 2 and 3 was derived by combining census data about the population density, unemployment rate and median family income of the home counties of the rural youth who responded to the individual mailed questionnaires. Similar patterns are shown in Tables 4, 5 and 6 below, which are based entirely on census information concerning these same counties.

Table 4

Median Family Income of Home Counties of Rural Youth

Percent Spanish-Surname Population	Median Family Income		Totals
	<$5,000	$5,000 and over	
10-49%	2 (22%)	7 (78%)	9
50% and over	4 (80%)	1 (20%)	5
Totals	6	8	14

Table 5

Percent Unemployment (per 1970 Census)
in Home Counties of Rural Youth

Percent Spanish-Surname Population	Percent Unemployed in the County		Totals
	<3.8%	3.8% and over	
10-49%	6 (67%)	3 (33%)	9
50% and over	1 (20%)	4 (80%)	5
Totals	7	7	14

Table 6

Population Density of Home Counties of Rural Youth

Population Density	Percent Spanish-Surname Population		Totals
	10-49%	50% and over	
<5/mi^2	4 (44%)	3 (60%)	7
5 or more/mi^2	5 (56%)	2 (40%)	7
Totals	9	5	14

Age of the Population

More Anglos than Chicanos in the sample of rural youth were raised in counties with a relatively high median age. Table 7 shows that, though about half of each group of rural youth came from counties with low median age, more Anglos (32 percent) than Chicanos (10 percent) came from counties with high median age. Table 8 shows that about one-third of the sample of Anglo rural youths but almost half of the Chicano sample have home counties with low proportions of population over age 64; only 20 percent of the Chicano sample came from counties with high proportions of population over age 64.

Table 7

Median Age in Home Counties of Rural Youth

Median Age of County's Population	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Low (below 25 years)	142	(50%)	81	(46%)	223
Medium (25-28 years)	111	(39%)	38	(22%)	149
High (over 28 years)	29	(10%)	57	(32%)	86
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 39.13$, df = 2; p = <.001

Table 8

Percent of Population Over Age 64 in Home Counties of Rural Youth

Percent of Population Over Age 64	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Low (less than 10%)	134	(48%)	62	(35%)	196
Medium (10.0%-11.8%)	93	(33%)	56	(32%)	149
High (more than 11.8%)	55	(20%)	58	(33%)	113
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 11.82$, df = 2; p = <.005

Table 9 shows that over half of each group of rural youths came from counties with a relatively high proportion of population age 15-25. Slightly more Anglo youths came from counties with low proportions of the population age 15-25; correspondingly, a somewhat larger percentage of Chicano rural youth came from counties at the middle level on this variable.

Table 9

Percent of Population Age 15-25 in Home Counties of Rural Youth

Percent of Population Age 15-25	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Low (less than 15.7%)	72	(26%)	61	(35%)	133
Medium (15.7%-16.6%)	48	(17%)	17	(10%)	65
High (more than 16.6%)	162	(57%)	98	(56%)	260
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 7.31$, df = 2; p = <.05

In summary, Anglo rural youth are more likely than Chicano rural youth to come from counties with an older population. Anglo rural youth are also more likely than Chicanos to come from counties where their age group comprises a relatively small proportion of the county's population.

Isolation

Spanish-surname rural youths in the sample are more likely than Anglo rural youths to come from counties which are geographically and socially isolated. Table 10 shows that somewhat more Chicanos than Anglos came from counties that are relatively close to towns of 10,000 population. However, Table 11 shows that considerably more Chicanos than Anglos came from counties that are relatively distant from cities of 100,000 or more population. Thus, while 41 percent of Chicano rural youth and 29 percent of Anglo rural youth have home counties relatively close to towns of 10,000, only 16 percent of Chicanos (compared to 42 percent of Anglos) were raised

Table 10

Distance to Nearest Town of 10,000 or More Population
from County Seat of Home Counties of Rural Youth

Distance from county seat to nearest town of 10,000 or more pop.	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Less than 45 miles	116	(41%)	51	(29%)	167
45-59 miles	99	(35%)	68	(39%)	167
More than 59 miles	67	(24%)	57	(32%)	124
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 7.742$, df = 2; p = <.025

Table 11

Distance to Nearest City of 100,000 or More Population
from County Seat of Home Counties of Rural Youth

Distance from county seat to nearest town of 100,000 or more population	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Less than 61 miles	46	(16%)	74	(42%)	120
61-120 miles	120	(43%)	65	(37%)	185
More than 120 miles	116	(41%)	37	(21%)	153
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 41.36$, df = 2; p = <.001

in counties relatively close to cities of 100,000. Of the Chicano rural youth in the sample, 41 percent were raised in counties where the county seat was more than 120 miles from a city of 100,000.

In addition to geographic isolation which is reflected in measures of distance from metropolitan areas, rural communities differ along other dimensions of isolation. One measure of social isolation that has been used in similar studies conducted by the present researchers is the degree to which various services and facilities are available in a community. For the present study, two such measures were used: number of essential services available in a county and number of cultural and recreational facilities available in a county. Essential services include the following:

Hospitals
Doctors
Dentists
Public health nurses
Drug stores
Churches
Supermarkets
Full-line clothing stores
Optometrists, Opticians or Opthalmologists

Recreational and cultural facilities included the following:

Parks (with or without playground facilities)
Libraries
Operating movie theaters
Swimming pools and/or lakes and/or swimmable rivers
Golf courses
Bowling alleys
Pool halls

As Tables 12 and 13 show, Anglo rural youths are much more likely than Chicanos to have been raised in counties that have relatively high numbers of essential services and of cultural and recreational facilities.

Table 12

Number of Essential Services Available in Home Counties of Rural Youth

Total number of essential services available in county	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Low (0-25)	69	(24%)	18	(10%)	87
Medium (26-50)	88	(31%)	16	(9%)	104
High (more than 50)	125	(44%)	142	(81%)	267
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 59.48$, df = 2; p = <.001

Table 13

Number of Recreational and Cultural Facilities Available in Home Counties of Rural Youth

Number of recreational and cultural facilities available in county	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Low (0-9)	75	(27%)	26	(15%)	101
Medium (10-15)	74	(26%)	12	(7%)	86
High (more than 15)	133	(47%)	138	(78%)	271
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 46.52$, df = 2; p = <.001

Economic Environment

Availability of Jobs

As is true of other regions of rural America, the rural Southwest suffers from a lack of employment opportunities. This is particularly a problem for the Spanish-surname population because the rural counties that tend to have a large Spanish-surname population tend to be more dependent upon agriculture and less dependent upon manufacturing than are those rural counties with a smaller Spanish-surname population. In these rural counties high unemployment rates go with a high percentage employed in agriculture. These relationships are shown in Tables 14, 15 and 16 below.

Table 14

Relationship Between the Proportion of Spanish-Surname Residents in a County and the Percentage Employed in Manufacturing in that County

Percent Spanish-Surname Population	Percent Employed in Manufacturing				Totals
	<3.5%		3.5% and over		
10-49%	3	(33%)	6	(67%)	9
50% and over	3	(60%)	2	(40%)	5
Totals	6		8		14

Table 15

The Relationship Between the Proportion of Spanish-Surname Residents in a County and Percentage Employed in Agriculture in that County

Percent Spanish-Surname Population	Percent Employed in Agriculture		Totals
	<13%	13% and over	
10-49%	4 (44%)	5 (56%)	9
50% and over	0	5 (100%)	5
Totals	4	10	14

Table 16

Relationship Between the Percentage Employed in Agriculture in a County and the Percentage Unemployed in that County

Percent Employed in Agriculture	Percent Unemployed in County		Totals
	<5.6%	5.6% and over	
<25%	9 (100%)	0	9
25% and over	1 (20%)	4 (80%)	5
Totals	10	4	14

The few job openings that become available in rural counties in the Southwest often are not attractive to young people. As a result, rural youth are forced to seek employment in urban areas.

Most current programs for young people have centered around part-time work experience, which is considered to be an aid to employability development. If such programs have value, they are more needed in those communities in which part-time jobs are scarce than in those communities in which they are readily available. Our data allow us to determine only the number of rural youths who held part-time jobs; these data do not necessarily reflect the relative availability of such jobs for youths in the community.

About equal proportions of Chicano and Anglo young adults report having worked part-time when they were of high school age (50 percent of Spanish-surname and 55 percent of Anglo youths). Thus, part-time job availability in the rural Southwest appears to be about the same as that in the rural Southeastern states where 55 percent of white and 45 percent of black rural youths had part-time work.

In the North Central states and in the Southeast we found no difference in the proportion of youths from poor families and the proportion of youths from more affluent families who obtained part-time work when we controlled for race. In the Southwest, there is some indication, especially among Chicano youth, that those from poor families are more likely to have worked part-time than those from affluent families.

Work experience in high school was compared with reported family income and also with an index of purchasing power derived by North Star Research Institute and used in several previous major research programs. This index has proven to be very useful in determining gross levels of family income in rural areas where there is a reluctance to report family income in dollars. It is derived from responses to the following questionnaire item.

Between 1964 and 1968, my family:

- ☐ did not have enough money for food, clothing and shelter
- ☐ had enough money for food, clothing and shelter
- ☐ had some money left over for extras
- ☐ had enough money for travel, education and either savings or investment

There is a strong relationship between the answers given to this item and rural youth's reports of family income (see Table 17)*, but the relationship is much stronger among youths from white families than those from Chicano families.

*It should be noted that both portions of Table 17 were analyzed to yield a minimum expected cell frequency of 5 for purposes of χ^2 calculation. This procedure will be followed throughout this report and is in accordance with the standard procedure for χ^2 calculation described, for example, in Siegel, R. S., Nonparametric Statistics, McGraw-Hill, N.Y.: 1956, p. 178.

Table 17

Relationship Between Purchasing Power Index and Family Income of Rural Youths Among Those Rural Youths Willing to Report Family Income

	Family Income	Purchasing Power Index: Not enough for Essentials		Just enough for Essentials		Enough for Extras		Enough for vacation, savings, education		Totals	
Spanish-Surname Youth	Less than $2,000	14	(28%)	23	(16%)	3	(5%)	2	(10%)	42	(16%)
	$2,000-$2,999	16	(32%)	35	(25%)	8	(14%)	1	(5%)	60	(22%)
	$3,000-$4,999	15	(30%)	43	(30%)	13	(23%)	3	(15%)	74	(28%)
	$5,000-$7,499	5	(10%)	27	(19%)	18	(32%)	3	(15%)	53	(20%)
	$7,500-$9,999	0		9	(6%)	11	(19%)	6	(30%)	26	(10%)
	$10,000-$15,000	0		4	(3%)	4	(7%)	2	(10%)	10	(4%)
	Over $15,000	0		0		0		3	(15%)	3	(1%)
	Totals	50	(19%)	141	(53%)	57	(21%)	20	(7%)	268	

$\chi^2 = 62.93$, df = 12: p = <.001 [N.B. for purposes of χ^2 calculation, bottom 3 rows of table were combined, resulting in a 4 x 5 table.]

Non-Spanish-Surname Youth	Less than $2,000	0		6	(9%)	0		0		6	(4%)
	$2,000-$2,999	1	(100%)	4	(6%)	0		0		5	(3%)
	$3,000-$4,999	0		13	(20%)	5	(9%)	0		18	(11%)
	$5,000-$7,999	0		30	(46%)	19	(35%)	6	(12%)	55	(33%)
	$7,500-$9,999	0		11	(17%)	17	(31%)	7	(14%)	35	(21%)
	$10,000-$15,000	0		1	(2%)	12	(22%)	20	(42%)	33	(20%)
	Over $15,000	0		0		1	(2%)	15	(31%)	16	(10%)
	Totals	1	(1%)	65	(38%)	54	(32%)	48	(29%)	168	

$\chi^2 = 94.48$, df = 8: p = <.001 [N.B. for purposes of χ^2 calculation, top 3 rows and left 2 columns were combined, resulting in a 3 x 5 table.]

Table 18 shows the relationship between family economic status and part-time employment status of the youths during the years 1964-68, the period during which they would have been in high school.

Table 18

Part-time Employment and Family Economic Status, by Race

Purchasing Power by Race	Worked		Did not work	
Spanish-Surname:				
Purchasing Power:				
(1) Not enough for essentials	29	(58%)	21	(42%)
(2) Enough for essentials	79	(53%)	69	(47%)
(3) A little left over	23	(39%)	36	(61%)
(4) More than enough	8	(38%)	13	(62%)
	$\chi^2 = 5.88$, df = 1; p = <.025			
Anglo:				
Purchasing Power:				
(1) Not enough for essentials	1	(50%)	1	(50%)
(2) Enough for essentials	42	(63%)	25	(37%)
(3) A little left over	32	(56%)	25	(44%)
(4) More than enough	21	(43%)	28	(57%)
	$\chi^2 = 2.56$, df = 1; p = not significant			

Of those who had worked part-time, poor Chicano youths more often worked on farms or ranches than did richer Chicano youths. This relationship, which is shown in Table 19 does not exist among Anglo youths.

Table 19

Type of Part-time Employment and Family Economic Status, by Race

Purchasing Power by Race	Worked on Farm or Ranch		Worked in Town	
Spanish-Surname:				
Purchasing Power:				
(1) Not enough for essentials	13	(45%)	16	(55%)
(2) Enough for essentials	18	(17%)	61	(83%)
(3) A little left over	4	(17%)	19	(83%)
(4) More than enough	2	(25%)	6	(75%)

$\chi^2 = 6.22$, df = 1; p = <.02

Anglos:				
Purchasing Power:				
(1) Not enough for essentials	0		1	(100%)
(2) Enough for essentials	11	(26%)	31	(74%)
(3) A little left over	11	(34%)	21	(66%)
(4) More than enough	7	(33%)	14	(67%)

$\chi^2 = 0.79$, df = 1; p = not significant

Income and Standard of Living

The high incidence of poverty among the rural Spanish-surname population was frequently referred to in the literature and in the interviews. We found poverty to be more prevalent among the families of rural Spanish-surname youth in the sample than among families of Anglo youths. Table 20 shows that 66 percent of the Chicano (but only 18 percent of the Anglo) rural youth in the sample came from families with reported annual incomes below $5,000. Similarly, Table 21 shows that 72 percent of the Chicanos (but only 30 percent of the Anglos) reported that their families either had just enough or not enough money for food, clothing and shelter.

Table 20

Family Income, by Ethnic Group

Ethnic Group	Family Income in Dollars						
	<2,000	2,000–2,999	3,000–4,999	5,000–7,499	7,500–9,999	10,000–15,000	>15,000
Spanish surname	42 (16%)	60 (22%)	74 (28%)	53 (20%)	26 (10%)	10 (4%)	3 (1%)
Non-Spanish-surname	6 (4%)	5 (3%)	18 (11%)	55 (33%)	35 (21%)	33 (20%)	16 (10%)

$\chi^2 = 113.21$, df = 6; p = <.001

Table 21

Purchasing Power, by Ethnic Group

Ethnic Group	Purchasing Power			
	Not enough for essentials	Just enough for essentials	Enough for some extras	Enough for Vacations, etc.
Spanish-surname	50 (19%)	141 (53%)	57 (21%)	20 (7%)
Non-Spanish-surname	1 (1%)	65 (38%)	54 (32%)	48 (29%)

$\chi^2 = 67.33$, df = 3; p = <.001

In part, this difference in median family income between the two ethnic groups can be explained by the kind of economic base that is prevalent in the communities in which they live. The Spanish-surname population tends to be concentrated in counties that are heavily agricultural; and it is in these counties that the median family income is lowest, as is shown in Table 22. However, in every one of these fourteen counties the median income of Spanish-surname families was significantly lower than the median income for all families in the county.

Table 22

The Relationship Between the Percent Employed in Agriculture in a County and the Median Family Income in that County

Percent Employed in Agriculture	Median Family Income		Totals
	<$7,301	>$7,300	
<25%	5 (56%)	4 (44%)	9
25% and over	5 (100%)	0	5
Totals	10	4	14

Social and Cultural Environment

Sex Roles

Many writers refer to the persistence of traditional values among rural Chicanos. Among these are strictly defined masculine and feminine roles emphasizing manliness and dominance in males and domesticity and submissiveness in females. The findings in the survey results do not clearly support this assertion.

Among rural youth in general there is a substantial difference in the percentages of males and females who go to college. Table 23 shows that 46 percent of rural male Chicanos but only 21 percent of the females attended college. However, although considerably more Anglos than Chicanos of both sexes go on to college, the male-female difference among Chicanos is not much greater than the male-female difference among Anglos.

Table 23

College Attendance of Rural Youth

Race	Education	Male	Female	Totals
Spanish-Surname Youths	Attended college	41 (46%)	40 (21%)	81 (29%)
	Did not attend college	48 (54%)	153 (79%)	201 (71%)
	Totals	89	193	282
		$\chi^2 = 19.11$, df = 1; p = <.001		
Non-Spanish-Surname Youths	Attended college	41 (76%)	70 (57%)	111 (63%)
	Did not attend college	13 (24%)	52 (43%)	65 (37%)
	Totals	54	122	176
		$\chi^2 = 5.53$, df = 1; p = <.02		

To the degree that employment conflicts with the traditional Chicano female role, Tables 24 and 25 show some adherence to tradition among rural Chicano females. Though 100 percent of both Anglo and Chicano noncollege rural males had had at least one job, 24 percent of comparable Chicano females and only 10 percent of comparable Anglo females had never had a job. On the other hand, the evidence for the Chicano female's taking on the traditional role is not supported in that this difference between noncollege Anglo and Chicano females in work patterns is not related to marriage rates; survey results show that among noncollege rural females in the sample, 92 percent of the Anglo and only 75 percent of the Chicano girls were married at the time of the survey (at about age 21).

Table 24

Employment of Noncollege Rural Youth

Race	Employment	Male	Female	Totals
Spanish-Surname Youth	Has had a job	47 (100%)	111 (76%)	158 (82%)
	Has never had a job	0	35 (24%)	35 (18%)
	Totals	47	146	193
		$\chi^2 = 13.76$, df = 1; p = <.005		
Non-Spanish-Surname Youth	Has had a job	13 (100%)	46 (90%)	59 (92%)
	Has never had a job	0	5 (10%)	5 (8%)
	Totals	13	51	64
		$\chi^2 = 0.36$, df = 1; p = not significant		

Table 25

Relative Employment Rates of Noncollege Rural Female Youth

Race	Has Had a Job		Totals
	Yes	No	
Spanish-Surname Female Youth	111 (76%)	35 (24%)	146
Non-Spanish-Surname Female Youth	46 (90%)	5 (10%)	51
Totals	157	40	197

$\chi^2 = 4.69$, df = 1; p = <.05

Use of Spanish Language

Many writers state that rural Chicano families persist in the use of the Spanish language. Table 26 shows that among the Spanish-surname youths in the sample, those from rural areas are almost four times as likely as those from small cities to come from homes where only Spanish is spoken.

Table 26

Language Spoken in Home of Spanish-Surname Youth

Language Spoken	Rural		Small City		Totals
Spanish only	140	(50%)	6	(13%)	146
English only	12	(4%)	13	(27%)	25
English + Spanish	126	(45%)	29	(60%)	155
Totals	278		48		326

$\chi^2 = 42.72$, df = 2; p = <.001

Characteristics of Rural Spanish-Surname Youth in the Southwest

Intelligence Test Scores

There was considerable agreement in the literature that Spanish-surname youth score at lower levels on IQ tests than do Anglo youths, largely because of the cultural orientation of these tests and the fact that many Chicano youths grow up in homes where English is not spoken. Thus, we tested the following hypothesis:

- Standard IQ measures yield a lower average score for Spanish-surname rural youths than for Anglo rural youths.

To test this hypothesis it was necessary to obtain the latest IQ for each subject from school records. However, as is shown in Table 27, IQ scores were available for only 52 percent of the sample. For those youths for whom IQ scores were available, though, there is a striking difference between the scores of Anglos and Chicanos. Over half (51 percent) of the Spanish-surname youth but less than one-tenth (8 percent) of the non-Spanish-surname youth had IQ scores below 90. Conversely, 19 percent of the Anglos and only 1 percent of the Chicanos had IQ scores over 119.

Table 27

Latest IQ Scores of Rural Youth

IQ Score	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Less than 90	75	(51%)	7	(8%)	82
90-109	52	(35%)	41	(45%)	93
110-119	18	(12%)	26	(29%)	44
Higher than 119	2	(1%)	17	(19%)	19
Totals	147		91		238
	$\chi^2 = 61.20$, df = 3; p = <.001				
IQ scores not available	135	(48%)	85	(48%)	220
Grand Totals	282		176		458

It has often been suggested that a teacher's knowledge of pupils' IQ scores leads to teacher expectations of pupil performance. If this occurs, it would be expected that Spanish-surname youth would receive lower grades in schools where IQ tests were used than in schools where such tests were not used. This expectation led us to hypothesize that:

- In schools where standard IQ measures are used, Spanish-surname youths rank lower in their class than in schools where such measures are not used.

However, Table 28 shows that such a relationships between class rank and use of IQ scores probably does not exist; in fact there appears to be a relationship in the opposite direction. Among rural Spanish-surname youths who attend schools where IQ tests are used, only 20 percent graduate in the lowest quartile of their class: among similar youths who attended schools where IQ tests are not used, 35 percent graduate in the lowest quartile.

Table 28

Relationship between Class Rank of Spanish-surname Rural Youth and Use of IQ Tests in School

	Class Rank	Did School Use IQ Tests		Totals
		Yes	No	
Spanish-surname youth	Top 3 quartiles	113 (80%)	26 (65%)	139
	Lowest 25%	28 (20%)	14 (35%)	42
	Totals	141	40	181

$\chi^2 = 4.01$, df = 1; p = <.05

Cultural Identity

The search for identity common to all adolescents may be especially painful to a Mexican-American youth whose aspirations may differ from his parents', his teachers' and even his own expectations of what he can achieve. The literature suggests that the implication in the school that Spanish language and culture are inferior creates a feeling of worthlessness in the Mexican-American child. This suggestion prompted the hypothesis that:

- Spanish-surname youth who attend schools where the Spanish language and Chicano culture are suppressed do not make as good an occupational and social adjustment as similar youth who attend schools which encourage Spanish language and Chicano culture.

Several measures were generated to test this hypothesis. These include number of years of Spanish taught in the high school classes, whether any of the teachers included references to Chicano culture in their classes, whether the speaking of Spanish was prohibited on school property, and the number of formal courses in Mexican-American culture and history that were taught in the high school. However, the latter two measures were not usable. Only 9 percent of the Spanish-surname

rural youth attended a school which provided any instruction in Mexican-American culture or history; only 15 percent attended a school where the speaking of Spanish was prohibited. When these small numbers were subdivided among various levels of occupational and social adjustment, cell samples sizes became too small to justify statistical tests of significance.

There was no significant relationship between occupational adjustment and either of the other two measures -- number of years of Spanish taught and percent of teachers who include references to Chicano culture in their classes.

Staff and Facilities

In an earlier study in the North Central states, it was found that, despite school consolidation, rural schools tended to be small. Only 16 percent of the schools in a representative cross section of rural counties had 200 or more students. In the rural Southwest, the schools tend to be much larger than this; 49 percent of the rural schools covered in this study had 200 or more students.

Rural schools in the Southwest were more likely than the North Central rural schools to have someone assigned as guidance counselor. About three-quarters of the schools had a staff member assigned to this job and about two-thirds of those assigned had been trained as counselors.

The student-to-teacher ratio in the Southwestern schools is low; none of the rural schools studied had more than 25 high school students per high school teacher.

The counties that were included in this study are a representative cross section of the rural counties that have a high proportion of Spanish-surname residents. Both the literature and the community leaders whom we interviewed emphasized the difficulty that the Spanish-speaking child has in entering a school where English is the only language spoken. Of the Spanish-surnamed youths in our sample, half came from homes where English was not spoken. Yet in the 22 schools that were located in counties having between 10 - 49 percent Spanish-surname population, 20 schools (91%) had less than 10 percent Spanish-surname staff and 17 schools (77%) had no teachers of Spanish surname. Eleven schools were located in rural counties having 50 percent or more Spanish-surname population. Of these 11 schools 3 had no Spanish-surnamed staff members.

Expenditure Per Pupil

Expenditure per pupil tends to be high in rural schools in the Southwest. Of the 33 high schools attended by the rural youth in our study, 4 schools did not provide information about expenditure per pupil. Of the 29 schools providing this information, 11 schools (38 percent) spend over $700 per student. Three schools (10 percent) spend less than $400, but each of these three schools is located in a county in which there are other high schools that spend much more.

The factors underlying differences among schools in the amount they spend per pupil are much more difficult to track down in the Southwest than they are in the North Central states or in the Southwest. The rural counties that we investigated in the Southwest are not very dependent upon agriculture. Most of the rural counties in the North Central states have over 40 percent of the population engaged in agriculture; in the Southwest only 1 of the 14 counties studied has over 40 percent of its population employed in agriculture. In the Southwest, the percentage of a county's population that is employed in manufacturing is almost entirely unrelated to the number employed in agriculture; nor is there a significant relationship between the percent employed in manufacturing and the percent employed in mining. The counties that are the most agricultural tend to be more densely populated and closer to cities of 10,000 population than are the counties that are less dependent upon agriculture. Finally, the Spanish-surname population tends to be greatest in those few counties that are heavily dependent upon agriculture and sparsely populated. In sorting out these various interrelationships, we found that per-pupil expenditure tends to be high in those counties that have a heavy concentration of people employed in mining or in manufacturing and tends to be low in those counties that have a high proportion engaged in agriculture. Expenditure per pupil tends to be higher in those counties that have 10 to 49 percent

Spanish-surname population than in counties having 50 percent or more Spanish-surname population. But, none of these relationships attained statistical significance.

We did find, however, that expenditure per pupil is related at a significant level to the distance that a county is from a city of 10,000 population, as shown in Table 29, and to the median family income in the county, as shown in Table 30.

Table 29

Number of High Schools with Expenditures of $500 or More Per Pupil in Rural Counties of Varying Distance From a City of 10,000 Population

Distance From City of 10,000	Expenditure Per Pupil		Totals
	< $500	$500 and over	
< 60 miles	10 (53%)	9 (47%)	19
60 or more miles	0	10 (100%)	10
Totals	10	19	29*

$\chi^2 = 5.87$: df = 1; p = <.02

Table 30

Number of High Schools with Expenditures of $500 or More Per Pupil in High- and Low-Income Rural Counties

Median Family Income in County	Expenditure Per Pupil				Totals
	< $500		$500 and over		
< $5,000	8	(67%)	4	(33%)	12
$5,000 and over	2	(12%)	15	(88%)	17
Totals	10		19		29*

$\chi^2 = 7.11$; df = 1; p = <.01

*4 schools did not report expenditure per pupil

The Curriculum

Although expenditure per pupil is often taken as a measure of general quality of education, our research in rural areas has shown that the number of courses offered in a rural school tends to be inversely related to per-pupil expenditures. This relationship appears to stem, in turn, from the relationship between expenditure per pupil and rural population density. Schools that serve a widely scattered population tend to be small and, even though they have limited course offerings, are expensive to operate.

In the Southwest, where rural schools tend to have more pupils than in most other rural regions, we found no consistent relationships -- either positive or negative -- between course offerings and expenditure per pupil in rural schools.

The literature is generally quite critical of the curricula offered to Mexican-American school children; there is less agreement about what would be suitable or relevant to offer them. The community leaders whom we interviewed emphasized two general curriculum areas that they believed should be stressed for rural Spanish-surname youth -- vocational courses and courses in Chicano history and culture. Of the 33 schools attended by the youths in our sample only two offer a formal course in either Mexican-American culture or Mexican-American history. Over half the schools offer no vocational shop courses. However, in the counties with over 50 percent Spanish-surname population, the schools are about twice as likely to offer more than one year of vocational shop and of shop math than are the schools located in counties with smaller proportions of Spanish-surname residents. An even stronger relationship, shown in Table 31, is found between having one or more Spanish-surname teachers on the staff and offering vocational shop. (Further analysis shows that Spanish-surname teachers are no more likely to teach such courses than are the other teachers.)

Table 31

Number of Schools That Have Spanish-Surname High School Teachers and That Offer a Vocational Shop Course

Percentage of High School Teachers Who Are Spanish-Surname	Number of Years of Vocational Shop Offered in High School				Totals
	0 years		1 or more years		
none	16	(80%)	4	(20%)	20
some	3	(25%)	9	(75%)	12
Totals	19		13		32

$\chi^2 = 7.26$; df = 1; $p < .01$

The kinds of courses offered by the rural school in the Southwestern counties that were studied appear to be related in a complex way to several factors -- the degree to which the county has an agricultural economy, the presence of Spanish-surname teachers on the school staff (in turn, related to percent of Spanish-surname residents in the county), population density, distance from a city, and several other socioeconomic variables. No single variable is highly related to curriculum. Some of these relationships are shown in Table 32.

"Vocational" Services

Many of the same variables that appear to determine the kinds of courses that a school will offer also are related (to a somewhat lesser degree) to the kinds of "vocational" services that a school offers (see Table 33).

Table 32

Proportion of the High Schools That Are Located in Counties Having Certain Characteristics and That Offer Selected Courses

Characteristic of Rural County	Percent of High Schools Offering Selected Courses									
	Years of Algebra		Years of Shop Math		Years of Social Studies		Years of Business Machines		Years of Vocational Shop	
	2	≥2	0–1	>1	2	>2	0	>0	0–1	>1
Population Density:										
less than 5/mi^2	15%	85%	46%	54%	23%	77%	62%	38%	92%	8%
5 or more/mi^2	15%	85%	35%	65%	5%	95%	50%	50%	55%	45%
									p = <.025	
Distance from City of 10,000 Population:										
<45 miles	20%	80%	40%	60%	20%	80%	70%	30%	80%	20%
45–59 miles	25%	75%	25%	75%	8%	92%	50%	50%	67%	33%
>59 miles	0%	100%	55%	45%	9%	91%	45%	55%	64%	36%
Percent Employed in Agriculture:										
<13%	0%	100%	43%	57%	0%	100%	0%	100%	43%	57%
13–24%	0%	100%	40%	60%	13%	87%	80%	20%	93%	7%
>24%	45%	55%	36%	64%	18%	82%	55%	65%	55%	45%
	p = <.005						p = <.005		p = <.025	
Percent Spanish-surname in County:										
10–49%	5%	95%	50%	50%	10%	90%	50%	50%	77%	23%
50% or more	36%	64%	18%	82%	18%	82%	64%	36%	55%	45%
	p = <.02									

Table 33

Proportion of the High Schools That Are Located in Counties Having Certain Characteristics and That Offer Selected Vocational-Related Services to Students

Characteristic of Rural County	Percent of High Schools Offering Selected Services											
	On the Job Training or Work-Study		Occupational Familiarization		Career Night/ Vocation Day		Field Trips		Job Placement		Guidance Counselor	
	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
Population Density:												
less than 5/mi^2	31%	69%	38%	62%	69%	31%	46%	54%	0%	100%	69%	31%
5 or more/mi^2	25%	75%	25%	75%	55%	45%	85%	15%	25%	75%	75%	25%
							p = <.02					
Distance from City of 10,000 Population:												
<45 miles	20%	80%	20%	80%	70%	30%	60%	40%	20%	80%	60%	40%
45-59 miles	17%	83%	25%	75%	58%	42%	83%	17%	25%	75%	83%	17%
>59 miles	45%	55%	45%	55%	55%	45%	64%	36%	0%	100%	73%	27%
Percent Employed in Agriculture:												
<13%	29%	71%	43%	57%	71%	29%	71%	29%	0%	100%	100%	0%
13-24%	27%	73%	27%	73%	47%	53%	67%	33%	7%	93%	60%	40%
>24%	27%	73%	27%	73%	73%	27%	73%	27%	36%	64%	73%	27%
Percent Spanish-Surname in County:												
10-49%	27%	73%	36%	64%	55%	45%	77%	23%	9%	91%	77%	23%
50% or more	27%	73%	18%	82%	73%	27%	55%	45%	27%	73%	64%	36%

Response to Rural Spanish-Surname Youth to the Educational System

Dropouts

In the interviews, many of the respondents stressed the dropout problem as being particularly acute among rural Chicano youth. Many respondents stated that the problem was more serious in the pre-high school population. However, it was not possible to determine the incidence of pre-high school dropping out with the present sample. We did, though, test the following hypothesis:

- More Spanish-surname than Anglo rural youth drop out of school during high school.

Table 34 shows that in small cities and in rural areas, significantly more Chicano than Anglo rural youth drop out of school after 8th grade. Assuming that at least some rural Chicano youth drop out before 8th grade, it is evident that the dropout problem is indeed acute among rural Spanish-surname youth.

Table 34

Dropout Rates Among Youth Who Have Graduated From 8th Grade

Residence	Education	Chicano		Anglo		Totals
Rural	Did Not Complete High School	60	(22%)	9	(5%)	69
	Completed High School	217	(78%)	166	(95%)	383
	Totals	277		175		452
	$\chi^2 = 22.62$, df = 1; p = <.001					
Small City	Did Not Complete High School	10	(20%)	5	(7%)	15
	Completed High School	41	(80%)	68	(93%)	109
	Totals	51		73		124
	$\chi^2 = 4.60$, df = 1; p = <.05					

The literature and interviews frequently suggested correlation between standard of living and educational attainment, particularly among Mexican-Americans. Knowledge of the strength of this relationship should be part of the basis of a model program for rural Chicano youth. Thus, it was hypothesized that:

- There is a stronger relationship among Spanish-surname youth than among Anglo youth between family income and completing high school.

Table 35 shows that this hypotheses is contradicted by the data. The relationship between family income and completing high school is much stronger among Anglo youth than among Spanish-surname youth. Higher proportions of low-income than of high-income youths drop out of high school, no matter what their race. Among Spanish-surname youth, 25 percent of low-income and 17 percent of high-income youth were dropouts. Among Anglo youth, 13 percent of low-income and 2 percent of high-income youth dropped out of high school. However, this difference was not statistically significant for Spanish-surname youth; but among Anglos the relationship was significant at the $p = <.005$ level.

It is interesting, moreover, that the relatively high proportion of dropouts among low-income Anglo youth is still lower than the proportion of dropouts among high-income Spanish-surname youth. These results appear to indicate that the factor which plays the more important role in this relationship is culture (or race) rather than level of family income. It appears from these findings that a program to discourage or prevent youths from dropping out of school should be offered to all Spanish-surname youth, but to only the low-income Anglo youth.

Almost half (45%) of rural Spanish-surname dropouts said they would have stayed in school if they had been given some extra money. Thus, it would appear that some income supplement to Spanish-surname rural youth might significantly reduce the dropout rate among these youths.

Table 35

Relationship Between Rural Youths' Family Income and Completion of High School

Race	Education	Purchasing Power: Low	Purchasing Power: High	Totals
Spanish-surname youth	Completed high school	147 (75%)	65 (83%)	212 (78%)
	Dropped out	48 (25%)	13 (17%)	61 (22%)
	Totals	195	78	273
		$\chi^2 = 2.03$, df = 1; p = not significant		
Non-Spanish-surname youth	Completed high school	58 (87%)	104 (98%)	162 (93%)
	Dropped out	9 (13%)	2 (2%)	11 (7%)
	Totals	67	106	173
		$\chi^2 = 9.19$, df = 1; p = <.005		

Enrollment in Various Secondary Education Programs

In our interviews it was often suggested by Chicano interviewees that Chicano youth are counseled away from college preparatory courses and toward general or vocational courses.

Table 36 shows that a significant relationship exists between ethnicity and enrollment in a college preparatory course of education. For both males and females, Anglo youth are far more likely to be enrolled in college preparatory courses.

Table 36

Relationship Between Ethnicity and Enrollment in College Preparatory Course of Education Among Rural Youths

Sex	Course of Education	Chicano		Anglo		Totals
Males	College Preparatory	16	(23%)	20	(42%)	36
	Other	54	(77%)	28	(58%)	82
	Totals	70		48		118
	$\chi^2 = 4.75$, df = 1; p = <.05					
Females	College Preparatory	18	(13%)	40	(43%)	58
	Other	120	(87%)	54	(57%)	174
	Totals	138		94		232
	$\chi^2 = 25.71$, df = 1; p = <.001					

The Language Barrier and Secondary-School Achievement

Rural Spanish-surname youth who come from homes where no English is spoken are clearly disadvantaged in school. Table 37 shows that these youths score lower on IQ tests than comparable youths from homes where English is spoken. Table 38 shows that they rank lower in their high school class. For males there is a relationship between speaking English in the home and participating in extracurricular activities in high school (Table 39).

Table 37

Relationship Between IQ Scores of Noncollege Spanish-Surname Rural Youth and Language Spoken in Home

IQ Score	Spanish only		English only or English + Spanish		Totals
<89	51	(76%)	18	(56%)	69
90 and over	16	(23%)	14	(44%)	30
Totals	67		32		99

$\chi^2 = 4.05$, df = 1; p = <.05

Table 38

Relationship Between Class Rank of Noncollege Spanish-Surname Rural Youth and Language Spoken in Home

Class Rank	Spanish only		English only or English + Spanish		Totals
Upper half	14	(22%)	17	(37%)	31
Lower half	50	(78%)	29	(63%)	79
Totals	64		46		110

$\chi^2 = 3.01$, df = 1; p = not significant

Table 39

Relationship Between Extracurricular Participation of Spanish-Surname Rural Youth and Language Spoken in Home

Sex	No. of Extracurricular Activities Participated in	Spanish only		English only or English + Spanish		Totals
Males	0	15	(41%)	6	(16%)	21
	1-3	21	(57%)	20	(54%)	41
	>3	1	(2%)	11	(30%)	12
	Totals	37		37		74
		$\chi^2 = 12.21$, df = 2; p = <.005				
Females	0	27	(36%)	29	(33%)	56
	1-3	37	(49%)	45	(52%)	82
	> 3	11	(15%)	13	(15%)	24
	Totals	75		87		162

$\chi^2 = 0.13$, df = 2: p = not significant

We also compared school performance of rural Spanish-surname youths with the degree to which the Spanish language was utilized in the classroom. School performance was not related to whether or not the school offered bilingual classes, to the percent of teachers who speak Spanish, to the percent of teachers who teach only in English, or to the percent of teachers who teach in both Spanish and English.

College Attendance

As is shown in Table 40, there is a strong relationship between income and post-secondary education for those Spanish-surname youth who have completed high school. There is an equally strong relationship for Anglo youth.

Table 40

Relationship Between Rural High School Graduates' Family Income and Post-Secondary Education

Race	Education	Purchasing Power: Low		Purchasing Power: High		Totals	
Spanish-surname youth	High school graduate	106	(72%)	28	(42%)	134	(62%)
	Post-high school	42	(28%)	39	(58%)	81	(38%)
	Totals	148		67		215	
		$\chi^2 = 17.48$, df = 1; p = <.001					
Non-Spanish-surname youth	High school graduate	30	(50%)	25	(24%)	55	(33%)
	Post-high school	30	(50%)	80	(76%)	110	(67%)
	Totals	60		105		165	
		$\chi^2 = 11.79$, df = 1; p = <.001					

As in the case of dropping out of school, the important variable appears to be ethnicity, not income. Among those youths who come from families with sufficient income to afford some extras, a much higher proportion of Anglo than of Chicano high school graduates go on for further education (see Table 41).

Table 41

Proportion of Upper-Income Chicano and Anglo
High School Graduates Who Go On for Further Education

Ethnic Group	Further Education		Totals
	Yes	No	
Chicano	39 (58%)	28 (42%)	67
Anglo	80 (76%)	25 (24%)	105
Totals	119	53	172

$\chi^2 = 6.20$, df = 1; p = <.02

The combined effect of the income difference between Anglos and Chicanos, the difference in dropout rates among different Chicano and Anglo youths, and the difference in post-high school enrollment rates among affluent Chicanos and Anglos is that many more Anglos than Chicanos receive post-secondary education. This is shown in Table 42 -- 62 percent of the Anglo youths but only 29 percent of the Chicano youths in our sample received post-high school education.

Table 42

Relationship of Ethnicity to
Post-Secondary Education of Rural Youths

Post-Secondary Education	Ethnic Group				Totals
	Anglo		Chicano		
No	66	(38%)	195	(71%)	261
Yes	110	(62%)	81	(29%)	191
Totals	176		276		452

$\chi^2 = 48.41$, df = 1; p = <.001

A correlation exists between the amount that schools spend in educating their pupils and college attendance rates among the graduates of those schools. This relationship, which is summarized in Table 43, must be interpreted with caution. Expenditure per pupil in a school is closely related to the median family income of the county in which the school is located.

Table 43

Relationship Between Expenditures Per Pupil in Rural Schools and College Attendance of Youth Who Graduate From Those Schools

Race	Education	Expenditure Per Pupil				Totals
		LOW (Less than $500)		HIGH ($500 or more)		
Spanish-surname Youth	Attended College	24	(22%)	51	(34%)	75
	Did Not Attend College	86	(78%)	99	(68%)	185
	Totals	110		150		260
	$\chi^2 = 4.59$, df = 1; p = <.05					
Non-Spanish-Surname Youth	Attended College	40	(53%)	59	(76%)	99
	Did Not Attend College	35	(47%)	19	(24%)	54
	Totals	75		78		153
	$\chi^2 = 8.33$, df = 1; p = <.005					

Table 44 shows the very strong relationship between whether or not English is spoken in the home and college attendance. Spanish-surname rural youth who come from a home where English is spoken are more than twice as likely to go on to college as are comparable youth who come from a home where only Spanish is spoken.

Table 44

Relationship of College Attendance to Language Spoken in Home of Rural Spanish-Surname Youth

Language Spoken	Attended College		Totals
	Yes	No	
Spanish only	25 (18%)	115 (82%)	140
English only or English + Spanish	55 (40%)	83 (60%)	138
Totals	80	198	278

$\chi^2 = 16.41$, df = 1; p = <.001

For Chicano rural youth, there is a strong relationship between completion of a college preparatory course and college attendance. As shown in Table 45, there is no such significant relationships for Anglo rural youth. Thus, not only are Chicano rural youth much less likely than Anglos to be enrolled in college preparatory high school classes, but college attendance is much more closely related to having been in a college preparatory course among Chicanos than among Anglos.

Table 45

Relationship Between College Attendance and Completion of a College Preparatory Course of Education

Race	Course of Education	Attended College		Did Not Attend College		Totals
Spanish-Surname Youth	College Preparatory	28	(36%)	16	(11%)	44
	Other	50	(64%)	124	(89%)	174
	Totals	78		140		218
	$\chi^2 = 18.62$, df = 1; p = <.001					
Non-Spanish Surname Youth	College Preparatory	45	(47%)	15	(32%)	60
	Other	50	(53%)	32	(68%)	82
	Totals	95		47		142
	$\chi^2 = 3.08$, df = 1; not significant					

Participation in Federal Programs for Youth

Our previous research in rural areas has consistently found that federal programs that are available to rural youth are closely tied to the local educational system. No other institutions are available in most rural areas to provide the services and facilities that are required. As a consequence, from the student's viewpoint, the federal program is just another offering of the local school.

Almost none of the rural youths in our sample had participated in either MDTA or Job Corps. However, a substantial proportion of rural Chicano youths had participated in NYC. Table 46 shows that 37 percent of rural Spanish-surname youths had participated in NYC.

Table 46

Participation in NYC Among Rural Youth

Participated in NYC	Spanish-Surname				Totals, Spanish-Surname	Non-Spanish-Surname				Totals, Non-Spanish-Surname
	Noncollege		College			Noncollege		College		
	male	female	male	female		male	female	male	female	
yes	15 (32%)	60 (41%)	12 (29%)	15 (38%)	102 (37%)	0	4 (8%)	3 (8%)	2 (3%)	9 (5%)
no	32 (68%)	86 (59%)	29 (71%)	25 (62%)	172 (63%)	12 (100%)	47 (92%)	36 (92%)	66 (97%)	161 (95%)
Totals	47	146	41	40	274	12	51	39	68	170

The effects of NYC participation for rural Chicano youths are not clear. While a slightly smaller percentage of participants than of non-participants goes on to college, the difference is not significant (see Table 47).

Table 47

Relationship Between NYC Participation and College Attendance of Rural Spanish-Surname Youths

Education	Participated in NYC		Did Not Participate in NYC		Totals
Attended College	27	(26%)	54	(31%)	81
Did Not Attend College	75	(74%)	118	(69%)	193
Totals	102		172		274

$\chi^2 = .75$, df = 1; not significant

Rural youths who did not participate in MDTA, Job Corps or NYC programs were asked to give the most important reasons for their non-participation. Table 48 shows that unavailability of the programs was the most frequently checked reason for both Anglos and Chicanos. As might be expected, more Anglos than Chicanos were not able to qualify for a program because of family income level. Interestingly, only one individual checked either of the two reasons concerned with characteristics of the program -- "I didn't want to be in a program for poor people", or "I didn't like the people who ran the program". Thus, it would appear that the major reason for nonparticipation in these programs is that they are unavailable to many rural youth.

Table 48

Reasons Given by Rural Youths For Not Participating in MDTA, NYC or Job Corps

Most Important Reason For Not Participating:	Spanish-Surname Youth	Non-Spanish Surname Youth
I did not know about the program.	42 (15%)	27 (15%)
My family's income was too high.	27 (10%)	39 (22%)
The programs were not offered where I went to school.	62 (22%)	68 (39%)
I didn't want to be in a program for poor people.	0	0
I didn't like the people who ran the program.	1 (1%)	0
Other	31 (11%)	21 (12%)
Participated/No Answer	119 (42%)	19 (11%)
Totals	282	176

RURAL-TO- URBAN MIGRATION

Incidence

As in other parts of rural America, the rural Southwest is experiencing considerable outmigration, including its Spanish-surname population. Small towns and villages are losing large numbers of their Spanish-surname population to small metropolitan centers and major urban areas.

As Table 49 shows, at the time of the survey (seven years after 8th grade graduation), 72 percent of the rural Chicano youth had moved from their home county;* however, a larger percentage (87%) of Anglo youth had moved.

*In this study, the rural community is taken to be the entire county in which the subject's school is located. This definition allows much easier and more direct comparison between rural areas and reduces the confusion resulting from residence near but not within incorporated towns.

Table 9

Migration of Rural Youth 7 Years After 8th Grade Graduation

	Moved From Home County	Spanish-Surname		Totals Spanish-Surname	Non-Spanish-Surname		Totals Non-Spanish-Surname
		Male	Female		Male	Female	
All Rural Youth	No	19 (22%)	60 (31%)	79 (28%)	9 (17%)	14 (11%)	23 (13%)
	Yes	69 (78%)	133 (69%)	202 (72%)	45 (83%)	108 (89%)	153 (87%)
	Totals	88	193	281	54	122	176
Rural Youth Who Did Not Attend College	No	15 (32%)	57 (37%)	72 (36%)	2 (15%)	11 (21%)	13 (19%)
	Yes	32 (68%)	96 (63%)	128 (64%)	11 (85%)	41 (79%)	52 (80%)
	Totals	47	153	200	13	52	65
Rural Youth Who Attended College	No	4 (10%)	3 (8%)	7 (9%)	7 (17%)	3 (4%)	10 (9%)
	Yes	37 (90%)	37 (92%)	74 (91%)	34 (83%)	67 (96%)	101 (91%)
	Totals	41	40	81	41	70	111

For almost all rural youth, college attendance necessitates moving out of the home county. Rural Anglos are more than twice as likely to go on to college as are rural Chicanos (see Table 50). Among rural youth who attended college, identical percentages (9%) of Anglos and of Chicanos remained in their home county. However, the percentage of noncollege Chicanos who remained in their home county (36%) was nearly double the 20 percent of noncollege Anglos who remained ($\chi^2 = 5.76$, df = 1; p = <.02).

Table 50

College Attendance of Rural Youth

Attended College	Spanish-Surname			Non-Spanish-Surname		
	Male	Female	Totals, Spanish-Surname	Male	Female	Totals, Non-Spanish-Surname
No	47 (53%)	153 (79%)	200 (71%)	13 (24%)	52 (43%)	65 (37%)
Yes	41 (47%)	40 (21%)	81 (29%)	41 (76%)	70 (57%)	111 (63%)
Totals	88	193	281	54	122	176

Thus, the fact that proportionately more Anglos than Chicanos go to college, combined with the fact that noncollege Chicanos are more likely to remain in the home county than are noncollege Anglos, largely explains the much higher percentage of Chicanos who remain in their home county.

A sex difference is apparent in the proportion of each ethnic group which remains in the home county. For Chicanos, more females than males remain in their home county (22% vs. 31%); for Anglos, just the opposite is true (17% of the males and 11% of the females remain). Again, this difference may be related to college attendance. Table 50 shows that Anglo females are twice as likely to attend college as are Chicano females, while Table 49 shows that for noncollege females, Chicanos are almost twice as likely to remain in their home county as are Anglos.

Geographic Pattern of Migration

Previous research in rural areas has indicated that the wide wage differential between urban areas and rural areas is a major influence on rural outmigration. This research has demonstrated that even though entry-level wages in one rural county may be comparatively higher than in another rural county, urban entry-level wages overshadow both. Thus, rural-to-urban rather than rural-to-rural migration occurs. This evidence suggests the following hypothesis:

- Most rural outmigrants migrate to urban, rather than to rural, areas.

Table 51 shows that this hypothesis is strongly supported by the data. Only 11 percent of Chicano and 15 percent of Anglo noncollege rural youths who left their home county moved to another rural area; almost half moved to major cities. Within the population of Spanish-surname rural youth who moved from their home county, there is little difference in the destination of those who go on to college and those who do not. Similarly, there is little difference according to sex, except for a slight reversal in the tendency to move to small or medium-sized cities. Also, similar proportions of Anglo and Chicano rural youth moved to the various-sized cities.

In addition to the strong tendency to move to large cities, there is an even stronger tendency for rural youth from the Southwest to limit their rural-to-urban migration to the Southwest. As Table 52 shows, of the rural youth who moved out of their home county, only 5 percent of the Chicanos and 9 percent of the Anglos moved out of the Southwest and had not returned to the Southwest at the time of the survey. Chicanos seem somewhat less inclined to move out of the region than are Anglos.

Table 51

Rural-to-Urban Migration of Rural Youth

	Moved To:	Spanish-Surname		Totals, Spanish-Surname	Non-Spanish-Surname		Totals, Non-Spanish-Surname
		male	female		male	female	
All Rural Youths Who Moved From Home County	Other Rural Area	3 (4%)	15 (11%)	18 (9%)	3 (7%)	14 (13%)	17 (11%)
	Small City (pop. 5,000-24,999)	16 (23%)	21 (16%)	37 (18%)	8 (18%)	16 (15%)	24 (16%)
	Medium City (pop. 25,000-100,000)	13 (19%)	36 (27%)	49 (24%)	15 (33%)	28 (26%)	43 (28%)
	Large City (pop. over 100,000)	37 (54%)	61 (46%)	98 (49%)	19 (42%)	50 (46%)	69 (45%)
	Totals	69	133	202	45	108	153
Rural Youths Who Moved From Home County and Did Not Attend College	Other Rural Area	2 (6%)	12 (13%)	14 (11%)	2 (18%)	6 (15%)	8 (13%)
	Small City (pop. 5,000-24,999)	3 (9%)	16 (17%)	19 (15%)	2 (18%)	8 (20%)	10 (19%)
	Medium City (pop. 25,000-100,000)	8 (25%)	22 (23%)	30 (23%)	3 (27%)	9 (22%)	12 (23%)
	Large City (pop. over 100,000)	19 (59%)	46 (48%)	65 (51%)	4 (36%)	18 (44%)	22 (42%)
	Totals	32	96	128	11	41	52

Table 51

Rural-to-Urban Migration of Rural Youth
(Continued)

	Moved To:	Spanish-Surname		Totals, Spanish-Surname	Non-Spanish-Surname		Totals, Non-Spanish-Surname
		male	female		male	female	
Rural Youths Who Moved Away From Home and Did Attend College	Other Rural Area	1 (3%)	8 (12%)	9 (9%)	1 (3%)	3 (8%)	4 (5%)
	Small City (pop. 5,000-24,999)	6 (18%)	8 (12%)	14 (14%)	13 (35%)	5 (14%)	18 (24%)
	Medium City (pop. 25,000-100,000)	12 (35%)	19 (28%)	31 (31%)	5 (14%)	14 (38%)	19 (26%)
	Large City (pop. over 100,000)	15 (44%)	32 (48%)	47 (47%)	18 (49%)	15 (41%)	33 (45%)
	Totals	34	67	101	37	37	74

Table 52

Movement Out of Southwest of Rural Youth
Who Moved From Their Home County

Migration Patterns	Spanish-Surname		Totals, Spanish-Surname	Non-Spanish-Surname		Totals, Non-Spanish-Surname
	male	female		male	female	
Moved Away From Home County, But Remained in Southwest	61 (87%)	119 (89%)	180 (89%)	34 (76%)	84 (78%)	118 (77%)
Moved Out of Southwest But Returned to Southwest	7 (10%)	5 (4%)	12 (6%)	8 (18%)	13 (12%)	21 (14%)
Moved Out of Southwest And Stayed Out of Southwest	2 (3%)	9 (7%)	11 (5%)	3 (7%)	11 (10%)	14 (9%)
Totals	70	133	203	45	108	153

Factors Underlying Rural-to-Urban Migration Among Spanish-Surname Rural Youth

General Observations

At the time they answered the questionnaire for this study the youths in our sample were young adults who, if they stayed in school, would have graduated from high school three years previously. Of course, the vast majority of those who went on to college had to leave their rural home counties to do so. But even among the noncollege rural Spanish-surname youth, 64 percent had moved away from their home county at the time they answered the questionnaire, and 89 percent of these rural outmigrants had moved to an urban area. These rural-to-urban migrants were asked to indicate the "important" reasons for moving to a city. Table 53 presents the results.

For these noncollege youths, the most frequently cited factors are those related to employment, including the following:

"There were no jobs where I grew up"

"I could earn more money in a city"

"I could find a better job in the city"

Among noncollege males who moved to a city, Chicanos chose these three factors most frequently; for Anglos, these three are among the four most frequently cited reasons. The factor, "I wanted to get more education", was the second most frequently selected factor among those Anglos (the factor was fourth most frequently selected by Chicanos). Among college rural youth who moved to a city, of all categories, the desire to get more education predominates as the most important factor.

Table 53

Reasons Designated as "Important" for Moving to a City by Noncollege Rural-to-Urban Migrants

	Spanish-Surname		Non-Spanish-Surname	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Totals	48	153	13	52
Did not move to a city	21 (44%)	84 (55%)	8 (62%)	20 (38%)
Moved to a city	27 (56%)	69 (45%)	5 (38%)	32 (62%)
REASONS DESIGNATED AS "IMPORTANT" FOR MOVING TO A CITY, BY THOSE WHO MOVED TO A CITY				
There were no jobs where I grew up	18 (67%)	31 (45%)	2 (40%)	11 (34%)
I wanted to get more education	10 (37%)	23 (33%)	3 (60%)	13 (41%)
There was nothing to do for entertainment	10 (37%)	10 (14%)	2 (40%)	5 (16%)
My family moved	1 (4%)	7 (10%)	0	3 (9%)
I got married	6 (22%)	40 (58%)	1 (20%)	23 (72%)
I could earn more money in a city	17 (63%)	30 (43%)	2 (40%)	16 (50%)
I could find a better job in the city	15 (56%)	34 (49%)	4 (80%)	15 (47%)
Other	4 (15%)	3 (4%)	1 (20%)	0

Among the noncollege rural Spanish-surname youths in our sample there are marked sex differences in the factors that appear to underlie their move to the city. Rural-to-urban migration of the male is related to a number of environmental and economic characteristics of the rural county in which he grew up; these environmental and economic factors are not related to the migration pattern of the female. Rather, the migration patterns of rural Spanish-surname females are related to their personal characteristics and individual experiences.

Factors Affecting the Rural-to-Urban Migration of Spanish-Surname Males

Isolation of the Rural Community. There is a very strong relationship between the distance that a rural community is located from major metropolitan areas and whether or not young Chicano males leave that rural community to move to the city -- the more isolated the rural community the greater the outmigration. Of the Spanish-surname males in our noncollege sample, 86 percent of those who had grown up in rural counties that were located over 120 miles from a city of 100,000 population had left their home counties within three years after they [would have] graduated from high school. In contrast, as shown in Table 54, only 27 percent of those who grew up in rural counties located within 60 miles of a major metropolitan center had migrated from their home counties.

Table 54

Relationship Between Migration and Number of Miles From County Seat to a City of 100,000 and Over Population for Rural Spanish-Surname Males Who Did Not Attend College

Number of Miles From City of ≥ 100,000 Population	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
< 61 miles	3 (27%)	8 (73%)	11
61 - 120 miles	10 (63%)	6 (37%)	16
> 120 miles	18 (86%)	3 (14%)	21
Totals	31	17	48

$\chi^2 = 10.82$; df = 1; p = <.005

A similar relationship is reflected in another measure of isolation -- the number of television stations within 60 miles of the rural county. This relationship is shown in Table 55.

Table 55

Relationship Between Migration and Number of TV Stations Within 60 Miles of the County Seat for Rural Spanish-Surname Males Who Did Not Attend College

Number of TV Stations Within 60 Miles	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
none	10 (91%)	1 (9%)	11
1 - 3	18 (69%)	8 (31%)	26
> 3	3 (27%)	8 (73%)	11
Totals	31	17	48

$\chi^2 = 10.27$; df = 2; p = <.01

Although counties that are located far from a major metropolitan center tend to have a large proportion of Spanish-surname population, a low percent employed in manufacturing, a high percent employed in mining, small schools, and a number of other identifiable characteristics, none of these variables is strongly enough related to migration pattern to explain the relationship shown in Table 54.

Despite the very significant, strong relationship between rural isolation and outmigration among the young males, this relationship is nonexistent among females; those from isolated rural counties are no more likely to leave the county than are those from the least isolated rural counties.

Economic Variables. As discussed in an earlier section of this report, there is not a consistent relationship in the rural Southwest between the percent employed in manufacturing and the percent employed in agriculture. This inconsistency is reflected in Tables 56 and 57. There is a strong relationship between migration pattern among noncollege Spanish-surname males and the percent employed in manufacturing in the rural county in which they grow up. This relationship, which is shown in Table 56, is much more clear-cut than the relationship between migration pattern and the percent employed in agriculture. As is shown in Table 57, the highest outmigration rates among noncollege males are from those counties having either a very small percentage or a very large percentage employed in agriculture.

Table 56

Relationship Between Migration and Percentage of County Employed in Manufacturing for Rural Spanish-Surname Males Who Did Not Attend College

Percent Employed in Manufacturing	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
< 3.5 %	18 (82%)	4 (18%)	22
3.5 - 9.0%	9 (69%)	4 (31%)	13
> 9.0%	4 (31%)	9 (69%)	13
Totals	31	17	48

$\chi^2 = 9.48$; df = 2; p = <.01

Table 57

Relationship Between Migration and Percentage of County Employed in Agriculture for Rural Spanish-Surname Males Who Did Not Attend College

Percent Employed in Agriculture	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
< 13%	5 (83%)	1 (17%)	6
13 - 24%	9 (43%)	12 (57%)	21
> 24%	17 (81%)	4 (19%)	21
Totals	31	17	48

$\chi^2 = 7.72$; df = 2; p = <.025

Poverty and unemployment in the home counties of these rural youths do not have as strong a relationship to outmigration as might be anticipated. Among the noncollege Spanish-surname females we found no relationship between their migration pattern and these variables. Among the noncollege males there is a higher outmigration rate from rural counties with a high unemployment rate than in counties with a lower unemployment rate, as shown in Table 58. As would be expected, a similar relationship exists between migration pattern and the median income of Spanish-surname families in the rural county (see Table 59).

Table 58

Relationship Between Migration and Unemployment Rate in the County for Rural Spanish-Surname Males Who Did Not Attend College

Percent Unemployed in County	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
0 - 5.5%	14 (52%)	13 (48%)	27
> 5.5%	17 (81%)	4 (19%)	21
Totals	31	17	48

$\chi^2 = 4.37$; df = 1; p = <.05

Table 59

Relationship Between Migration and Median Income of Spanish-Surname Families in the County for Rural Spanish-Surname Males Who Did Not Attend College

Median Income of Spanish-Surname Families in County	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
$4,300	23 (74%)	8 (26%)	31
$4,300 & over	8 (47%)	9 (53%)	17
Totals	31	17	48

$\chi^2 = 3.53$; df = 1; not significant
[$\chi^2 = 3.84$ necessary for .05 level of significance]

Factors Related to Rural-to-Urban Migration of Noncollege Spanish-Surname Females

School Experiences. The Chicano girls who drop out of school are more likely to stay in their rural home counties than are those who complete high school. Table 60 shows that only 19 of the 45 school dropouts (42%) moved away from their home counties, whereas 61 percent of the high school graduates migrated.

Table 60

Relationship Between Migration and Level of Education for Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Did Not Attend College

Level of Education	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
0 - 8	1 (13%)	7 (87%)	8
9 - 11	18 (49%)	19 (51%)	37
12	65 (61%)	42 (39%)	107
Totals	84	68	152

$\chi^2 = 7.87$, $df = 2$, $p < .02$

As shown in Table 61, among the high school graduates, those who attend schools that have low expenditures per pupil are much less likely to migrate than those who attend schools with higher expenditures per pupil. Further analysis, however, did not unearth any single course or service provided by the schools with high expenditures that is not provided by those with low expenditures that would explain this relationship.

Nor are the geographic and socioeconomic differences among the counties in which these schools are located able to explain this relationship. However, there are a number of consistently positive, low-level correlations between the educational backgrounds of the teachers in these schools, the presence or absence of a guidance counselor and of employment related services which, together, might explain the relationship between the migration pattern and expenditure per pupil.

Table 61

Relationship Between Migration and Expenditure Per Pupil for Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Did Not Attend College

Expenditure Per Pupil	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
< $400	10 (34%)	19 (66%)	29
$400 and over	71 (62%)	44 (38%)	115
Totals	81	63	144

$\chi^2 = 6.99$; df = 1; p = <.01

Noncollege females who enroll in typing courses in high school are more apt to migrate than those who take no typing (Table 62); but if this typing experience is connected with enrollment in a commercial course for two or more years in high school, then the noncollege Spanish-surname female is more apt to stay in her rural community than to migrate, as is shown in Table 63.

Table 62

Relationship Between Migration and Number of Years of Typing Taken By Student for Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Did Not Attend College

Number Years of Typing Taken	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
none	6 (33%)	12 (67%)	18
1 or 2 years	71 (62%)	44 (38%)	115
Totals	77	56	133

$\chi^2 = 5.15$; df = 1; p = <.025

Table 63

Relationship Between Migration and Number of Years of Commercial Taken By Student for Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Did Not Attend College

Number Years of Commercial Taken	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
0 or 1	66 (62%)	41 (38%)	107
2 or more	10 (40%)	15 (60%)	25
Totals	76	56	132

$\chi^2 = 3.90$; df = 1; p = <.05

Marriage. Among rural noncollege females, a move to a city frequently follows marriage. For both Anglo and Chicano rural noncollege females who move to a city, the factor most often chosen as being important in influencing that move is "I got married". This factor is less frequently given as being important by males than by females; and less often by noncollege females than by college females. Table 64 shows that among the noncollege rural females in our Spanish-surname sample, 61 percent of those who were married at the time they answered the questionnaire had migrated from their rural community in contrast with only 39 percent of those who were not married.

Table 64

Relationship Between Migration and Marital Status
for Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Did Not Attend College

Married	Migrated				Totals
	Yes		No		
Yes	68	(61%)	44	(39%)	112
No	15	(39%)	23	(61%)	38
Totals	83		67		150

$\chi^2 = 5.18$; df = 1; p = <.025

Other Personal Experiences. Two other relationships to migration patterns were found which suggest that it is the more adventurous Spanish-surname girl who migrates to the city while her less adventurous peers remain in their rural home counties. Although there is no relationship between the migration pattern of these noncollege girls and the socio-economic conditions in their home county, those girls who work part-time while in high school are much more likely to leave the rural county than are those who do not work during their high school years (see Table 65).

Table 65

Relationship Between Migration and Part-Time Work While in High School for Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Did Not Attend College

Worked Part-Time While in High School	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
Yes	44 (71%)	18 (29%)	62
No	38 (48%)	42 (52%)	80
Totals	82	60	142

$\chi^2 = 7.88$; df = 1; p = <.005

Over one-third of these noncollege Spanish-surname females had never spent more than one day in a city of 10,000 population before they graduated from high school. Among these "nontravelers" only 37 percent had left their home county at the time of the survey, whereas 67 percent of those who had visited the city had left their home counties.

This relationship is shown in Table 66.

Table 66

Relationship Between Migration and Visiting a City of 10,000 or More Population for More Than One Day for Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Did Not Attend College

Visited City of ≥ 10,000 Population for > 1 Day	Migrated		Totals
	Yes	No	
No	18 (37%)	31 (63%)	49
Yes	64 (67%)	32 (33%)	96
Totals	82	63	145

$\chi^2 = 11.83$; df = 1; p = <.001

Social Adjustment of Rural-to-Urban Migrants

In speaking of the social adjustment of rural-to-urban migrant youths we are, of course, referring to the possible difficulty that these youths may have in adapting to the urban way of life. The social adjustment of those who remain in the rural environment presents no more problems than it would for those urban youths who remain in the urban environment. Because of the prevailing outmigration patterns of rural youth to urban settings, many of the people whom we interviewed believed that social adjustment is one of the important problems faced by rural youth today.

That many rural youths, particularly Anglo youths, experience difficulty in adjusting to city life is suggested by their unwillingness to stay in the city. As Table 67 shows, only 57 percent of the Chicanos and 43 percent of the Anglos who moved to a city still lived in a city at the time of the survey.

Table 67

Migration Pattern of Those Noncollege Rural Youths Who Had Moved to a City

Migration Pattern	Spanish-Surname		Non-Spanish-Surname		Totals
Stayed in the City	67	(57%)	19	(43%)	86
Returned to Home Rural County	42	(36%)	18	(41%)	60
Moved From City to Other Rural Area	9	(8%)	7	(16%)	16
Totals	118		44		162

Factors Related to Social Adjustment in the City

General Approach

Any detailed assessment of the social adjustment of rural-to-urban migrants is a difficult task. There are few measures of social adjustment which are not confounded by the very fact of moving from a rural to an urban setting. For example, the number of activities a youth participates in or the number of friends he interacts with may change as a factor of increased or decreased social adjustment. Yet, similar changes may occur merely because there are more (or fewer) activities or friends available.

Essentially, assessment of social adjustment of rural-to-urban migrants must depend on reaction of these youths to global questions about their satisfaction with urban life. Thus, discussion of adjustment in this section concerns questions about whether youths would choose to remain in the city if they could find work in the rural area, about the reasons they moved to a city, and, to some degree, about experiences they have had in the city.

Those rural youths who had moved to a city and had returned to a rural area were asked why they returned. Table 68 presents the reasons and the frequency with which each reason was checked as "important".

General dislike of city life seemed to be much more important for Anglo youths than for Chicanos. Thirty-six percent of Anglos and only 16 percent of Chicanos indicated that an important reason for moving back to the rural areas was "I don't like living in the city".

Table 68

Reasons Checked as "Important" for Returning
By Noncollege Rural-to-Urban Migrants Who Returned to Rural Area

Reason for Return to Rural Area:	Spanish-Surname		Non-Spanish-Surname	
My family wanted me to come home	13	(25%)	3	(12%)
Prices are too high in the city	8	(16%)	4	(16%)
I couldn't find a job	6	(12%)	4	(16%)
I was discriminated against because of my race	1	(2%)	0	
My family needed me at home	14	(27%)	1	(4%)
I don't like living in the city	8	(16%)	9	(36%)
I wanted to be nearer to my family	15	(29%)	10	(40%)
Other	11	(22%)	4	(16%)
Totals	51		25	

Economic Factors Affecting Adjustment to the City

Evidently economic pressures of city life were not especially important influences on decisions to return to the rural area; nor were they felt disproportionately by Anglo and Chicano youth. Sixteen percent of each group checked "Prices are too high in the city" as important; 12 percent of Chicanos and 16 percent of Anglos checked "I couldn't find a job" as important. Racial discrimination was also not especially important; only 2 percent of Chicanos indicated that racial discrimination in the city was an important factor in their decision to return to a rural area.

Family Ties in the Rural Community and Social Adjustment to the City

In general, family reasons were important. But it is interesting to note that the Chicano youths more often stated that their return to their rural homes was related to family presures -- "my family wanted me to come home" and "my family needed me at home" -- and the Anglo youths, that their return was of a more voluntary nature -- "I wanted to be nearer to my family".

Seventy-four percent of the Anglo and 77 percent of the Chicano noncollege rural-to-urban migrants said that they visited their home towns frequently. This would suggest that even those rural-to-urban migrants who do not return to the rural area to live still maintain strong ties to the home town.

Friends and Relatives in the City and Social Adjustment

Among the rural-to-urban migrants, 76 percent of Chicanos and 66 percent of Anglos moved to a city where friends or relatives already lived; among Chicanos, there was a relationship between this factor and remaining in the city (see Table 69); among those who moved to cities where they had no friend or relative, two-thirds did not stay in the city.

Table 69

Relationship Among Chicano Rural-to-Urban Migrants Between Moving to a City Where Friends or Relatives Lived and Remaining in the City

Migration Pattern of Chicano Rural-to-Urban Migrants	Moved to City Where Friends or Relatives Lived				Totals
	yes		no		
Remained in City	43	(61%)	7	(32%)	50
Returned to Rural Area	27	(39%)	15	(68%)	42
Totals	70		22		92

$\chi^2 = 5.92$, df = 1; $p < .025$

Among young migrants to the cities, more Anglo than Spanish-surname youths left to go back home. They were less apt to move to cities where they already had friends and, once there, did not make friends as easily (see Table 70).

Table 70

Number of Migrants, by Race, Who Made New Friends Easily in the City

Group	Made New Friends Easily				Totals
	yes		no		
Anglo	93	(81%)	22	(19%)	115
Spanish-Surname	140	(90%)	15	(10%)	155
Totals	233		37		270

$\chi^2 = 4.99$, df = 1; $p = <.05$

Labor Force Participation

Two hundred of the Chicano rural youths in our sample did not attend college. Of these noncollege youths, 2 males and 52 females neither held a job nor looked for one during the three-year period immediately preceding our survey. Since these youths did not seek work, the information that we obtained about them was of no value in determining which of the many factors that we studied were important determinants of the quality and quantity of work that the rural youth had been able to obtain during this period. However, failure to seek a job is, in itself, a form of occupational adjustment and it may be worthwhile to discuss the factors that we found to be associated with failure to participate in the labor force.

The number of males who failed to enter the labor force was too small to provide any reliable information. Therefore, the following observations relate only to female Spanish-surname subjects who did not attend a college.

About 30 percent of the girls who say that their families have enough money to provide some extras, including education, do not attend college. Of these noncollege girls from relatively high-income families, about one-fourth neither work nor actively seek a job during the three-year period following high school graduation. It does not matter whether they migrate or remain in the rural community; the percentage of labor force nonparticipants is approximately the same.

Among girls from families that can not afford any extras, however, those who want to work migrate to the city. Among these low-income, noncollege girls, only 12 percent of those who migrated did not participate in the labor force, whereas 34 percent of those who remained in their home town did not participate in the labor force (see Table 71).

Table 71

Labor Force Participation Among Migrant and Nonmigrant Rural Chicano Females Who Do Not Attend College

Rural-to-Urban Migrant	In the Labor Force		Totals
	Yes	No	
Yes	75 (88%)	10 (12%)	85
No	45 (66%)	23 (34%)	68
Totals	120	33	153

$\chi^2 = 11.59$; df = 1; p = <.001

Spanish-surname girls who graduate from high school participate in the labor force to a greater degree than do those who are not high school graduates. The proportion of dropouts who do not enter the labor force is approximately the same whether these dropouts move to the city or remain in the rural community. However, 95 percent of the female high school graduates in our sample who moved to the city, but only 71 percent of high school graduates who remained in their home community became members of the labor force. These relationships are summarized in Table 72.

Table 72

Labor Force Participation Among Young Rural Chicano Females Who Drop Out of School and Among Those Who Graduate From High School But Do Not Attend College

High School Graduate		In the Labor Force: Yes		In the Labor Force: No		Totals
All Chicano Females:	Yes	92	(86%)	15	(14%)	107
	No	27	(60%)	18	(40%)	45
	Totals	119		33		152
$\chi^2 = 12.58$; df = 1; p = <.001						
Migrant Females:	Yes	62	(95%)	3	(5%)	65
	No	12	(63%)	7	(37%)	19
	Totals	74		10		84
$\chi^2 = 11.648$; df = 1; p = <.001						
Nonmigrant Females:	Yes	30	(71%)	12	(29%)	42
	No	15	(58%)	11	(42%)	26
	Totals	45		23		68
$\chi^2 = 1.354$; df = 1; p = not significant						

Factors Affecting the Job Success of Labor Force Participants

Part-time Work While in High School

It is of particular interest to the purpose of this research that we study the effects of part-time work during high school on later occupational adjustment. The work experience component makes up a major portion of the NYC program and other Labor Department programs in which high school age youth might enroll. In previous studies of rural youth conducted in other parts of the country, we found that part-time work experience during the high school years was not beneficial to later occupational adjustment, and that work experience associated with participation in NYC tended to have a negative rather than a positive influence.

The results of the present study are somewhat similar to the results of these previous studies. Because of the relatively small numbers of youths who participate in NYC, a very large correlation coefficient between NYC participation and occupational adjustment scores[1/] is needed to attain statistical significance. The relationships that we observed, although large, were not quite large enough to attain statistical significance. Nevertheless, because of the relative importance of this issue, and the consistency with previous findings, these relationships are summarized below in Table 73. Among those Spanish-surname youths who remained in the rural community, NYC experience tended to have a negative influence on their employment scores. Of the six nonmigrant males who had participated in NYC, only one had a high score; of the eight who had not participated in NYC, seven had a high score. Among females, low occupational adjustment scores were obtained by 53 percent of those who had participated in NYC and by 36 percent of those who had not participated in NYC.

1/ See Appendix B for a detailed description of this Occupational Adjustment Score, which takes into account quality as well as quantity of employment.

Table 73

Relationship Between Occupational Adjustment Scores and NYC Participation Among Spanish-Surname Rural Youths

Group:	NYC Participation	Occupational Adjustment Score	
		0 - 139	>139
Male Rural-to-Urban Migrants	Yes	3 (33%)	6 (67%)
	No	13 (59%)	9 (41%)
Male Nonmigrants	Yes	5 (83%)	1 (17%)
	No	1 (13%)	7 (87%)
Female Rural-to-Urban Migrants	Yes	18 (51%)	17 (49%)
	No	13 (33%)	26 (67%)
Female Nonmigrants	Yes	9 (53%)	8 (47%)
	No	9 (36%)	16 (64%)

The NYC experience apparently had a differential effect for males and females if they decided to move to the city. Among the females the effect was negative -- 51 percent of NYC participants and only 33 percent of nonparticipants received low occupational adjustment scores. For males, however, only 33 percent of the NYC participants but 59 percent of the nonparticipants received low occupational adjustment scores.

These findings are in line with those that we found between part-time work experience while in high school and occupational adjustment.

Among Spanish-surname noncollege youths who did not migrate, the occupational scores of neither the males nor the females were significantly affected by whether or not they had worked part-time while they were in high school. Among the young Spanish-surname people who moved to the city, however, the males who had worked part-time while in high school obtained higher occupational adjustment scores than those who had not worked during high school, as is shown in Table 74. Among the females, working part-time in high school had only a minor negative correlation with occupational adjustment score when the cut-off score used for the male migrants was used. However, as shown in Table 75, the NYC experience had a significant negative correlation with the female migrant's ability to obtain a very high occupational adjustment score.

Table 74

Relationship, For Rural Spanish-Surname Males Who Migrated To An Urban Area and Did Not Attend College, Between Working Part-Time While in High School and Occupational Adjustment Score

Worked Part-time While in High School	Occupational Adjustment Score		Totals
	0 - 139	>139	
Yes	5 (29%)	12 (71%)	17
No	8 (80%)	2 (20%)	10
Totals	13	14	27

$\chi^2 = 4.59$; df = 1; p = <.05

Table 75

Relationship, For Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Migrated To An Urban Area and Did Not Attend College, Between Working Part-Time While in High School and Occupational Adjustment Score

Worked Part-time While in High School	Occupational Adjustment Score		Totals
	0 - 159	>159	
Yes	35 (85%)	6 (15%)	41
No	22 (65%)	12 (35%)	34
Totals	57	18	75

$\chi^2 = 4.35$; df = 1; p = <.05

One interesting aspect of the relationship between NYC and occupational adjustment is the possibility that among female Chicanos, NYC participation leads to later participation in the labor force. Although the relationship does not quite obtain statistical significance, ($\chi^2 = 3.24$, 1 df) 33 percent of the girls who did not participate in NYC, but only 13 percent of those who had participated in NYC, failed to participate in the labor force.

Rural to Urban Migration and Occupational Adjustment

The kind of jobs that Spanish-surname noncollege youths get if they move to the city are not much different from the jobs they would have obtained in the rural community except that the jobs pay more per hour. Migrant and nonmigrant youth did not differ in the degree to which they entered blue- or white-collar occupations, sales occupations or skilled trades. Neither the males nor females who migrated were employed for greater proportions of time or at higher skill levels than those who remained in the rural community.

In terms of income derived from the work that they did, the males who migrated were significantly better off than the males who remained in their home communities. Only 11 percent of the males who migrated had entry level wage rates of less than $1.50 per hour, but 47 percent of those who remained in the rural community had wage rates this low when they entered their first job. The female Spanish-surname youth does not have as much to gain occupationally by moving to the city. Forty-two percent of those who migrated had entry level salaries of less than $1.50 per hour, and 57 percent of those who remained in the rural community had entry level wages this low, a relationship which is not statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 2.17$ with 1 df). The relationship between entry level salary and rural-to-urban migration is shown in Table 76.

Table 76

Entry-Level Wages of Spanish-Surname Rural Youths by Sex and Migration Pattern

Sex	Rural-to-Urban Migrant	Entry-Level Wages Per Hour	
		0 - $1.50	> $1.50
Male	Yes	3 (11%)	25 (89%)
	No	7 (47%)	8 (53%)
$\chi^2 = 7.07$; df = 1; p = <.01			
Female	Yes	28 (42%)	39 (58%)
	No	20 (57%)	15 (43%)
$\chi^2 = 2.17$; df = 1; p = not significant			

Family Background and Occupational Adjustment

Although the NYC program is for youths from low-income families, we find a much more negative relationship between family income and occupational adjustment scores than we do between NYC participation and occupational adjustment score. Among noncollege females who migrate to the city, 51 percent of those who have been NYC participants have occupational adjustment scores of 139 or less. As shown in Table 77, however, 69 percent of those who come from families having incomes below $3,000 per year have occupational adjustment scores this low. Thus, the findings with respect to NYC having a negative relationship to employment may merely reflect the very strong influence of family income on occupational adjustment score. Actually, the results might be interpreted to mean that NYC is effective in overcoming part of the negative effects that poverty has on occupational adjustment.

Table 77

Relationship, For Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Migrated To An Urban Area and Did Not Attend College, Between Family Income and Occupational Adjustment Score

Family Income	Occupational Adjustment Score		Totals
	0 - 139	>139	
< $3,000	27 (69%)	12 (31%)	39
$3,000 and over	10 (25%)	30 (75%)	40
Totals	37	42	79

$\chi^2 = 15.51$; df = 1, p = <.001

An earlier section of this report (entitled "Use of Spanish Language") stated that 50 percent of the rural Spanish-surname youth in the sample were raised in homes where no English was spoken. That section also discussed the negative relationship between coming from such a home and IQ scores, class rank, extracurricular participation and college attendance. In general, those findings suggest that Spanish-surname youths who were raised in a home where only Spanish is spoken have a less satisfactory school experience than those whose parents speak some English in the home.

Despite these findings, there is little to suggest a relationship between language spoken in the home and occupational adjustment among non-college rural youth. There is no significant relationship between language spoken in the home and either occupational adjustment scores or entry level wages. Thus, although a disadvantage results from growing up in a home where English is not spoken, this disadvantage is reflected in lower school performance and a tendency not to go to college but has no apparent effect on the occupational adjustment of those who choose not to go on to college.

School Variables and Occupational Adjustment

Most of the literature on the education of Spanish-surname youths is concerned with the effectiveness of bilingual educational programs in overcoming language problems. We have hypothesized that:

- Those Spanish-surname rural youths who are enrolled in biligual education programs will make a better occupational and social adjustment than those who are not enrolled in such programs.

For the males in our sample we found no significant difference in occupational adjustment scores of those who attended schools where biligual courses were and were not offered.

Among females who migrate to the city the hypothesis appears to be a valid one. Of those who attended schools in which less than 10 percent of the teachers taught any of their courses bilgually, only 15 percent attained high occupational scores; 47 percent of those who attended schools where over 40 percent of the teachers taught in two languages attained high scores. This relationship is shown in Table 78.

Table 78

Relationship, For Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Migrated To An Urban Area and Did Not Attend College, Between the Proportion of Teachers Who Taught Bilingual Courses and Occupational Adjustment Score

Proportion of Teachers Who Teach Bilingual Courses	Occupational Adjustment Score						Totals
	0 - 99		100 - 159		>159		
>40%	1	(6%)	8	(47%)	8	(47%)	17
10 - 40 %	3	(10%)	20	(69%)	6	(21%)	29
<10%	8	(30%)	15	(55%)	4	(15%)	27
Totals	12		43		18		73

$\chi^2 = 10.33$; df = 4; p = <.05

In an earlier section of this report we pointed out that among the rural Spanish-surname females in our sample those who had taken typing were more likely to move to the city than those who had not taken typing. The highest occupational adjustment scores among those females who migrated to the city, however, were attained by those who had taken no more than one year of typing courses, as is shown in Table 79.

Table 79

Relationship, For Rural Spanish-Surname Females Who Migrated To An Urban Area and Did Not Go To College, Between the Number of Years of Typing Taken by the Student and Occupational Adjustment Score

No. Years Typing Taken By Student	Occupational Adjustment Score		Totals
	0 - 159	>159	
0 - 1	23 (68%)	11 (32%)	34
2 or more	29 (88%)	4 (12%)	33
Totals	52	15	67

$\chi^2 = 3.94$; df = 1; p = <.05

Careful analysis of the data on male Spanish-surname migrants to the city showed that several apparent relationships between educational variables and occupational adjustment scores for this group were deceptive; the correlations could be explained by the fact that about one-fourth of the total male noncollege migrant population came from one school. This school is located in an isolated, predominantly Spanish-surname county where the expenditure per pupil is less than $400. Moreover, the school offers a job placement service but no OJT program, no occupational familiarization course, no vocation day/career night and no field trips. The scores of 5 of the 7 migrants who attended this school were among the lowest 7 occupational adjustment scores that were obtained from the migrant males.

As might be expected, the largest proportion of the Spanish-surname youths who go on to college are from the top 25 percent of their high school class. Less than 10 percent of the noncollege youths were in the top 25 percent of their high school class. Even so, there is a significant relationship, shown in Table 80, between high school class rank and the occupational adjustment scores of noncollege rural youths.

Table 80

Relationship Between the Occupational Adjustment Scores Obtained by Noncollege Spanish-Surname Rural Youths and Their Class Rank in High School

Class Rank	Occupational Adjustment Score				
	0 - 139		>139		Not in Labor Force
Top 25%	0		6	(100%)	(0)
Middle 50%	24	(39%)	38	(61%)	(7)
Lowest 25%	21	(62%)	13	(38%)	(4)
Class Rank Not Available	(27)		(37)		(24)

$\chi^2 = 9.767$; df = 2; p = <.01

Geographic Isolation

Table 81 shows that, in general, a Chicano youth from a very isolated county adjusts less well occupationally than one from a less-isolated county. If he stays at home, he has little chance of being employed regularly in a job at his highest skill level; if he migrates to the city, he does less well than his peers who move to the city from less-isolated rural counties.

Table 81

Occupational Adjustment Scores of Spanish-Surname Rural Youths Who Grew Up In Communities Located Varying Distances From a City of 100,000 or More Population

Group	Distance of Home County From Major City in Miles	Occupational Adjustment Score			
		0 - 139		>139	
Rural-to-Urban Migrants	0 - 60	6	(33%)	12	(67%)
	61 - 120	19	(43%)	25	(57%)
	>120	22	(50%)	22	(50%)
	$\chi^2 = 1.48$; df = 2; p = not significant				
Nonmigrants	0 - 60	3	(18%)	14	(82%)
	61 - 120	11	(44%)	14	(56%)
	>120	11	(61%)	7	(39%)
	$\chi^2 = 6.89$; df = 2; p = <.05				

Discrimination and Segregation from Anglo Society

A recurrent theme throughout the literature and the interviews we conducted was discrimination against Mexican-Americans in employment, place of residence, schooling, and the administration of justice. On this basis, it was hypothesized that:

- More Spanish-surname youth than comparable non-Spanish-surname youth report feelings of discrimination, and difficulty in finding a job because of discrimination.

Tables 82, 83 and 84 show that the data support the first half of this hypothesis but not the second half. Table 82 shows a significant difference between Anglo and Chicano rural youth in the degree to which they feel that Anglos and Chicanos have an equal chance of getting jobs. Over half (57 percent) of the Anglos but only 39 percent of the Chicanos feel that both groups have an equal chance at getting jobs; over half (57 percent) of the Chicanos but less than one-third (30 percent) of the Anglos feel that Anglos have a better chance of getting jobs.

However, Tables 83 and 84 suggest that the beliefs recorded in Table 18 are not borne out in the experience of those rural youths who have had trouble finding a job. Table 83 shows that a fairly large proportion (22 percent) of Anglos and a significantly larger proportion (39 percent) of Chicanos report difficulties in finding work. However, almost no one in either group attributes these difficulties to discrimination because of race.

Table 82

Degree to Which Rural Youth Feel that Anglos and Chicanos Have Equal Chance to Get Jobs

"Do you think Chicanos and Anglos have an equal chance of getting jobs?"	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Yes - they have equal chance	103	(39%)	97	(57%)	200
No - Anglo has better chance	149	(57%)	50	(30%)	199
No - Chicano has better chance	11	(4%)	22	(13%)	33
Totals	263		169		432

$\chi^2 = 34.27$, df = 2; p = <.001

Table 83

Degree to Which Rural Youth Expressed Difficulty in Finding Work

Have you had a hard time finding work over the past few years?	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Yes	111	(39%)	38	(22%)	149
No	171	(61%)	138	(78%)	309
Totals	282		176		458

$\chi^2 = 15.59$, df = 1; p = <.001

Table 84

Degree to Which Those Rural Youth Who Have Had Trouble Finding Work Said They Were Discriminated Against in Employment Because of Their Race

Rural youth who have had trouble finding work:	Spanish-surname youths		Non-Spanish-surname youths		Totals
Report racial discrimination in employment	6	(5%)	1	(3%)	7
Do not report racial discrimination in employment	105	(95%)	37	(97%)	142
Totals	111		38		149

$\chi^2 = 0.49$, df = 1; p = not significant

Table 84 shows only 5 percent of Chicanos and 3 percent of Anglos who had trouble finding work said they were discriminated against in employment because of race.

Thus, while many rural youths believe that Anglos and Chicanos are not treated equally in the job market, these seem to be abstract convictions: those rural youths who have had trouble finding work do not attribute their lack of success to racial discrimination.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

The Population that Needs to be Served

The NYC program in the rural Southwest has concentrated its efforts on low-income Spanish-surname youths. The results of the present study suggest that, with this population, the NYC program has had limited success. That is, Chicano youths from poor families who have had the NYC experience appear to be only slightly less disadvantaged when they become young adults than are poor Chicano youths who do not participate in NYC. Thus it would seem that modifications are needed in the NYC approach toward alleviating the problems of this group.

It is apparent however that, if the objective of a program for rural youth is to aid disadvantaged youths in making an adequate adjustment to the modern world, then surely the results of the present study indicate a definite need for a modified program that will serve a broader population. Rural youths who come from homes in which only Spanish is spoken are at a distinct disadvantage in making an adequate adjustment to school regardless of whether their family is poor or rich. Rural youths who grow up in counties that are very isolated from urban centers are at a disadvantage occupationally whether they come from high-income families, low-income families, Spanish-speaking families or English-speaking families.

The needs of Spanish-surname rural youths in the Southwest are poverty-related to be sure. But, added to the problems posed by poverty is a set of unfortunate circumstances in which the Spanish-surname rural youth has little choice but to migrate from his home community to an unfamiliar urban setting for which he is ill-prepared by the institutions in his home community. In part, the failure of the existing institutions in preparing these youths for entry into college or into the urban world of work is a communication breakdown based on a language barrier.

It appears that the concept of "disadvantaged", as currently defined, is simplistic when applied to Spanish-surname youths who grow up in rural areas. "Disadvantaged" for this group is as much related to isolation and to language difficulties as it is to low income. Guidelines for selection of participants in DOL-sponsored programs for Chicano rural youths and possibly for Spanish-surname participants in other rural manpower programs which are aimed at the "disadvantaged" should be flexible enough to adapt the definition of "disadvantaged" to fit the social, economic, and geographic circumstances in the area being served.

Problems associated with the mass outmigration of youths from the rural counties in the Southwest affect all kinds of young people -- Spanish-surname and Anglo; poor and rich; college-bound and school dropouts. The results of this study suggest, however, that the problems of outmigration are particularly severe for youths from low-income families, youths who have dropped out of school, and youths from the most isolated rural counties. Low family income is, therefore, one of the more useful indicators of the need for assistance through a program for rural youth; but various indices of isolation, both physical and social, of language difficulties, and of poor educational achievement are equally good indicators of the need for assistance from a youth program.

The Objectives of the Program for Spanish-Surname Rural Youth

The large number of school dropouts among Spanish-surname youths in rural areas may well be the most important problem to be dealt with by any program designed to meet the needs of rural Spanish-surname youths. The need for an out-of-school program or a training-in-industry program is obvious. Equally obvious is the need to supplement the services being offered by the educational institutions in these rural communities in a manner that will prevent this high percentage of dropouts from occurring. The results of the present research do not provide many insights as to how this can best be done. The results do suggest, however, that the dropout problem could probably be alleviated through a program that incorporates

income supplements through part-time work experience, occupational familiarization and occupational counseling in those schools that do not offer these services, and an emphasis on making contacts possible between the youths and Spanish-speaking adults who are associated in some way in the minds of these youths with the existing school system. This suggests that the program for Spanish-surname rural youths should be working closely with the school system. In those schools that do not have Spanish-speaking staff, the rural youth program should supplement the offerings of the school through program-supported Spanish-speaking counselors and Spanish-speaking teachers of special courses designed to fill relevant gaps in the existing curriculum -- courses in urban living or in skills training, for example.

There is no real reason that the assumption has to be made that part-time jobs are beneficial, in themselves, in order to justify a part-time work experience component as part of the rural youth program. The part-time job can be used as a vehicle for introducing job familiarization, vocational counseling, urban familiarization, and other activities that are relevant either to occupational adjustment or adjustment to urban living. Very importantly, work experience may be the only way that is acceptable to rural leaders to provide income supplements to these young people.

Preparation for Urban Living

One of the problems most obviously neglected by past programs for rural youth is the need to prepare rural youth for urban living. The migration pattern itself and the adjustment problems that are associated with it are a major problem for most Spanish-surname youths who grow up in rural areas.

This is not to suggest that a program designed for Chicano rural youth should commit itself to encouraging these youths to migrate to the city. On the other hand, any program for Spanish-surname rural youth cannot ignore the overwhelming evidence that most of its participants

will eventually move to the city and that, of those who move to a city, a large proportion will not adjust well. They need some form of preparation for their rural-to-urban transition. There is little evidence that the existing rural institutions, such as the schools, churches and other traditional structures, are adequately performing this function.

Recommendations

The findings of this study show that the needs of Spanish-surname rural youths overlap those of rural youths in other sections of the country. The problems posed by leaving their rural home communities and moving to the city places all rural youths, particularly those from the more isolated rural counties, at a disadvantage in the job market.

To the extent that these rural youths have rural-to-urban migration problems in common with rural youths from the North Central states, the program that was developed for rural youths in the North Central states[1/] is appropriate for Spanish-surname rural youths. However, this program should be modified to place more emphasis on the work experience component, the out-of-school program, and specific skill training. Also, the rural youth program for Spanish-surname youths should have a strong emphasis on bilingualism, particularly in those program components that are provided through the local school system.

1/ Miles, G. H., "Guidelines for an Experimental Rural Youth Program for the North Central States", prepared for the Manpower Administration, U. S. Department of Labor (1971).

APPENDIX A

LIST OF HYPOTHESES TESTED

APPENDIX A

LIST OF HYPOTHESES TESTED

1. Most rural youth of Spanish-surname move away from their home county within three years after high school graduation.

2. Of the rural youth of Spanish-surname who move away from their home county, the majority move to large metropolitan areas.

3. More Spanish-surname youth than comparable non-Spanish-surname youth report feelings of discrimination, and difficulty in finding a job because of discrimination.

4. Rural youths are not able to find suitable employment in their home community and have to migrate to urban areas to get a job.

5. The proportion of rural youths who leave the rural community is related to the age structure of the community: the older the average age, the larger the percentage of outmigrant rural youths.

6. The opportunity for high-school-age rural youths to obtain part-time nonfarm work is inversely proportional to the distance from a metropolitan center.

7. The opportunity for part-time nonfarm employment is directly related to the size of the town in which the rural youth lives.

8. The proportion of rural youths who have had part-time nonfarm work experience is inversely related to the average age of the population in the county.

9. Proportionately more Anglo than Spanish-surname youths have had part-time nonfarm jobs during high school.

10. Rural children from low-income families have had less opportunity for part-time nonfarm employment than those from higher-income families.

11. Spanish-surname rural youth from relatively poor families are more likely to be poor themselves (unemployed or in low-income jobs) than are similar youth from families that are relatively better off.

12. There is a stronger relationship among Spanish-surname youth than among Anglo youth between family income and completing high school.

13. There is a stronger relationship among Spanish-surname youth than among Anglo youth between family income and post-secondary education.

14. Among rural youths who do not attend college, the tendency to migrate to urban areas is inversely related to family income.

15. Spanish-surname rural youth are employed in lower-paying jobs than Anglo rural youth.

16. Chicano youths from rural areas are employed in lower-paying jobs than Chicano youths from small cities.

17. Rural youths who migrate to the city are employed in higher-paying jobs than those who remain in the rural area.

18. Outmigration among rural youth occurs with equal frequency in counties with comparatively high and with comparatively low entry-level wage rates.

19. Most rural outmigrants migrate to urban, rather than to rural, areas.

20. Standard IQ measures yield a lower average score for Spanish-surname youths than for Anglo youths.

21. In schools where standard IQ measures are used, Spanish-surname youths rank lower in their class than in schools where such measures are not used.

22. Spanish-surname youth who attend schools where the Spanish language and Chicano culture are suppressed do not make as good an occupational and social admustment as similar youth who attend schools which encourage Spanish language and Chicano culture.

23. Those Spanish-surname rural youth who are enrolled in bilingual education programs make a better occupational and social adjustment than those who are not enrolled in such programs.

24. There is a positive relationship between a rural Spanish-surname youth's occupational adjustment and the expenditure per pupil in his high school.

25. There is a negative relationship between a rural Spanish-surname youth's occupational adjustment and the student-teacher ratio in his high school.

26. Rural Spanish-surname youth who attend schools with a relatively high proportion of Spanish-surname teachers will make a better occupational and social adjustment than those who attend schools with a relatively low proportion of Spanish-surname teachers.

27. There is a positive relationship between the degree of training of teachers in a school and the occupational adjustment of Spanish-surname youth who attended that school.

28. There is a positive relationship between the amount of teaching experience of teachers in a school and the occupational adjustment of Spanish-surname youth who attended that school.

29. For those Spanish-surname rural youth who migrate to a city, there is a positive relationship between their occupational and social adjustment and the degree to which their teachers have experienced city living.

30. Spanish-surname rural youth who attended a school where a relatively high proportion of teachers were certified make a better occupational and social adjustment than those who attend schools where that proportion is relatively low.

31. Spanish-surname rural youth who attend schools where a relatively high proportion of teachers speak Spanish make a better occupational and social adjustment than those who attend schools where that proportion is relatively low.

32. Rural Spanish-surname youth who attended a school where Chicano history and culture were taught make a better occupational and social adjustment than those who attended a school where Chicano history and culture were not taught.

33. For rural Spanish-surname youth who do not go on to college, the presence or absence of a trained counselor in their school is not related to occupational adjustment.

34. Rural Spanish-surname youth who graduate from a school having no trained counselor are less apt to go on to college than those who graduate from schools having such counselors.

35. Rural Spanish-surname youth who attend a high school having no trained counselor are no less apt to drop out of school than those who attend a high school having such a counselor.

36. There is a positive relationship between the occupational adjustment of Spanish-surname rural youth from a particular school and the degree to which that school provided occupational information to its students.

37. More Spanish-surname than Anglo rural youth drop out during high school.

38. Spanish-surname rural youth who drop out of school are more likely to leave their home communities than those who do not drop out.

39. Spanish-surname rural youth who drop out of school make a poorer occupational adjustment than those who do not drop out.

40. The extent of the outmigration of noncollege-bound youth from a rural county is related to median family income in that county.

41. There is no difference between the outmigration rates of farm and nonfarm Spanish-surname youth from the same rural counties.

42. The tendency for rural youth to migrate from a rural community is proportional to the lack of essential facilities -- hospitals, medical doctors, dentists, opticians, and pharmacists -- in the community.

43. The outmigration rate among rural youth is inversely proportional to the availability of recreational facilities -- movie theaters, bowling alleys, swimming pools, adequate television reception, supper clubs, and golf courses -- in a community.

44. Among rural Spanish-surname high school graduates who do not attend college, the tendency to migrate to urban areas is positively related to high school grades.

45. Rural migrants to large cities do not differ significantly from the same age and ethnic group of urban migrants to large cities in level of education.

46. Youths from rural areas who migrate to large metropolitan areas have greater adjustment problems than youths from small cities who migrate to large urban areas.

47. More rural-to-urban than urban-to-urban migrant youth continue to rely heavily on their home community for social adjustment.

48. More rural-to-urban than urban-to-urban migrant youths experience difficulty in making friends in the city.

49. More rural-to-urban than urban-to-urban migrant youth report a desire to return to their home communities.

50. Spanish-surnamed rural-to-urban migrants who have worked as migrant agricultural laborers make a better social adjustment to city life than similar youth who have not worked as migrant laborers.

51. Spanish-surname rural males are more apt than are rural Spanish-surname girls to return to their home towns after a period of trying to make a living in the city.

52. The degree to which rural youths experience social adjustment problems when they move to the city will be directly related to the relative isolation of the communities from which they come.

53. The social adjustment of an individual is directly related to the extent of his participation in extracurricular activities at school.

54. Social adjustment problems among rural youths who move to the city are less severe for those who have had some previous experience in living in the city.

55. Social adjustment problems among rural youths who move to the city are less severe for those who have visited several major cities where they have spent one or more days.

56. Social adjustment problems among rural youths who move to the city are less severe for those who have participated in school activities that included regularly scheduled trips to a city.

57. Social adjustment problems among rural youths who move to the city are less severe for those who regularly visited a city to do the family shopping.

58. Social adjustment problems among rural youths who move to the city are less severe for those who lived in a county having adequate public transportation connecting the county with urban centers.

59. Rural youths from poor families participate less frequently than other rural youths in extracurricular activities.

60. More Chicano than Anglo rural-to-urban migrant youth report interpersonal problems in connection with occupational adjustment.

APPENDIX B

THE OCCUPATIONAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE

APPENDIX B

THE OCCUPATIONAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE

The tests of several hypotheses make use of an employment score for each subject for the three years between June 1968 and June 1971. This measure was used with only the noncollege youths, since any measure of employment adjustment for college students is neither meaningful nor relevant to the purposes of the present study.

A complete employment history was obtained for each youth for the period between June 1968 and June 1971 (including periods of unemployment). Each respondent also indicated the highest skill level job he had ever held. This work history was scored, by a system developed in an earlier study*, to obtain an employment score -- called the "Occupational Adjustment Score". This scoring system takes into account quality as well as quantity of employment, and automatically prorates the scores for those periods of time in which the subject was unemployed but not looking for work. Every noncollege subject was assigned an occupational adjustment score, using this scoring system.

Those noncollege subjects who were not employed at any time between June 1968 and June 1971 and who had not looked for work at any time during this period were set aside as nonparticipants in the labor force. Their Occupational Adjustment Scores do not enter into any of the tables in this report.

---

*Miles, C. H., "Preliminary Phase: Effects of Vocational Training and Other Factors on Employment Experience", prepared for the Office of Manpower, Automation and Training; U. S. Department of Labor (1966).

Scoring System Used to Rate the Employment History of Each Individual in the Sample (Scores Range From 0 to 180)

3-year employment score:	No. of Months		Score
- fully employed at highest skill level	_____	x 5 =	_____
- fully employed in seasonal occupation at highest skill level and did not seek other employment in off season	_____	x 4 =	_____
- part-time at highest skill level and did not desire full-time employment	_____	x 4 =	_____
- unemployed and did not desire employment	_____	x 4 =	_____
- fully employed but not at highest skill level	_____	x 3 =	_____
- fully employed in seasonal occupation at less than highest skill level and did not seek other employment in off season	_____	x 2 =	_____
- part-time at highest skill level but desired full-time	_____	x 2 =	_____
- part-time at less than highest skill level; did not desire full-time	_____	x 2 =	_____
- part-time at less than highest skill level and desired full-time	_____	x 1 =	_____
- unemployed; desired employment	_____	x 0 =	0
Total	36	months	
GRAND TOTAL			_____

APPENDIX C

DATA FORMS

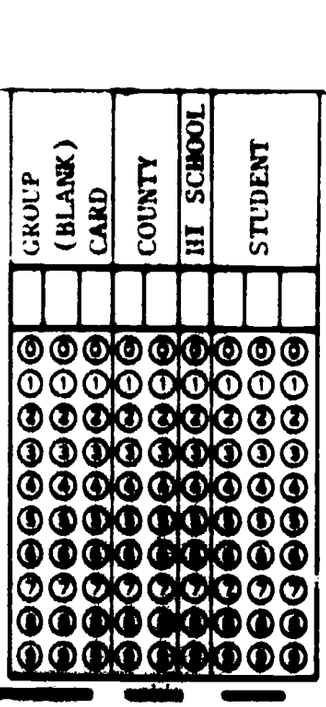
5. [illegible]
   - O [illegible]
   - O [illegible]
   - O [illegible]
   - O [illegible]

6. [illegible]
   - O [illegible]
   - O [illegible]
   - O [illegible]
   - O [illegible]

11. Median [illegible] Spanish-surname pop.:
   - O 19.2
   - O 21.0
   - O [illegible]

12. Percentage of Spanish-surname pop. age 15-24:
   - O 18.7
   - O 11.0
   - O [illegible]

13. [illegible] Spanish-surname pop. over age 64:
   - O 7.0
   - O 8.0
   - O [illegible]



IMPORTANT DIRECTIONS

1. Use black lead pencil only (No 2 or softer)
2. Make heavy black marks that fill the circle completely
3. Erase cleanly any answers you want to change
4. Make no stray marks on this answer sheet

Examples of IMPROPER marks ◐○○ ○●○ ○○●

Examples of PROPER marks ●○○ ○●○ ○○●

1. Was high school accredited in 1967-68?
   - ○ yes
   - ○ yes - probational or provisional
   - ○ no
   - ○ no answer

4. Number of pupils - 10 to 12:
   - ○ <60
   - ○ 60-99
   - ○ 100-199
   - ○ >199
   - ○ no answer

4/6. Number of high school students/high school teacher:
   - ○ <25
   - ○ 25-30
   - ○ >30
   - ○ no answer

12. Expenditure per pupil:
   - ○ <$400
   - ○ $400-$499
   - ○ $500-$699
   - ○ >$699
   - ○ no answer

13. Curricula:

	A. English-	B. Math (Algebra)-	C. Math (Shop)-	D. Social Studies-	E. Home Economics-
○ 0	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more
○ 1	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer
○ 2					

Curricula:

	F. Science-	G. Typing-	H. Business Machines-	I. Commercial-	J. Spanish-
○ 0	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more
○ 1	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer
○ 2					

	K. Foreign Language (other than Spanish)-	L. Music-	M. Art-	N. Vocational Agriculture-	O. Vocational Shop-	P. Industrial Arts	Q. Mexican-American culture/ history-
○ 0	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more	○ 3 or more
○ 1	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer	○ no answer
○ 2							

17. Did high school have bilingual classes?
   - ○ yes
   - ○ no
   - ○ no answer

18. Did high school prohibit speaking of Spanish?
O yes O no answer
O no

19. Did high school have on-the-job training or work study programs?
O yes O no answer
O no

20. Were occupational familiarization courses offered?
O yes O no answer
O no

21. School had "Career Night"/"Vocation Day"
O yes O no answer
O no

22. School sponsored field trips?
O yes O no answer
O no

23. School had job placement service.
O yes O no answer
O no

24. Number of extra-curricula activities offered by high school:
O none O >9
O 1-5 O no answer
O 6-9

27. School had specialists:
a. Speech correction teacher
O yes O no answer
O no
b. Remedial reaching teacher
O yes O no answer
O no
c. Guidance counselor
O yes O no answer
O no
f. Social Worker
O yes O no answer
O no
g. Special education teacher
O yes O no answer
O no
h. School psychologist
O yes O no answer
O no

28. High school used standardized achievement tests:
O yes O no answer
O no

29. High school used interest inventories:
O yes
O no
O no answer

30. High school used intelligence tests:
O yes
O no
O no answer

TEACHER FORM (W-280-2)

3. School counselor
O none replied
O part-time counselor replied
O full-time counselor replied
O more than one part-time counselor replied
O more than one full-time counselor replied
O no answer

4. Average number of years taught:
O 0 O >10
O 1-4 O no answer
O 5-10

5. Proportion for whom this is the 1st school taught in.
O <31% O >39%
O 31-39% O no answer

6. Proportion with city living experience:
O <34% O >50%
O 34-50% O no answer

7. Proportion who have taught in a city
O none O >10%
O 1-10% O no answer

9. Proportion fully certified:
O <100% O no answer
O 100%

10B-a. Proportion with no degree:
O none O >10%
O 1-10% O no answer
-b. Proportion with Bachelor's degrees:
O <51% O >69%
O 51-69% O no answer
-c. Proportion with Master's or specialist degrees:
O none O >49%
O 1-29% O no answer
O 30-49%

-d. Number with doctor's degrees:
- ○ none
- ○ 1 or more
- ○ no answer

-e. Proportion with post-graduate work not leading to a degree:
- ○ none
- ○ 1-10%
- ○ >10%
- ○ no answer

11. Proportion who took any Mexican/Mexican-American coursework in college:
- ○ none
- ○ 1-15%
- ○ 16-25%
- ○ >25%
- ○ no answer

12. Proportion who are Spanish:
- ○ none
- ○ 1-10%
- ○ 10-30%
- ○ >30%
- ○ no answer

13. Proportion who speak Spanish:
- ○ none
- ○ 1-5%
- ○ 6-25%
- ○ >25%
- ○ no answer

14C-1. Proportion who teach entirely in English:
- ○ <60%
- ○ 60-90%
- ○ >90%
- ○ no answer

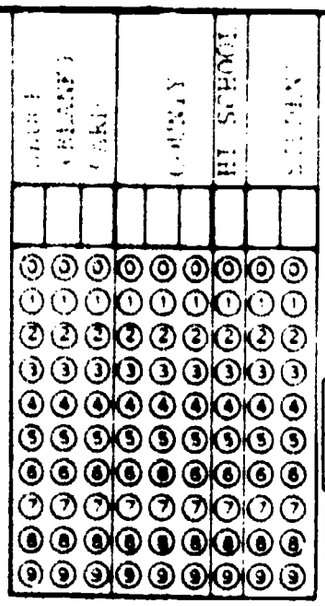
2. Proportion who teach in both English and Spanish:
- ○ none
- ○ 1-10%
- ○ >10%
- ○ no answer

14D. Proportion who teach any of the 4 topics:
- ○ none
- ○ 1-25%
- ○ 26-40%
- ○ >40%
- ○ no answer

15a. Counselor was trained (if no counselor replied, see Q. 27e on the school form; if "yes", count as a trained counselor.)
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ no counselor replied
- ○ no answer

15b. Number of students per counselors replying.
- ○ <300
- ○ 300-450
- ○ >450
- ○ no counselor replied.
- ○ no answer

INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL BACKGROUND FORM (W280-2)



IMPORTANT DIRECTIONS

1. [illegible]
2. Mark only one mark for each question.
3. [illegible]
4. Make only dark marks that fill the space between the lines.

Examples of IMPROPER marks

Examples of PROPER marks

EXTRA:

Size of home town:

- farm
- 250
- 250-999
- 1000-2500
- 2500
- no answer

Course of study:

- college prep
- commercial
- vocational shop
- general
- industrial arts
- no answer

Curricula: C. Math (shop)

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more
- no answer

F. Home Economics

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more
- no answer

I. Typing

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more
- no answer

M. Business Machines

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more
- no answer

P. Commercial

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more
- no answer

S. Spanish

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more
- no answer

U. Vocational ag.

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more
- no answer

Curricula: P. Vocational Educ.

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more
- no answer

Q. Industrial Arts

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more
- no answer

5. Field of coursework in Vocational education:

- auto mechanics
- drafting
- electricity-electronics
- graphic arts
- machine shop
- metal arts
- welding
- wood working
- cosmetology-hairdressing
- secretarial
- distributive education
- data processing
- apparel arts
- commercial arts
- not in vocational educ.
- no answer

6. Number of extra-curricular activities participated in:

- none
- 1-3
- >3
- no answer

7. Latest IQ score:

- <69
- 70-79
- 80-89
- 90-109
- 110-119
- 120-129
- >129
- don't give IQ tests
- no answer

8. Student rank

- upper 25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- lower 25%
- no answer

11. Number of days absent:

- none
- 1-5
- 6-10
- >10
- no answer

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE (W-280-2)

2. Sex:

- female
- male

5. Married:
   - O yes
   - O no (separated/widowed/divorced)
   - O no answer

6. Race:
   - O Spanish
   - O Anglo

7. Childhood home:
   - O ranch/farm
   - O rural area not ranch/farm
   - O town under 5000
   - O city (over 5000)
   - O reservation
   - O government installation
   - O other
   - O no answer

8. Language spoken in home:
   - O Spanish only
   - O English only/English & other
   - O English & Spanish
   - O other
   - O no answer

9. Lived in city 1 year:
   - O no
   - O yes, city 10,000-100,000
   - O yes, city over 100,000
   - O no answer

10. Visited a city >1 day:
    - O no
    - O yes, city 10,000-100,000
    - O yes, city over 100,000
    - O no answer

11. Educational level:
    - O less than 8
    - O 8
    - O 9-11
    - O 12
    - O some college
    - O jr. college
    - O 16
    - O over 16
    - O no answer

12. School dropout:
    - O yes
    - O no
    - O no answer

Reasons:

A. Had to work to support family -
   - O important
   - O not important
   - O not a dropout/ no answer

B. No transportation -
   - O important
   - O not important
   - O not a dropout/ no answer

C. Classes were boring -
   - O important
   - O not important
   - O not a dropout/ no answer

D. Classes were too hard -
   - O important
   - O not important
   - O not a dropout/ no answer

E. No clothes good enough to wear-
   - O important
   - O not important
   - O not a dropout/ no answer

F. Wanted to get a job -
   - O important
   - O not important
   - O not a dropout/ no answer

G. Got married -
   - O important
   - O not important
   - O not a dropout/ no answer

H. Classmates picked on me-
   - O important
   - O not important
   - O not a dropout/ no answer

I. Teachers didn't like me -
   - O important
   - O not important
   - O not a dropout/ no answer

J. Other -
   - O yes
   - O no
   - O not a dropout/ no answer

see page 4

12. Someone said S should go to college:
    - O no
    - O yes, parents
    - O yes, teacher/counselor
    - O yes, other
    - O no answer/dropout

13. Worked while in high school:
    - O yes
    - O no
    - O dropout/no answer

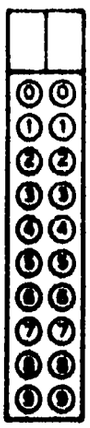
A. Worked on a ranch or farm
   - O yes
   - O no
   - O didn't work/no answer/dropout

- Sept. 1964 to Aug 1965
  - O did not work on farm
  - O worked 1 mo. or less
  - O worked 2-3 months
  - O worked more than 3 months
  - O didn't work/can't tell/no answer/ dropout

- Sept. 1965 to Aug 1966
  - O did not work on farm
  - O worked 1 mo. or less
  - O worked 2-3 months
  - O worked more than 3 months
  - O didn't work/can't tell/no answer/ dropout

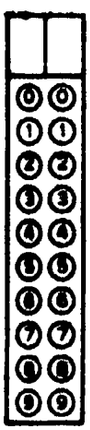
Sept. 1967 to Aug. 1968
- ○ did not work in town
- ○ worked 1 mo or less
- ○ worked 2-3 mos.
- ○ worked more than 3 mos.
- ○ didn't work/can't tell/no answer/ dropout

Total number months of town work:



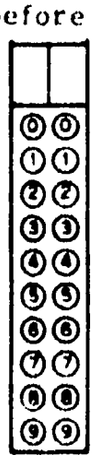
C. Worked in a city (over 5000 pop.):
- ○ no
- ○ yes, 1 year
- ○ yes, 2 years
- ○ yes, 3 years
- ○ yes, all 4 years
- ○ didn't work/no answer/dropout

- Total no. months of city work:

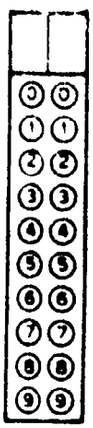


14. Worked as a farm laborer:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ no answer

A. Average no. weeks worked/yr. before June 1968:



Total No. months farm work



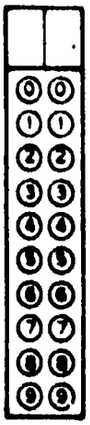
worked in a town (under 5000 pop.):
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ didn't work/no answer/dropout

Sept 1964 to Aug 1965
- ○ did not work in town
- ○ worked 1 mo or less
- ○ worked 2-3 months
- ○ worked more than 3 mos.
- ○ didn't work/can't tell/no answer/ dropout

Sept. 1963 to Aug 1964
- ○ did not work in town
- ○ worked 1 mo or less
- ○ worked 2-3 months
- ○ worked more than 3 mos.
- ○ didn't work/can't tell/no answer/ dropout

Sept. 1962 to Aug 1963
- ○ did not work in town
- ○ worked 1 mo or less
- ○ worked 2-3 months
- ○ worked more than 3 mos.
- ○ didn't work/can't tell/no answer/ dropout

B. Average no. weeks worked/yr. after May 1968:



C. Had to migrate before June 1968 to work:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ didn't work
- ○ no answer

D. Had to migrate after May 1968 to work:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ didn't work
- ○ no answer

15. Took part in programs: MDTA-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ no answer

Took part in programs: Job Corps-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ no answer

Took part in programs: NYC-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ no answer

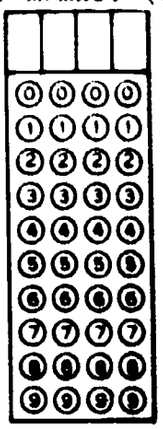
A. Why not?
- ○ didn't know about them
- ○ income too high
- ○ not offered
- ○ didn't want to be in program for poor people
- ○ didn't like people who ran it
- ○ other
- ○ took part/no answer

16. Family Income:
- ○ less than $2,000
- ○ $2,000-$2,999
- ○ $3,000-$4,999
- ○ $5,000-$7,499
- ○ $7,500-$9,999
- ○ $10,000-$15,000
- ○ over $15,000
- ○ no answer

10 (continued).

-Might have stayed in school if given extra money:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ not a dropout/no answer

16-17. Income/family member (to nearest dollar):



18. Purchasing Power Index:
- ○ not enough money for essentials
- ○ enough money for essentials
- ○ enough money for extras
- ○ enough money for vacations, etc.
- ○ no answer

19-20. Work History

A. Grand total:

B. Category:
- ○ 0-99
- ○ 100-139
- ○ 140-159
- ○ over 159
- ○ no answer

C. Has ever had a job:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ can't tell

D. Salary category (entry-level wage):
- ○ under $1.00/hr.
- ○ $1.00-$1.50/hr.
- ○ $1.51-$2.00/hr.
- ○ over $2.00/hr.
- ○ never had a job
- ○ no answer

E. Entry job:

a. Familiar to rural youth-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ can't tell
- ○ never worked/no answer

b. Blue or white collar-
- ○ blue
- ○ white
- ○ can't tell
- ○ never worked/no answer

c. Sales job-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ can't tell
- ○ never worked/no answer

d. Skilled trade-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ can't tell
- ○ never worked/no answer

21. How found first full-time job?
- ○ never had a full-time job
- ○ relatives/friends
- ○ high school
- ○ newspaper ads
- ○ private employment agency
- ○ public employment agency
- ○ other
- ○ no answer

22. Why S has had a hard time finding work:

A. No jobs-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ haven't had hard time
- ○ never had a job/ no answer

B. No vocational training-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ haven't had a hard time
- ○ never had a job/ no answer

C. Can't pass employment tests-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ haven't had hard time
- ○ never had a job/ no answer

D. No high school diploma-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ haven't had hard time
- ○ never had a job/ no answer

E. No work experience-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ haven't had hard time
- ○ never had a job/ no answer

F. Racial discrimination-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ haven't had hard time
- ○ never had a job/ no answer

G. Other
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ haven't had hard time
- ○ never had a job/ no answer

23. Anglos & Chicanos have a chance to get good jobs?
- ○ yes
- ○ no + Anglo better
- ○ no + Chicano better
- ○ no + no answer
- ○ never had a job/no answer

24. Present job is the kind S wants:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ no job now/never worked
- ○ no answer

25. S gets along with people he/she works with:
- ○ no
- ○ some of the time
- ○ most of the time
- ○ all of the time
- ○ don't have a job/never worked

26. S likes people he/she works with:
- ○ all of them
- ○ most of them
- ○ a few of them
- ○ none of them
- ○ no job now/never worked
- ○ no answer

27. Where S has lived since June 1968:

A. Migration status:
- ○ stayed in home town
- ○ moved to (another) rural area
- ○ moved to small city (5000-24,999)
- ○ moved to medium city (25,000-100,000)
- ○ moved to large city (over 100,000)
- ○ no answer

B. Migration pattern of those who moved to a city:
- ○ stayed in a city
- ○ returned to home town (rural area)
- ○ returned to different rural area
- ○ did not move to a city
- ○ no answer

C. Regional moves:
- ○ moved out of Southwest
- ○ did not move out of SW
- ○ moved out of SW & returned to SW
- ○ can't tell/no answer

28. Moved to a city because:

A. No jobs in home town-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

B. Wanted more education-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

C. Nothing to do for entertainment-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

D. Family moved-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

E. Got married-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

F. Could earn more money in a city-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

G. Could find a better job in a city-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

H. Other-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

29. Moved to city where friends/relatives lived:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

30. S was able to make new friends easily in a city:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

31. If returned to home town:

A. Why?

a. Family wanted S to come home-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ stayed in a city
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

b. Prices are too high in a city-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ stayed in a city
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

c. Couldn't find a job in a city-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ stayed in a city
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

d. Racial discrimination-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ stayed in a city
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

e. Family needed S at home-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ stayed in a city
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

f. Don't like living in a city-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ stayed in a city
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

g. Wanted to be nearer to family-
- ○ important
- ○ not important
- ○ stayed in a city
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

h. Other-
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ stayed in a city
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

B. If stayed in city - visits home town often:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ returned to home town (or other/rural)
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

C. If stayed in city - would return to home if job available:
- ○ would return to home town
- ○ would stay in city
- ○ have returned to home town/rural
- ○ didn't move to a city/no answer

32. Went to trade/vocational school:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ no answer

33. Entered an apprenticeship program:
- ○ yes
- ○ no
- ○ no answer

34. Went to college:
- ○ yes
- ○ no

35. If didn't go to college, why not?:
- ○ not enough money
- ○ didn't want to
- ○ not h.s. graduate
- ○ h.s. grades too low
- ○ didn't pass entrance exams
- ○ other
- ○ did go to college
- ○ no answer

APPENDIX D

SAMPLING FRAME AND RESPONSE RATE

APPENDIX D

SAMPLING FRAME AND RESPONSE RATE

In generating the sample of rural youths, the first step was to select a stratified random sample of the counties having large Spanish-surname population; we used a sampling method described by Kish.* All rural counties in California, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico and Texas that have ten percent or more Spanish-surname population were first listed and then stratified on the basis of: percent Spanish-surname population in 1960; percent of Mexican-American population in 1960; and population density. Fourteen counties were then selected randomly within strata, in such a manner that they are a representative cross section (with respect to these three measures) of all the rural counties included in the original list. In addition, 3 small cities of between 10,000 and 25,000 population were selected (on the basis of percent of Spanish-surname population and distance of 60 miles or less from a city of 100,000 or more population) as controls.

The counties selected were:

- Gila, Arizona
- Graham, Arizona
- Conejos, Colorado
- Crowley, Colorado
- Lake, Colorado
- Mora, New Mexico
- Sierra, New Mexico
- Castro, Texas
- Gonzales, Texas
- Jeff Davis, Texas
- Jim Hogg, Texas
- Medina, Texas
- Starr, Texas
- Upton, Texas

The small cities were:

- Merced, California
- Madera, California
- Lamesa, Texas
- Bay City, Texas

---

* Kish, Leslie, Survey Sampling, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1965 (pp 491 - 495).

Lists were generated of all 1963-64 8th graders in each of the sampled counties. Indigenous field staff removed from these lists the names of all youths known to be dead, institutionalized or in the armed forces. Current addresses were then obtained for almost all names remaining on the list. Questionnaires were mailed to all youths for whom current addresses were available. Table A presents the numbers of questionnaires that were mailed, returned as undeliverable, and returned completed.

Table A

Response to Questionnaires.

	Column A	Column B	Column C	Column D	Column E
	Questionnaires Mailed	Questionnaires Returned As Undeliverable	Net Questionnaires Delivered	Completed Questionnaires Returned	Rate or Response (Col.D ÷ Col.C)
Rural	1243	181	1062	499	47%
Small City	456	89	367	150	41%
Totals	1699	270	1429	649	45%

Of the completed questionnaires that were returned, 41 of the rural and 26 of the small city questionnaires were not included in the analysis. These 67 questionnaires were not used because they contained obvious errors or serious omissions in response. The final sample, then, consists of 582 youths, as shown in Table B.

Table B

Sample Characteristics

Total = 582

RURAL 458 = 79%								SMALL CITY 124 = 21%							
Chicano 282 = 62%				Anglo 176 = 38%				Chicano 51 = 41%				Anglo 73 = 59%			
Male 89 = 32%		Female 193 = 68%		Male 54 = 31%		Female 122 = 69%		Male 21 = 41%		Female 30 = 59%		Male 32 = 44%		Female 41 = 56%	
C*	NC*	C	NC	C	NC	C	NC	C	NC	C	NC	C	NC	C	NC
41	48	40	153	41	13	70	52	12	9	12	18	26	6	30	11
46%	54%	21%	79%	76%	24%	57%	43%	57%	43%	40%	60%	81%	19%	73%	27%

* C = College, NC = Noncollege

Some information was available from school records on nonrespondents. Table B-1 presents the available data on IQ for respondents and nonrespondents. There is some slight difference between the two groups -- generally response was better among the youths with higher IQ's. This finding is in line with similar findings in previous rural youth studies.*

Table B-1

IQ Measures of Respondents and Nonrespondents

IQ	Respondents		Nonrespondents		Totals
<90	82	35%	187	37%	269
90 - 109	93	39%	232	45%	325
110 - 119	44	19%	72	14%	116
>119	19	8%	21	4%	40
Totals	238		512		750

$\chi^2 = 8.30$; df = 3; p = <.05

*Macek, Albert J., and Guy H. Miles, "IQ Scores and Mailed Questionnaire Response," Journal of Applied Psychology, (in print).