Factors That Contribute to the Educational Success of Haitian-American Women

Magdana Louis

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ABSTRACT

FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE EDUCATIONAL SUCCESS OF HAITIAN-AMERICAN WOMEN

by

Magdana Louis

Chair: Nancy J. Carbonell
ABSTRACT OF GRADUATE STUDENT RESEARCH

Dissertation

Andrews University

School of Education

Title: FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE EDUCATIONAL SUCCESS OF HATIAN-AMERICAN WOMEN

Name of researcher: Magdana Louis

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Date completed: December 2009

Problem

The purpose of this study was to explore the factors that influence academic success among Haitian-American women.

Methodology

A survey research method was used in this study. A quantitative approach was taken when analyzing the data. For this study, 213 Haitian-American women with college degrees completed the Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women. One descriptive analysis was conducted and 10 hypotheses were tested by one-way ANOVA.
Results

This study examined 16 dependent variables and 10 independent variables with 10 hypotheses. The results indicated that Haitian-American women perceived self-motivation, financial assistance, accessibility to resources, self-perception, time management, spiritual life, family support, prior academic achievement, and affordability of college tuition to be the factors that contributed to their educational success. Knowledge of a second language was perceived as the factor that contributed the least to their educational success. The groups studied revealed more similarities in their responses on the factors than differences.

Conclusions

The objective of this study was to shed light on those factors that contributed to the success of Haitian-American women who pursued and obtained college degrees. Nine factors were identified as the key elements that contributed to the educational success of Haitian-American women. The nine factors are self-motivation, financial assistance, accessibility to resources, self-perception, time management, spiritual life, family support, prior academic achievement, and affordability of college tuition. The other factors were not identified as being important contributors to the success of Haitian-American women.
Andrews University

School of Education

FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE EDUCATIONAL SUCCESS OF HAITIAN-AMERICAN WOMEN

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

by

Magdana Louis

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FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE EDUCATIONAL SUCCESS OF HAITIAN-AMERICAN WOMEN

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This is dedicated to my parents, Aida S. Louis and Mathieu Louis. Your prayers and hard work paid off. I thank-you and I love you. To all others who assisted, encouraged, and motivated me, may God bless you.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Haiti is an island rich in history, art, and culture. Yet the island and its people are often perceived negatively because of the country’s third world status and its devastating political dilemmas. As one writer stated, whenever Haiti is mentioned in the news, the phrase “the poorest nation in the Western Hemisphere” usually follows. “These seven words represent a classic example of something absolutely true and absolutely meaningless at the same time” (Danticat, 2001, p. 57). That phrase has exasperated Haitian-Americans because it ignores Haiti’s many positives such as its arts, its music, and its Afro-Euro-American culture. “It denies the humanity of Haitians, the capacity to survive, to overcome, even to triumph over this poverty” (Danticat, 2001, p. 57). What is more, this negative impression tends to follow all Haitians no matter where they go around the world. Thus, instead of staying focused on the negatives, there is a need to focus more on the achievements and positive contributions that the people originally from this island has produced.

Throughout the years, Haitian-American people have made an incredible impact on society. For example, William Edward Burghardt (W.E.B.) Du Bois, who is of Haitian descent, was an American civil rights activist, Pan-Africanist, sociologist, historian, author, and editor. In 1895 he became the first Black person to earn a Ph.D. from Harvard University (Lewis, 2008).
There are Haitian-American women who have followed in his footsteps and who made a difference in their lives and the lives of others. For example, Dr. Carole M. Berotte Joseph, who was born in Port-au-Prince, Haiti, came to the U.S. in 1957 and was the first Haitian-American woman president of Massachusetts Bay Community College (Zephir, 2004). She joined an elite and select group of just 49 African-American women nationwide serving as college and university presidents. African-American women comprise only 1.4% of all college presidents (Zephir, 2004). She earned her Bachelor’s Degree in Spanish and Education from the York College of the City University of New York, a Master’s degree in Bilingual Education from Fordham University, and a Ph.D. in Bilingual Education and Sociolinguistics from New York University (Zephir, 2004). She is multilingual and speaks French, Spanish, English, and Haitian Creole (Zephir, 2004).

Dr. Rose Marie Toussaint earned her B.S. at Loyola University in New Orleans, and her M.D. at Howard University College of Medicine. She is the first Black female director of a liver transplant service in the world (Zephir, 2004). Another successful Haitian-American woman is Sybil Elias, who is a municipal court judge in Newark, New Jersey. She obtained her B.A. from Rutgers University in Political Science and later received her law degree from George Washington University (Zephir, 2004). In 2003, she became the first judge of Haitian descent (Zephir, 2004).

Edwidge Danticat, a Haitian-born American author, was born in Port-au-Prince, Haiti. After graduating from Clara Barton High School in Brooklyn, New York, she entered Barnard College in New York City and received a B.A. in French literature (Zephir, 2004). She later earned a Master of Fine Arts in Creative Writing from Brown University (Zephir, 2004). As the author of several books, she has received many
recognition and awards (Zephir, 2004). Another well-known Haitian-American woman is Marie P. St. Fleur who is a Massachusetts State Representative representing the fifth Suffolk district (Zephir, 2004). St. Fleur emigrated from Haiti as a child and attended the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, and Boston College Law School (Zephir, 2004). She started practicing law in 1987. In 1999, she became the first Haitian-American to hold public office in Massachusetts (Zephir, 2004). These are just a few of the Haitian-American women who are making great strides in our communities.

One can learn much by following the educational journey and goals reached by different ethnic groups. Education reveals a great deal about a peoples’ status, position, and, in a large measure, their social placement within our society (McClelland, 1992). To gain a better understanding of the status, position, and contributions that Haitian-American women have made, let us first evaluate their progression and their pursuit of education.

**Background Information for Research**

Currently, very few educational studies provide enlightening information on Haitian-American women per se. Most studies tend to lump all Blacks in the same sample, not distinguishing a Black from Haiti from a Black from other parts of the world. Nevertheless, African American studies may offer some beneficial information that can be used to understand the status of minority women in education, which includes Haitian-Americans.

During the time of the Civil War, Black women were not afforded the same opportunities as White women (Zamani, 2003). It was not legal for any Black person to receive a formal education. After the Civil War, laws were amended that allowed Black
Americans to be educated (Zamani, 2003). However, even then they faced much opposition along the way that made their educational experiences difficult. Through the process, a “new breed” of intellectual Black women was noted and started to be recognized in American history (Gregory, 1995, p. 19). These steps have led to the present where an increasing number of female Black students can now be found who are attending higher education institutions.

Literature on student participation in postsecondary education by race or ethnicity consistently reveals higher rates of college participation and completion among African American women than African American men. Nearly two-thirds of African American undergraduates are women. (Zamani, 2003, p. 8)

Moreover, it is suggested that in the near future, the percentage of Black women will likely continue to increase (Reason, 2003).

Although there is a progression in the number of Black women receiving higher education, it has been noted that Haitian-American women are one of the least recognized and least comprehended groups in the United States today (Vilme & Butler, 2004). What motivates these women? What sorts of experiences have led them to embrace higher education? What factors support these women as they strive for and reach their educational goals? Not much attention has been given to Haitian-American women when it comes to educational research.

According to Biklen and Pollard (1993), a number of past studies in education have focused primarily on White men.

White men have traditionally been the population studies in research related to the development of social science and of educational theory and practice. From the results of these studies of White men, generalizations are made regarding ‘humanity’ in all of its bi-gender, multicultural, and multiracial diversity. (Biklen & Pollard, 1993, p. 71)
Furthermore, according to research by Strage (1999), by the end of the 1980s, researchers had compiled a fairly clear picture of the formulas of success for “traditional” college students, those who were 18-22 years old, non-minority students, from middle-class backgrounds whose parents had attended college. The focus and formula in those studies included consideration of the adequacy of students’ academic preparation, the appropriateness of their educational expectations, career goals they had received from parents and peers, and their assimilation into their new milieu upon matriculation.

The problem with these earlier studies is that the college population of today no longer mirrors the students who participated in those foundational studies. Universities and other educational institutions need up-to-date information on ways to help students from the many minority subgroups that exist on today’s campuses. More recently, scholars have called into question the universality of some of the earlier patterns and urged that more research be conducted so as to better understand the dynamics at play among the less “traditional” and more diverse populations now making their way to and through college (Astin, 1998; see also Kraemer, 1997; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1998; Rendon, 1994; Stage, 1993; Strage, 1999; Tierney, 1992). In other words, studies that embrace the diverse structure of higher education, in terms of age, ethnicity, and gender, are in demand. Researchers can assist by conducting more studies that analyze cultural elements, values, and beliefs of minority subgroups that are relevant to education.

**Statement of Problems**

In general, very few studies focus on the academic success that different minority subgroups in America are making. While there have been studies that examine the educational success of women in general and of minority women, there are very few
studies that look specifically at factors related to the academic success of Haitian-American women (McClelland, 1992; Ridgell & Lounsbury, 2004; Spitzer, 2000; Tidball, 1999; Weathers, Thompson, Robert, & Rodriguez, 1994; Wolf-Wendel, 1998).

With the growing population of Haitian-Americans living in the United States, there is a need to examine their educational experiences.

Unfortunately, the few educational studies conducted on Haitian-Americans have only portrayed the idea that they are the group who are more likely than any other immigrants to fall behind in education (Catanese, 1998). Missing is the awareness of how valuable education is to Haitian-Americans. Because Haitian-American women are one of the least recognized and least comprehended groups in the United States (Vilme & Butler, 2004), very little attention has been given to their postsecondary contributions and educational experiences.

The subject of educational resilience, why individuals experience success in school despite risk has gained increasing attention as researchers respond to criticism that their historic preoccupation with explaining the school failure of poor and minority youth has ‘netted us nothing more than new theories of school failure,’ and regularly stigmatized these populations as being deficient, resistant or less able learners. (O’Connor, 2002, p. 855)

Thus, this study was designed to contribute to the awareness of Haitian-American women in higher education, which, in turn, is a departure from “traditional” research in education.

**Purpose of This Study**

The purpose of this study was to explore the factors that influenced academic success among Haitian-American women. In this study, academic success was defined as having graduated from college with at least a Bachelor’s degree.
Conceptual Framework

The reasons why some succeed while others do not is an important phenomenon, particularly in the educational setting. Tollefson (2000) recognized that the explanation of why some students attain educational success (or failure) in schools, and/or society at-large, has piqued the interest of teachers, psychologists, and educational reformers for decades. This research has adopted and utilized three theories that will serve as the core foundation for understanding students’ educational success: Attribution Theory, Social Capital Theory, and Sociocultural Theory.

Attribution Theory

In 1979, Bernard Weiner formulated what became known as Attribution Theory, a form of motivation theory, which strived to identify the components of success and failure for academics. According to Eccles and Wigfield (2002), the attribution models include beliefs about one’s ability and expectations for success. Tollefson (2000, p. 64) described the Attribution Theory as follows:

Attribution theories of motivation start from the premise that people try to bring order into their lives by developing personal, sometimes called implicit, theories about why things happen as they do in their lives and in the lives of others. Heider (1958) and Kelley (1967, 1972) were among the first to describe the causal attribution process that people use to explain events that occur in their lives.

This theory is known for its three important properties of causal dimensions.

“Each of these dimensions has both psychological and behavioral consequences” (Graham, 1997, p. 23). The three properties are locus, or whether a cause is internal or external to the individual, stability, which designates a cause as constant or varying over time, and controllability, or whether a cause is subject to volitional influence.
Controllability distinguishes causes one can control, such as skill/efficacy, from causes one cannot control, such as aptitude, mood, others’ actions, and luck (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Graham, 1997; Tollefson, 2000).

Weiner and his colleagues demonstrated that each of these causal dimensions has unique influences on various aspects of achievement behavior. The stability dimension influences individuals’ expectancies for success: an outcome to a stable cause such as ability or skill has a stronger influence on expectancies for future success than attributing an outcome to an unstable cause such as effort. The locus of control dimension is linked most strongly to affective reactions. For instance, attributing success to an internal cause enhances one’s pride or self-esteem, but attributing that success to an external cause enhances one’s gratitude; attributing failure to internal causes is linked to shame, but attributing it to external causes is linked to anger. Weiner also argued that each dimension has important affective consequences. (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002, p. 118)

Eccles and Wigfield (2002, p. 117) noted that “Weiner’s attribution theory has been a major theory of motivation for the past 30 years.” Since the focus of this study was to determine the rationales for educational success as perceived by educated Haitian-American women, this theory formed part of the conceptual framework for this study.

In this study, I looked at both the intrapersonal and the interpersonal components of Attribution Theory. A review of the literature on intrapersonal components suggests that educated people, and in this case Haitian-American women, are able to identify on their own factors leading to their educational success. On the other hand, studies looking at the interpersonal components of the Attribution Theory found additional factors that significantly contributed to the academic success of students. An example would be Laguerre (1998), who concluded that language differences, cultural expectations, class backgrounds, ethnicity, voluntary versus involuntary migration, racial discrimination, and personal motivation were variables that could explain the school performance of the immigrant and second-generation youngsters in the American educational system.
Overall, the Attribution Theory aligns well with this research. It was chosen as the conceptual framework for this study because it encompasses external and internal factors contributing to success or failure. These factors appear to be relevant when explaining what contributes to the academic success of Haitian-American women.

Social Capital Theory

Several theorists, such as Pierre Bourdieu, Robert D. Putman, and James S. Coleman, have individually contributed their own definitions and concepts of the Social Capital Theory (Kim, 2005). For this study, Coleman’s Social Capital Theory was chosen as part of the conceptual framework since most educational research studies have relied on his theory (Kim, 2005) and because his theory deals primarily in the area of academia, which was the basis of this study.

Social capital, according to Coleman, refers to the social networks and social interactions that facilitate educational attainment, particularly those established between parents, students, and schools. It provides ways of revealing the roles of family and community support in preparation for and success in college (St. John, 2006). Coleman regarded social capital as the by-product of purposive action intended to achieve goals (Glover & Hemingway, 2005). St. John (2006) noted that this theory did not consider the role of family finances in the formation of success nor the role of financial aid in college success. However, based on a significant amount of educational research (Bui, 2002; De La Rosa, 2006; DesJardins, Ahlburg, & McCall, 2002; Kirby, White, & Aruguette, 2007; Titus, 2006; Walpole, 2008), both family finances and financial aid have been found to be essential factors contributing to the academic success of college students. For that
reason, in my research, both factors were included in the evaluation of which elements contributed to the academic success of Haitian-American women.

Coleman stated that all social relations and social structures facilitate some forms of social capital (Kim, 2005). His theory focused on highly interconnected networks which he believed helped to form cohesive group norms among the members in the network. More specifically, his theory emphasized the importance of strong social ties within the family, which formed an efficient conduit of norms, standards, and expectations that enabled children to become successful adults (Kim, 2005).

Coleman’s description of social capital theory contains six structural components. *Obligation and expectations* provide incentives to invest in social relationships because investors trust that other members of the network will reciprocate. Second, social relations have *information potential* and thus enable individuals access to specialized or privileged information that others have obtained. Third, *norms and sanctions* encourage members to act for the group’s collective good even if the action does not directly or immediately benefit the individual member. Fourth, *authority relations* transfer ‘rights of control’ from several group members to one member who may then employ the resulting extensive network access to achieve a specific goal. Fifth, an *appropriate social organization* is one that was developed for one purpose but may be appropriated for another. When this happens, the resources within the organization are also appropriated, along with access to them. Finally, *intentional organizations* bring people together to create a new entity which directly benefits them and others who invest in it, but also benefits others who are less immediately involved. (Glover & Hemingway, 2005, p. 391)

There is considerable evidence that social capital leads to improved student achievement, better school grades, and reduced dropout rates (Kim & Schneider, 2005). Although Coleman did not theorize about gender differences in his notion of social capital, he explained that this theory provided a practical explanation for the effect that social relationships have on students’ academic outcomes (Chee, Pino, & Smith, 2005). According to Yan (1999), in support of Social Capital Theory, academic improvements may occur regardless of the economic characteristics families possess if and when strong
and positive social connections are in place. “Recent research has shown that parent-child relational ties, often referred to as social capital, influence the educational outcomes of children independent of socioeconomic characteristics” (Chee et al., 2005).

Indeed, social support from parents, communities, and/or teachers appears to play an important role in a student’s academic success. According to Glover and Hemingway (2005), social capital allows individuals to gain access to otherwise unavailable resources through cooperative action in pursuit of individual goals. The cooperation among students pursuing their individual interests benefits not only them, but others in the social group (families, communities, and schools) to which they belong (Glover & Hemingway, 2005).

According to Unaeze and Perrin (2008), the family is the nucleus of Haitian society. Within the family, individuals are dependent upon each other. Furthermore, Unaeze and Perrin (2008) shared that family honor is of utmost importance. Family reputation is so important that the actions of a member of the family are considered to bring either honor or shame to the whole family. A family's reputation in society is based on honesty and former family history. It is with this knowledge that this research on Haitian-American women intended to ratify the role that families, communities, and schools play in their educational pursuit.

**Sociocultural Theory**

The Sociocultural Theory is recognized as having originated and being rooted in the work of Lev Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist of the early 1900s (Nasir & Hand, 2006; Valenzuela, Connery, & Musanti, 2000). Many colleges in the United States and abroad have widely recognized Vygotsky as the actual founder of Sociocultural Theory
While the interpretations and meanings of Sociocultural Theory may vary, they all seem to incorporate concepts taken from Vygotsky’s works. After reviewing Vygotsky’s work, Wertsch (1991) highlighted three basic themes that summarize the basic concepts of the Sociocultural Theory. The first concept is that human thought is best understood from a complex and chronological perspective, which is based on the events and situations in life. Second, an individual’s development of advanced thought processes is rooted in his or her own personal sociocultural history and experience. And lastly, the psychological behavior of human beings is mediated or facilitated by sign, symbols, and languages at individual and collective levels of experience (Doehler & Mondada, 2004).

Alfred (2003) suggested that the main concept of Sociocultural Theory is that all learners are primary members of a defined culture with a cultural identity, and the degree to which they engage in learning is a function of this cultural identity. In other words, when a person learns, they construct their own knowledge and meaning according to what they already know, within the social, historical, and linguistic contexts of their learning (Alfred, 2003).

With the growing knowledge that social and cultural factors play a significant part in a person’s learning and development, the Sociocultural Theory received increasing attention in the field of education and development (Mahn, 1999). Its framework depicts a view of culture that not only carries a system of meanings across generations, but also has a meaning that is constantly being created and recreated (Nasir & Hand, 2006). “The wide scope of studies investigating the formation and development of human society and culture is often reflected in the multiple interpretations and applications of sociocultural
theory” (Mahn, 1999, p. 342). Nevertheless, the concepts described in Sociocultural Theory have been embraced by many in the field of education since students come from many different cultural, linguistic, geographic, and socioeconomic backgrounds (Valenzuela et al., 2000).

Due to the diverse, rich culture, language, and geographical background of Haitian-American women, Sociocultural Theory served as part of the conceptual framework for this research. To fully understand learning and educational success from a sociocultural perspective, it was important to give attention to the culture and the communities within which individuals learn and interact (Alfred, 2003).

Figure 1 illustrates a summary of the theories that laid the foundation of my study. As stated, the Attribution Theory, the Social Capital Theory, and the Sociocultural Theory all provide rationales for educational success. Each highlights different factors that impact achievement and learning. While the Attribution Theory focuses on motivation factors, the Social Capital Theory focuses on social factors, and the Sociocultural Theory focuses primarily on culture and other community factors.

**Research Questions**

For this study, the following questions were explored:

1. How influential do Haitian-American women feel the following 16 variables were towards their attainment of educational success: language acquisition, prior academic achievement, level of family support, level of community support, high-school curriculum, access to resources, self-perception, self-motivation, financial assistance, campus ethnic diversity, sense of ethnic identity, spirituality, college/university support,
Figure 1. Framework for academic success.

satisfaction with college/university, time management, and affordability of tuition? These 16 variables are referred to as “success factors” in this study.

2. Is there a difference between nationalized Haitian-American women and Haitian-American women born in the United States on the levels of importance given to these success factors?

3. Is there a difference among three groups of educational attainment (Bachelor’s, Master’s, or doctoral degree levels) and the importance given to these success factors?

4. Is there a difference among five groups based on their fields of study (field of science, education, business, art, and “other”) and the importance given to these success factors?
5. Is there a difference among five groups based on their high-school Grade Point Average (3.5-4.0, 3.0-3.49, 2.5-2.99, 2.0-2.49, and GPA-not applicable) and the levels of importance given to these success factors?

6. Is there a difference among four groups based on the number of years taken to complete college (4 or less, 5, 6, and 7 or more) and the levels of importance given to these success factors?

7. Is there a difference among five groups based on their annual household income during college (less than $20,000, $20,001-$30,000, $30,001-$40,000, $40,001-$50,000, and above $50,000) and the levels of importance given to these success factors?

8. Is there a difference among three groups based on their mother’s highest level of education (high-school diploma or less, some college, and Bachelor’s degree or beyond) and the levels of importance given to these success factors?

9. Is there a difference among three groups based on their father’s highest level of education (high-school diploma or less, some college, and Bachelor’s degree or beyond) and these levels of importance given to these success factors?

10. Is there a difference among four groups based on their undergraduate Grade Point Average (3.5-4.0, 3.0-3.49, 2.5-2.99, and 2.49 or less) and the levels of importance given to these success factors?

11. Is there a difference among three groups based on their current location of residency (Northeast Region, Southeast Region, and “other” regions) and the levels of importance given to these success factors? “Other” regions included the Midwest Region, the Southwest Region, and Western Regions of the United States.
Significance of Study

I anticipate that parents, communities, educators, and administrators will consider the findings of this study relevant for developing resources and programs that will assist current and upcoming Haitian-American students, and in particular females within this group. It is also hoped that this study may serve as a guide for creating programs tailored to motivate Haitian-American women to obtain college degrees, educate Haitian parents on the importance of being involved in the education of their children, and inform family, college staff, and faculty about the importance of certain factors that contribute to the academic success of Haitian-American women facing the educational process.

Limitations

This study has several limitations. This research explored only a non-random sample of Haitian-American women who obtained college degrees and who were members of the National Haitian Student Alliance. It was assumed, as well, that all women answered the survey questions honestly.

Delimitations

This study is delimited to Haitian-American women who currently hold at least a college degree and who chose to participate in this study by thoroughly completing the survey. The participants were Haitian-American women with college degrees chosen from a compiled list of alumnae from various universities connected to the National Haitian Student Alliance.
Definitions

*African-Americans:* Anyone of African decent who was born and raised in the United States.

*Blacks:* Anyone with African decent, not limited to African-American.

*Haitian-Americans:* People who are of Haitian decent who were either born to Haitian parent(s) and/or born on the island of Haiti and became naturalized in America.

*Immigrant:* Anyone who has migrated to the United States from another country.

*Creole:* One of the official languages of Haiti. It is a language with a compilation of words from French and African languages.

*Educational success:* A person who has successfully obtained a 4-year college degree.

*Traditional student:* A student who goes to college immediately after receiving a high-school diploma. Typically, those students attend college at the age of 18 or 19.

*Non-traditional student:* A student who goes to college several years after receiving a high-school diploma.

Summary

Chapter 1 contains the introduction, the statement of the problem, the purpose of this study, the research questions, the definition of terms, delimitations, and significance of the study.

Chapter 2 provides a review of relevant literature, which includes a brief history of women in education.
Chapter 3 addresses the study’s research design including population sample, instrumentation, data collection, variables, null hypotheses tested, and method of analysis.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study, the sample description, data on results of instruments, hypotheses testing, and summary.

Chapter 5 presents a summary, the findings of the study, discussion, conclusion, implications, and recommendations.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews literature pertaining to Haitian-American women. In order to fully understand the status of Haitian-American women in education, it is fitting to explore information on four components of this minority group: Haitians, immigrants, Blacks, and women. Throughout this literature review, there are several important considerations. First, no studies that examined educational factors of Haitian-American women were found. Second, the demographic portions of most educational research studies do not specify the vast diversity within Black culture. Black students, which include Haitians, Jamaicans, and/or others from African descent, are often not identified specifically regardless of their cultural, ethnic, or language differences. The classification of African-American and/or Black, which is often used to categorize all students of Black descent, may or may not include those students of Haitian descent. Third, Zephir (1997) indicated that the American system of classification has branded Haitians as a “minority” and has at times assigned Haitians at the bottom of the social scale on the basis of their race. She added, “They [the people from Haiti] were certainly not accustomed to such a label and placement in Haiti where there is no official classificatory system of race relations, no bipolar ranking based on racial classification” (Zephir, 1997, p. 397). Last, although studies concerning women in education were also reviewed for this research,
some made no reference to minority women in their studies and so may have gone undetected.

In an overwhelming majority of the research on women, samples were composed largely of White, middle-class women, or in cases where race or class was unspecified, the samples were presumed to be White and middle- or upper-class women. The continued practice of limiting theories and research studies to this narrowed population under the guise of explaining issues related to ‘women’ raises serious barriers to how visible racial and ethnic groups and lower income females with career issues are conceptualized (Weathers et al., 1994, p. 96).

Researchers who have clustered “Black” and “women” together tended to overlook the many subgroups that make up this population. At times, when categorizing all Blacks or women into one group, the uniquenesses, diversity of cultures, and/or varying backgrounds of each were not always taken into consideration.

Although most of the educational research in this area did not differentiate or separate the studies between the various minority subgroups, some were reviewed on the basis that they considered factors which contributed to academic success.

This chapter will provide a brief description of the history of women in education and a synopsis of Haitian-American history. It will then be followed by information on cultural aspects of Haitian-Americans. Afterwards, the educational status of Haitian-Americans in the United Stated will be discussed. Last, this chapter will review educational research studies that examined factors that contribute to academic success.
History of Women’s Education

This section will provide a brief summary of how women were granted the right to be educated. I will review a few of the conventions that took place and the many laws amended that allowed women to receive higher education.

Change is often accompanied by struggle. Although some changes occur instantly, others take years and even centuries. This was the case for women in the pursuit of higher education. Specifically, it took many years before women were granted the privilege to become educated in the United States. “Scholars who have studied women’s education have found that it is a complex affair, one not easily categorized, and one which does not quite fit into more traditional historical periods” (McClelland, 1992, p. 3). Women were once viewed as individuals who were less intelligent and less important than men.

Before women gained the right and privilege of higher education they were believed to be lower-class citizens, not worthy of voting or owning property, or any number of other ‘inalienable rights’. It was not only men who believed that women should hold a lower position than they; they themselves believed the same. (Horany, 2002, ¶2)

The study of women’s education is an important aspect of history, since it tells us a lot about society’s attitudes, policies, and practices related to the result of its acceptance. It is said that an understanding of those changes helps us both to appreciate the past and critique women’s education in terms of the future (McClelland, 1992).

Before we can begin to understand the educational movement for women, it is important to discuss briefly its historical background. During the period of time when ideal women were expected to be subservient, there were a few bold women and events that stand out as milestones in history. “In 1833, Oberlin College was founded. Later, it was the nations’ first university to accept women and Black students” (Horany, 2002, ¶3).
The next important event was the Seneca Falls Convention in 1848. This convention addressed a number of issues relating to education and suffrage. Social, civil, and religious conditions and the rights of women were discussed. This movement increased the opportunities and made undeniable the demand for equality of education (Horany, 2002). The Seneca Falls Declaration is said to be the single most important document of the 19th-century American woman’s movement.

At the convention a declaration concerning women’s rights was adopted modeling the Declaration of Independence. Appearing in addition to issues of suffrage were issues of education and employment. The Declaration of Sentiments states: “He has monopolized nearly all the profitable employments, and from those she is permitted to follow, she receives but a scanty remuneration. He closes against her all the avenues to wealth and distinction, which he considers most honorable to himself. As a teacher of theology, medicine, or law, she is not known. He has denied her the facilities for obtaining a thorough education – all colleges being closed against her.” (Horany, 2002, ¶3)

In essence, this event is of utmost importance to the women’s rights movement because it formulated the foundation for future achievements, although suffrage was not achieved until about 1920. Against all odds, Helen Magill became the first woman in the United States to earn her Ph.D., graduating in 1877 (Horany, 2002, ¶3).

By 1880, women comprised eighty percent of all elementary school educators, and by 1910 women made up 39 percent of all collegiate undergraduate students and even 20 percent of all college faculties. Finally, in 1920 women’s suffrage was achieved, giving women a secure foothold in society. In 1945, the first woman was accepted to Harvard Medical School, and by 1972 Title XI was passed to help end the discrimination based on sex for any educational program that received federal funding. In 1980, women equaled men in numbers enrolled in colleges with 51 percent. Finally, in 1996 Virginia Military Institute was forced by the Supreme Court to become coeducational. (Horary, 2002, ¶3)

History shows that it took many years for women to be granted equal educational opportunities. In order for women to improve their status in society, many endured struggles and great oppositions.
The history of America reveals that Black women, in particular, faced many obstacles to keep them from fully embracing educational liberty. History teaches that in the first 200 years of the United States, formal education was not universal. By the time of the Civil War, African American women were not afforded the same opportunities as White women (Zamani, 2003). The laws enforced in the country at that time stated that it was illegal to educate persons of African descent. It was not until after the Civil War that laws were amended and foundations were established that allowed the education of Black Americans (Zamani, 2003). Many great scholars and activists, such as Mary McLeod Bethune and W.E.B. DuBois, established movements and fought for voluntary segregation to advance the educational achievement of African Americans, particularly African American women (Zamani, 2003). Although research information was not provided, in Black Women in the Academy, Sheila Gregory (1995) stated that over time, more and more Black women started embracing education as a means to further equality in America.

The right for all people to be educated is a privilege given here in America. The legislation barring gender and racial discrimination helps many women today to see themselves as more self-reliant, individualistic, and ambitious than they did 20 years ago (Green & Hill, 2003). Currently, women constitute a numerical majority of all students. In 1999, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reported that women accounted for 55% of the undergraduate population in the United States, up from 50% in 1980. The rate of attendance for women at higher education institutions continues to grow faster than the rate for men. Based on information from the NCES, Reason (2003)
predicted that women will account for approximately 58% of the college population by 2011.

Cohen and Nee (2000) examined the educational progress of African Americans. The researchers in this study focused primarily on the differences in the educational attainment of Black women and men. This study used summative data from the Digest of Education Statistics, the U.S. Bureau of the Census, and Bureau of Justice Statistics to formulate the results. The findings showed that Black women comprised the majority of African Americans enrolled in college and they received more associate, Bachelor’s, Master’s, doctoral, and professional degrees than did Black men. This study mentioned that in the past two decades the number of undergraduate degrees awarded to African American women had increased by 55%, compared to 20% for Black men.

With the astonishing growth of women in higher education, there is a need to explore the contributions and accomplishments of women from individual minority groups. Interestingly enough, much of the research conducted on women and education tends to study women collectively. McClelland (1992) suggested in a book entitled *The Education of Women in the United States* that research on minority women in education is limited, and criticized literature on women in higher education in terms of its partiality by ignoring the rich diversity of educational experiences among women of different classes and among women of color.

**History of Haitian-Americans**

The declaration of independence of January 1, 1804, is the official mark of the birth of Haiti as a nation, and more importantly, as the first Black nation in the Western Hemisphere. The honor and accomplishment of that nation was extraordinary. After
fighting for 13 years, this Black nation won its independence from French-Colonial power. According to Zephir (1996), Haiti is the product of the only successful slave revolution in modern history. History shows that Haitians won their independence as a result of African slaves fighting together, without emancipation efforts (Zephir, 1996).

As the years progressed, because of terrible leadership, many Haitian immigrants started leaving their homeland. According to Laguerre (1998), the devastating crisis of Haiti is shown to be the result of the transformation of the country from traditional to modern society. History reveals that Haiti was once an agricultural-producing nation where tourism created great opportunities for many families (Laguerre, 1998, p. 21). But, as Laguerre explained, the country experienced a succession of ruthless and kleptocratic dictatorial regimes, which finally led to the corrupt democratic government now in place. It was transformed from a rich French culture to that which is increasingly influenced by other countries. It became a country in which the rural population constituted the majority and where the people constantly wanted to leave in order to survive. Before the 1920s, most, but not all, of those who emigrated from the island were members of the upper class. During that time, Haitians traveled to North America and Europe mostly for educational purposes. Later, Haitians seemed to migrate to North America in order to survive or to obtain a better life. Norris-Tirrell (2002) conducted a quantitative study using 222 Haitians living in the United States. Through the surveys completed by the participants, the findings suggested that many Haitians left their home country because of extreme poverty and fear of political reprisal for expressing an opposing view to the ruling party.
The history of Haitian immigration into the United States can be divided into three phases. The first phase spanned roughly the years 1957-1964. In 1957, Francois Duvalier became President, and in 1964, he named himself President-for-life. Many of the educated, and in some cases, well-off angry politicians and professionals left Haiti during that period, believing that the Duvalier government would soon fail and they would one day be able to return to Port-Au-Prince to be with their families and resume their lives (Laguerre, 1998; Zephir, 1996). Some who left were relatives of politicians who opposed the political philosophy of Duvalier (Colin & Paperwalla, 2003). In the interim, many of these individuals pursued their educational dreams in the United States and attended professional schools or found better jobs in their temporary home.

The second phase of Haitian immigration into the United States began after the inauguration of “Papa Doc” as “President-for-life,” between 1965 and 1971. Between those years, a period coinciding precisely with the Francois Duvalier era, the Immigration and Naturalization Services documented that 34,499 Haitians migrated legally to the United States (Zephir, 2004, p. 49). Concurrently, violence by the civilian militia known as tontons macoutes escalated in Haiti, causing the fortunate-elite Haitians, who now lived in the United States, to send for their families. The middle-class Haitians who had been hoping for a swift change and improvement in the political environment also started leaving en masse, in most cases with tourist visas, which they then overstayed. “By the mid-1960s, 80 percent of Haiti’s qualified professionals – doctors, lawyers, teachers, engineers, and public administrators – left the country and relocated to places like New York and Montreal” (Zephir, 2004, p.49). Consequently, reports indicated that
by 1970, there were more Haitian physicians in either Montreal or New York than in Haiti.

The third phase of Haitian immigration into the United States began soon after the death of Duvalier in 1971; Jean Claude, his son who was then 19 years old, was appointed President-for-life. During the 1970s and early 1980s, the third phase of Haitian migration to the United States began when power was transferred from “Papa Doc” to his son, Jean Claude “Baby Doc” Duvalier. During this era, Haitians suffered from grave economic deprivation. Most major industries were left only to be owned and operated by the government. Unemployment was steadily increasing to about 65% of the population. Those who were employed often worked under very poor conditions. Accordingly, these workers were unmotivated and took little pride in their work, which resulted in a nonproductive workplace (Colin & Paperwalla, 2003). However, the Haitians, many of whom became self-employed, running their own shops, marketplace, or schools, kept their motivation and spirits high in hope of improving their economy. The pride they had in their jobs was readily apparent (Colin & Paperwalla, 2003). Nevertheless, it was during this period that the mass migration of lower-class Haitians, both urban dwellers and peasants, moved to the United States of America, settling mainly in either New York or Miami in hopes of finding a better life (Laguerre, 1998).

Haitian immigration and travel to the United States has continued for many years (Colin & Paperwalla, 2003). Moreover, Norris-Tirrell (2002) reported that many Haitian immigrants are drawn in by the opportunities available in America in addition to the continued political issues that ignite in Haiti and the impoverished state of the island. For
example, according to the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) in 2004, the annual per capita income in Haiti was less than $400.

Using data from the Children of Immigrants Longitudinal Study (CILS), Rodriguez (2002) found that it was not uncommon for immigrant minorities to choose to leave their countries and come to America, “the land of opportunities.” The main reason seems to be a result of the hardships they faced in their countries of origin. Although they encounter new challenges in their new environment, their perception, interpretation, and responses to these hardships inspire them to work hard, achieve their goals, and create a better life for themselves.

**Demographics of Haitian-Americans**

Each year the Haitian-American communities are growing in large numbers in the United States. It is estimated that an average of 13,000 Haitians received their visas to emigrate into the U.S. annually from 1999-2003 (U.S. Department of State and the CIA, 2003). The results from Census 2000 indicated that there were 548,199 people from Haiti in the United States. The foreign-born from Haiti represented 1.3% of the United States' total foreign-born population of 31.1 million. Of the 281.4 million people in the United States, the foreign-born from Haiti accounted for 0.2% of the total population. In the early 1990s, Haitian-Americans almost exclusively lived on the north and south Atlantic seaboard. The five states with the largest populations of foreign-born from Haiti were Connecticut, Florida, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and New York. Combined, these five states constituted 91.0% of the total foreign-born population from Haiti (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). Interestingly enough, Florida alone accounts for over 230,000 Haitians inhabiting the United States.
According to Zephir (2004), there are roughly 250,000 first-generation Haitian-Americans and roughly 750,000 second-generation Haitian-Americans. Of the estimated 1 million Haitian-Americans, 25% are first generation and the remaining 75% are second-generation immigrants (Zephir, 2004). Catanese (1998) analyzed demographic information from the 1990 United States Census and found that 78% of Haitian-Americans who lived in the U.S. reportedly are 40 years old or younger.

**Cultural Aspects**

The primary languages of Haitians are Creole and French. One of the benefits of living in America is that many Haitian-Americans have adopted a third language. Saiz and Zoido (2005) measured the benefits of learning a foreign language. Data were collected from the Baccalaureate and Beyond Longitudinal Study and from the National Center for Education Statistics. This study included information on 9,274 college graduates who received their Bachelor’s degrees during the 1992-1993 academic year. Twenty-three percent of the participants spoke French. The participants may or may not have included Haitian-American graduates. The findings suggested that speaking a foreign language is rewarded in the labor market and that the earnings of college graduates who speak more than one language are higher than the earnings of those who do not speak a second or third language.

Along with that, code switching, a phenomenon that includes the use of complete sentences, phrases, and borrowed words from another language, is used by many Haitian-Americans as well as other bilingual students (Hughes, Shaunessy, & Brice 2006). Code switching, which has been traditionally viewed as a disadvantage and characterized as a trait of the semiliterate, has been shown to be an intellectual advantage for students. Such
a phenomenon is indicative of significant critical-thinking skills and is a hallmark of advanced cognitive development (Hughes et al., 2006).

With additive bilingualism, students have a solid base in their primary language and the second language adds to their linguistic repertoire. In the communication process, speakers have a range of language choices and select the language that most closely conceptualizes the meaning, the humor, or the social purpose that is needed. Code switching then becomes a social, cultural and linguistic tool that allows them to integrate their experiences of two languages and two cultures into a cohesive whole. (Hughes et al., 2006, p. 10)

Along with the languages spoken by many Haitian-Americans, there are other unique elements of Haitian-American culture. Typically, Haitian-Americans are categorized into two distinct groups. Zephir (2001) conducted a qualitative research study with 125 Haitian-American university students from New York and found that the first group includes those born in the United States, who have always lived in this country, as well as those born in Haiti, who came at an early age (typically 18 and younger). This group was schooled in the United States, and may not have spent any time, or a considerable amount of time, in Haiti since their arrival. These individuals tended to be fluent speakers of English, and some may have had an active or passive knowledge of Creole and in rare occasions, French (Zephir, 2001, p. 6). Zephir (2001) suggested that because of their proficiency as English speakers, they tended to have more ethnic options at their disposal. Meaning, they could choose to reveal their Haitian identity or conceal their Haitian identity entirely. The second group consisted of those born in Haiti who came to the United States in their 20s or later and identified themselves more with Haitian cultures and values (Zephir, 2001, p. 102).

To understand the components of the two groups, Labissiere (1995) conducted a study on the race and ethnicity among second-generation Haitian-American youth in
South Florida. Labissiere’s (1995) study was based on interviews with Haitians who lived in Florida. The data comprised responses by those interviewed about what they considered to be part of their identity. Respondents were asked about such things as their use of French, their attitudes towards other African Americans not of Haitian decent, and about their reactions to discrimination. The study concluded that there were, indeed, two types of Haitian-Americans, which he identified as a centralized group and a marginalized group. Zephir (2001) suggested that the centralized members are those who strongly identified themselves as members of the Haitian community. They seemed to have a strong sense of loyalty to their Haitian roots; Creole and/or French are their preferred language(s); and their mannerisms or style reflect those from the island.

In contrast, marginalized members are ‘only moderately identified with the group’ and are not readily recognized as members of it (presumably because of lack of salient Haitian characteristics, including language, mannerism, or style). (Zephir, 2001, p. 64)

Examples of “marginalized” Haitians might include those born in the United States, whose dominant language is English and who exhibit American “popular cultural styles” (Zephir, 2001, p. 64). Although there are differences in the approach of Haitian-Americans as they assimilate in the United States, both groups know that they have to adjust to the American way since their academic and/or financial success depends a great deal on their ability to make such an adjustment (Zephir, 1996).

According to Zephir (2001), Haitians’ identity choices are based on their socioeconomic conditions and constraints imposed by the macrocontext and microcontext. She explained macrocontext to mean the external environment, whereas microcontext represents the totality of social and cultural factors present within their ethnic families and communities (p. 114).
Their experiences can be conceived as a ‘trialectic’ of past, present, and future. The past represents their ethnic roots, that is, their country of origin, the history of their families, and the people to whom they belong. The present they know is their current life in America and the events that occur in their daily existence, both pleasant and unpleasant, in their familial context as well as in the outside environment. The future embodies their aspirations for a place and an identity of their own as they come of age. (Zephir, 2001, p. 114)

Laguerre (1998) cited a dissertation study conducted by Woldemikeal in 1989 of Haitian students in Evanston, Illinois. He reported that Woldemikeal interviewed and observed Haitian students and found that Haitian students were being pressured in many different ways by teachers, administrators, and the student body in general to behave like African Americans. Laguerre (1998, p. 21) concluded that “the second generation increasingly conforms to the expectations of the American society rather than those of the Haitian community.” He suggested that with increasing interaction with their Black American peers, younger generations of Haitians became less distinct from Black Americans (Laguerre, 1998).

Unlike the second generation of Haitian-Americans, according to Zephir (2004), typically the first-generation Haitians manifested a desire to remain Haitian as opposed to becoming identified as Black Americans. Although they believed in the concept of racial equality, they tended to be individuals who valued more their self-identity as Haitians. Their feelings of belonging to a proud tradition explained their sense of self-worth and purpose.

When asked how they choose to refer to themselves in the United States, out of a variety of possible options including African-American, American, West Indian, or Caribbean, the overwhelming majority responded Haitian. In their minds, the label Haitian expresses more the positive meanings of Blackness than does Black Americans perceived by many first-generation Haitian immigrants to be too stigmatized. (Zephir, 2004, p. 121)
Nevertheless, there are also those who have gone to great lengths to conceal any trace of their Haitian identity (Zephir, 2001). This undercover phenomenon is when a person with Haitian background completely denies his/her heritage and is drawn into American monoculturalism. “They endeavor to camouflage as much evidence of their origin as they can. For them, Haiti and Haitians are symbols of shame and embarrassment and constant reminders of a difficult past that must be discarded” (Zephir, 2001, p. 99).

**Uneducated Haitian-Americans**

Using information from the *1995 Almanac*, U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service *Annual Report*, and U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service *Statistical Yearbook* on Haitian-Americans, Colin and Paperwalla (2003) indicated that many uneducated, undocumented, and illiterate Haitian-Americans experienced difficulty in entering the job market. Their job opportunities were restricted to working in employment situations where one could find overcrowding, poor ventilation, and high pollution, which placed them at high risk for occupational diseases. Many of those with little to no education were at times left to work at dead-end jobs. Those individuals were found in hotels, hospitals, and other service industries where they worked in domestic and nursing assistant roles. Colin and Paperwalla (2003) found that many uneducated Haitian immigrants tended to settle for menial, low-paying jobs that many North Americans would not accept even when unemployed. Furthermore, many of those Haitians without formal education appeared to strive only hard enough to afford the necessities of life.

Based on the data collected on Haitians in America from the 1990 United States Census, Catanese (1998) found that most uneducated Haitian-Americans were found in
the lower end of the earnings distribution. Among them, the Haitian-American women tended to try their best to get connected to private sectors for work, and ended up working in low-paying, nonprofessional jobs (Catanese, 1998). “They were heavily dependent on the services industry, the service occupation, and the private sector for employment” (Catanese, 1998, p. 23). Their salaries typically fell in the $10,000-19,999 range. Further, Catanese (1998) noted that the overall percentages of uneducated Haitian-Americans who fell within that range, compared with the percentages of all other immigrants, were high and appeared to be growing over time. In the next highest earnings range, $20,000-$29,999, there was overall similarity between Haitian-Americans and other immigrants.

Educated Haitian-Americans

Colin and Paperwalla’s (2003) literature review indicated that in Haiti, even though the people value education, only 15% are privileged enough to attain a formal education. They indicated that one of the reasons why very few are able to receive formal education is because in the past, their government appropriated only 1.8% of the total budget toward education. The impoverished state of Haiti has caused many Haitian women to come to the United States to pursue higher education. Here in the United States, thousands of Haitian women are searching for ways to achieve their educational goals (Rodriguez, 2002).

Using data from the Children of Immigrant Longitudinal Study (CILS), Rodriguez’s (2002) study of 2,500 immigrants, including Haitians, showed that those who came from economically deprived countries tended to do well in school regardless of the challenges; in their minds they knew that no matter how bad things were here, they
were still better off than in their own countries. More specifically, Rodriguez stated that in order for many Haitian women to obtain their educational goals, many had to leave their country, and even their families, to come to a foreign land, where the culture and language were different from their own. Regardless of the challenges, the privilege of obtaining an education in America seems to provide better jobs, opportunities, and life for them (Rodriguez, 2002).

Norris-Tirrell’s (2002) study collected surveys from 561 individuals from four immigrant groups (Nicaraguans, Haitians, Central Americans, and Mexicans) living in Florida. Based on the data collected from that study, findings indicated that Haitians had the highest percentage reporting that they speak (40%), read (25.5%), and write (23.2%) English. This quantitative study found that most immigrants’ future plans included becoming a U.S. citizen, remaining in their current location, bringing their families to the United States, but above all, getting an education while learning English. Those who strive hard tend to pursue and accomplish these goals despite the obstacles that they might come across.

Despite the many responsibilities and struggles Haitian-American women face, a number of them enroll in colleges each year in the hope of one day receiving higher-educational degrees (Colin & Paperwalla, 2003). Once they have obtained their degrees, Colin and Paperwalla (2003) indicated that in North America, the educated Haitians seek job opportunities in their field. Those who have a trade try to find employment in that area. It is important to note that the professions chosen by Haitian women mirror those of North American society; they are lawyers, physicians, nurses, engineers, educators, electricians, plumbers, and construction workers (Colin & Paperwalla, 2003). With this
Exploring Educational Factors

There are a number of factors discussed in educational research that have been found to promote and/or diminish academic excellence. Many of those studies failed to identify specific minority subgroups that may or may not have been included in the research. This section highlights educational research on factors contributing to academic success.

Attribution Theory

Weiner’s concept of Attribution Theory, a form of motivation theory, strived to identify the components of success and failure for academics (Tollefson, 2000). The main idea behind the Attribution Theory is that there are intrapersonal as well as interpersonal factors that address how individuals explain their successes and failures (Tollefson, 2000). The results of the following research studies have attributed students’ academic success to a variety of interpersonal and/or intrapersonal factors.

Bye, Pushkar, and Conway’s (2007) research study analyzed motivation among 300 undergraduate students. Of the participants, 50% were in the field of arts and sciences, 20% in the field of business, 20% in the field of engineering, and 10% were in other fields. The race of the participants was not identified; therefore they may or may not have included Haitian-American students in this study. The participants completed questionnaires to provide data. The findings suggested that both interest and age were
significant predictors of intrinsic motivation for learning in undergraduates. Furthermore, the study concluded that there was a positive correlation between motivation and college learning experience.

Data collected from 299 former college students from a small Midwestern private women’s college were used by some researchers to examine predictors of academic success (Kirby et al., 2007). The researchers found that students who indicated a need for financial aid tended to have higher grades than those who did not indicate a financial need. Furthermore, among non-White students, high-school grades and high-school rank significantly predicted college GPA (Kirby et al., 2007). While the results of this study may be relevant to Haitian-American women because they have been included in the non-Whites category, the researchers made no reference to Haitian-American women.

Choa and Good’s (2004) qualitative research explored 43 college students’ perspectives on their college education. The results of this study identified five important internal resources that enhanced their learning and explained their reasons for being students: motivation, financial investment, career development, life transition, and support systems. The ethnic identity of the 43 college students may or may not have included Haitian-American students. This study made no reference to the ethnicity of its participants.

Collier and Morgan (2008) used focus groups to examine the fit between university faculty members’ expectations and students’ understanding of those expectations. Sixty-three students participated in eight focus groups, and 15 faculty members participated in two focus groups in order for data to be collected. Collier and Morgan (2008) did not indicate the race of the participants, so the groups may or may not
have included Haitian-American students. The findings suggested that students who did not understand the professors’ expectations about how many hours a week they should study did not allocate sufficient time to master course skills. Overall, this study highlights the importance of time management for college success.

A qualitative study conducted by a group of researchers explored the interrelationships of religion, spirituality, and career development among 12 Black undergraduate students (Constantine, Miville, & Warren, 2006). Black students in this study may or may not have included Haitian-Americans students. The researchers found that for Black students, spirituality seemed to be a dominant factor in their career development. Further, they tended to incorporate spirituality in college more so when they were faced with difficult experiences. This study concluded that spiritual activities, such as praying, reading the Bible, and attending church, provided specific concrete activities by which Black students alleviate academic and career stress.

Spitzer’s (2000) study examined academic value, intrinsic motivation, self-regulation, and social support among 355 college students, of which 168 were females. It is unknown if any of the participants in this study were Haitian-American women. To collect data, Spitzer administered a questionnaire to the participants. This study suggested that self-regulation is a reliable predictor of academic performance. Among traditional college-age students, Spitzer indicated that academic performance can be predicted by such internal factors as self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, self-esteem, and social support.

Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies conducted by Laar (2000) examined differences in attributions, expectancies, and self-esteem between 134 African American and 395 White college students. At various stages of their college careers, the students
completed questionnaires that measured their expectancies, attributions, and self-esteem. The results indicated that African-American students who attributed their lower outcomes to low ability were likely to have low expectancies, because they perceived internal stable characteristics to be responsible for their outcomes. Furthermore, Black students who made external attributions for failure but internal attributions for success, were most likely to exhibit high academic motivation. For the Black students, lower actual academic performance correlated directly to the extent to which one attributed external factors to outcome. Finally, this study indicated that the higher the self-esteem of a student, the more academically motivated was the student. The researchers in this study used the terms African-American and Blacks interchangeably throughout the research. However, this study may or may not have included Haitian-American students specifically.

The purpose of a study conducted by Saunders, Davis, Williams, and Williams (2004) was to explore gender differences in the relationship between self-perceptions, which include self-esteem, racial self-esteem, academic self-efficacy, and importance of completing school to self, and two academic outcomes (intention to complete school year and grade point average) among a sample of 243 African American students from an urban school in the Midwest. The participants completed a survey. The results indicated that females were more favorably oriented toward high-school completion. In addition, the researchers concluded that high grade-point average was more positively correlated with greater self-efficacy for females than for males. While the results may appear to be relevant to all Black students, it is unknown if any of the participants in this study were Haitian-American students.
A qualitative study conducted by Hwang, Echols, and Vrongistinos (2002) examined the possible motivation modes of 60 high-achieving African American college students and the pathways associated with the students’ selection of college majors, their perception of education, and their reasons for studying. All 60 students identified themselves as Black or African Americans; thus, this study may or may not include Haitian-American students. Nevertheless, 37 were females. When asked their reasons for choosing their majors, more than half indicated an intrinsic reason; 60% indicated that they were influenced by their teachers or parents to choose their career path. Another 40% attributed empathy to their major choice. Those students believed that it was important for them to choose a career that will contribute to someone else’s well-being.

Furthermore, when analyzing the students’ perception of educational values, the results indicated that those students viewed education as a means that provided them with opportunities (48.3%), self-fulfillment (43.3), and money (5%). Last, when asked their reasons for studying, 43% attributed their reasons to wanting to learn or having an interest in learning, and 55% indicated that they studied for high grade performance and class preparedness. Overall, the high achievers’ intentions and goals in this study were associated with multiple motivational factors such as intrinsic, extrinsic, present, future, and social goals. The students in this study perceived extrinsic motivations as a positive factor when they related to their future goals such as getting a good job and having a successful life.

Using research gathered from a total of 155 students from a metropolitan university in Southeastern United States, Daire, LaMothe, and Fuller (2007) examined the differences between Black/African American and White college students’ high-school
completion, college attendance, and career choice. The students were asked to complete a questionnaire. The findings suggested that future income and status have a greater influence on the career choice made by Black/African American college students than on the career choice made by White college students. This study may or may not have included Haitian-American students.

Gerardi (2006) conducted a longitudinal (3-year) study that examined the relationship between positive college students’ attitudes and academic outcomes. Questionnaires were collected from 121 students from a college in New York City. The findings suggested that students with positive attitudes toward their college experience had greater academic achievements than those who had negative attitudes. This research also showed that students’ satisfaction with their college experience was important. Gerardi (2006) explained that students’ satisfaction with their college experiences may determine the students’ persistence and performance in school.

In Eskilson and Wiley’s (1999) study, 462 college students from four institutions were asked to think ahead 10 years and rate the importance of success in various life domains to their future satisfaction. The students were also asked to indicate possible obstacles they believe they might have to overcome. Sixty-five percent identified themselves as White, 12% African American, 11% Hispanic, 8% Asian-American, and 2% biracial. The researchers found that minority respondents with highly educated parents rated family as more important than any other groups. Minority students with less educated parents rated family as the least important factor to their future satisfaction. Further, among minority women, those whose parents had a college education rated economic success as more important than did those whose parents had not graduated.
from college. Finally, with regard to race, Black students rated spiritual factors as more important than did White students. Moreover, women with more educated parents rated spiritual factors as more important to future life satisfaction than any other groups. Haitian-Americans have often fit in the minority categories; however, it is unknown if they were included in this study.

After finding empirical studies that indicated that there was a strong positive correlation between family incomes and educational attainment, DesJardins et al. (2002) conducted research using 3,070 students from a university in Minnesota to investigate factors that promoted college graduation. DesJardins et al. (2002) used institutional data and information from part of the ACT Assessment known as the Student Profile Questionnaire to conduct his study. In their research, DesJardins et al. (2002) found that college preparation, parental income, and grades were important factors that enabled students to pursue higher education. They indicated that poorly prepared students found college more difficult and thus were less likely to graduate. DesJardins et al. (2002) suggested that students who entered college without career goals, tended to delay the process and several did not finish. “Our conjecture is that students who believe they know the area of study they will pursue are less likely to ‘muddle’ while enrolled in college and are therefore more likely to finish in a timely manner” (DesJardins et al., 2002, p. 555). Consequently, they suggested, that whenever students come to college without clearly defined goals in mind, an overload of options may lead them to failure (DesJardins et al., 2002). Regarding family income, DesJardins et al.’s (2002) study revealed that there was a positive correlation between parents’ income and student
graduation rate. Nevertheless, financial aid was found to effectively increase access to college.

Social Capital Theory

Coleman’s concept of social capital refers to the social networks and social interactions that facilitate educational attainment. According to St. John (2006), this theory provides ways of revealing the roles of family and community support in preparation for and success in college. This theory does consider the role of family finances in relation to success. However, Social Capital Theory does consider the role of financial aid in college success of students (St. John, 2006). The following research examined the relationship between factors relating to the concepts of this theory and academic success.

Research conducted by Brower and Ketterhagen (2004) explored the college success of 1,079 students at six universities; 356 of those students were identified as Black, and 723 were identified as White students. This study may or may not have included Haitian-American students. The students completed surveys for data to be collected. Brower and Ketterhagen shared that, based on the 2001 U.S. Census, 70% of all high-school graduates enter some form of higher education. The findings suggested that the vast majority enter college expecting to be successful in college. Overall, successful students know how to interact with peers and with faculty and staff, how to access needed resources, and how to take advantage of important collegiate opportunities.

Research conducted by Bui (2002) examined the background characteristics of 143 first-generation college students at a 4-year university. The purpose was to determine the reasons why the students pursued higher education and to share some of their
experiences in college. The findings in Bui’s (2002) study indicated that students whose parents had some college experience but no degree were more likely to worry about financial aid for college than those whose parents had at least a Bachelor’s degree. Last, this study concluded that first-generation college students were more likely to be ethnic minority students, to come from a lower socioeconomic background, to speak a language other than English at home, and to score lower on the SAT than were other students (Bui, 2002). Haitian-American students may or may not have been included in this study.

Using data from the U.S Census in 2000 and the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Kodrzycki (2004) explored reasons for the differential college gaps by race across regions. Kodrzycki (2004) found that academic resources and affordability of college are relevant factors that account for educational success. Furthermore, the data showed that, in 2000, 27.1% of White students received their college degree, whereas only 14.5% of Black students completed college. The study did not indicate how many were Haitian-American students. Therefore, Haitian-American students may or may not have been included in this study. This study indicated that students’ college enrollment decisions appeared to be heavily influenced by their parents’ education, family income, and academic performance in high school.

De La Rosa (2006) examined the perceptions of incoming college students from low-income background regarding financial aid. Using the 2004 College Access and Financial Aid Survey, De La Rosa’s (2006) research examined the responses provided by 3,609 low-income students in the 11th and 12th grades. The findings suggested that financial aid was still confusing to a portion of students regardless of their parents’ education. College was most likely viewed as expensive by students whose parents had a
low level of education. Last, the results suggested that parents with less educational background (high-school diploma or less) wanted more education for their offspring compared to those parents with higher educational levels. De La Rosa’s (2006) study concluded that parents’ education was only one of many factors associated with low-income students’ college enrollment; parent involvement in financial assistance is another important factor connected to students’ college enrollment.

Graunke and Woosley (2005) examined the experiences and attitudes affecting academic success among 1,166 sophomore students. The ethnicities of the students were not identified. This study may or may not have included Haitian-American students. The researchers found that commitment to an academic major and satisfaction with faculty interactions were significant predictors of GPA (Graunke & Woosley, 2005). Moreover, the extent to which faculty members interacted with their students and showed genuine concerns about their academic success appeared to have an impact on students’ academic performance (Graunke & Woosley, 2005).

Pitre’s (2006) study examined African American and White students’ aspirations for college attendance. The study also analyzed students’ perception of how well high school was preparing them for college. The study utilized a survey to collect data from 231 students. The sample included 73 African American students, 114 White students, and 54 other students. Thus, this study may or may not have included Haitian-American students. Findings revealed that there was no significant difference in the likelihood that African American students would aspire to attend college when compared to Whites. Nevertheless, it was shown that students in the “other” category were more likely to aspire to college attendance when compared to their White peers. Last, the researcher
concluded that academic achievement is an important aspect of college choice in that it affects students’ ability to maintain their aspirations for college because parents, teachers, and counselors are more likely to support the aspirations of those students who display higher levels of academic achievement.

Using a quantitative method to analyze data, Chee et al. (2005) investigated gender differences in terms of academic ethic and academic achievement among 675 college students from Georgia Southern University; 47% were men, 53% were women. Out of those numbers, 71% were White, and 29% were labeled as non-White. This study suggested that female students’ background, as measured by parents’ education and race, mattered in academic performance. Further, the researchers suggested that women assessed the value of education not only through the traditional means of income, status, and career ladders, but also through familial and community roles. Additionally, this study concluded that female students, relative to male students, may have developed and maintained closer relationships with their professors and parents. A good relationship between student and teacher and/or between student and parent appears to motivate one to fulfill their teacher and/or parents’ expectation. Overall, the researchers determined that students’ academic achievement was largely determined by their social capital (Chee et al., 2005).

Falconer and Hays (2006) explored career development of African American students. The researchers examined the career influences of 13 Black college students in an attempt to gain knowledge about suggestions for improving career services for minorities at a Midwestern university. Data were collected from focus group discussions based on a semi-structured and open-ended format. The participants may or may not have
included Haitian-American students. The results showed that Black students acknowledged several factors that influenced their academic and career development. The following factors were mentioned: a positive connection with teachers; a positive influence from peers; family and community expectations; and a strong belief in the efficacy of mentors and networking. Overall, the findings suggested that the support systems from teachers, family members, friends, and other students are very influential in the career and academic development of African-American college students.

Cabrera, Nora, and Terenzini’s (1999) study examined the claims that academic preparedness for college is one of the main factors accounting for differences in persistence behavior between African-American and White students. It also examined the claim that successful adjustment to college involves severing ties with family and past communities. The subjects in this study were 1,454 students, of whom 315 were identified as Black students and 1,139 White students. The participants may or may not have included Haitian-American students. The results revealed that African-American students reported having less previous preparation for college than their White counterparts. In addition, both African-American and White students indicated that parental encouragement and support facilitated their transition into the academic and social realms of the institution, enhanced their commitments to both the goal of college completion and to the institution, and increased their likelihood to persist in college. Last, for African-Americans, gains in qualitative skills, analytical thinking, and appreciation of fine arts appeared to be dependent upon positive interactions with faculty, beneficial experiences with students, and prior academic ability.
Using a national survey database sponsored by the NCES, Titus (2006) studied the influence of the low SES on the chance of college completion for students. The database provided information of 5,776 students, which may or may not have included Haitian-Americans from 400 colleges and universities. The results of that study indicated that the chance of college completion was positively influenced by SES. The chance of completing college was also positively influenced by enrolling in private institutions. Furthermore, the results indicated that compared to White students, African-American and Hispanic students had a lower chance of completing college. Last, low SES students were enrolled in institutions that had fewer available financial resources to help students graduate.

Walpole (2008) examined the college experience of African-American students in 4-year colleges and universities. Walpole’s study compiled information from 2,400 students, which may or may not have included Haitian-Americans, from more than 200 colleges using survey methods to collect and analyze data. Findings indicated that low SES students reported less contact with faculty, spent less time studying, worked more, and achieved lower grades that higher SES students. Additionally, although low SES students’ aspirations for Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees were higher than high SES students, their desire for doctoral, medical, and law degrees were lower than high SES students. This research suggests that students’ SES background can be an important factor when considering college experiences and outcomes.

Research conducted by Walker and Satterwhite (2002) assessed the role of the family on academic performance among African-American and Caucasian college students at a midsize mid-Atlantic institution. The researchers investigated the
relationship between family functioning, family status, and demographic variables with academic performance for African-American and Caucasian college students. Their sample size consisted data collected from 212 students (109 Caucasians, 83 African-Americans, 19 others, and 1 unidentified). This study may or may not have included Haitian-American students. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher was used to analyze the data for African-Americans and Caucasians separately. The students completed the questionnaire that included 82 items. Based on the data collected, it was concluded that the college experience was different for African-American and Caucasian students. African-American students from predominantly White universities often experienced higher levels of stress, had lower persistence rates, and lower self-esteem than their White counterparts due to their minority status. Furthermore, in this study, family structure was not found to be related to academic performance. However, the study concluded that students who reported more family support were more likely to complete their college education. Students from single-parent homes performed equally as well as those from two-parent homes, across ethnic groups. Lastly, parental involvement seemingly impacts students’ persistence rate, adjustment level, and self-confidence.

Kitano (1998) conducted a qualitative study with 15 highly accomplished African-American women. The purpose of this study was to identify strategies used to achieve success. The participants were identified as either African-Americans or West Indians. Haitian-American women may or may not have been included in this study. The findings suggested that the majority of participants, across parent educational levels, described their families as encouraging of education and school achievement. Overall, the findings concluded that gifted African-American women can attain high levels of
achievement regardless of family structures, economic level, country of origin, or level of parent or community support for educational achievement.

Sociocultural Theory

Alfred (2003) suggested that there are two main assumptions of sociocultural theory. First, the notion of context in sociocultural theory extends beyond physical location to include individual, cultural, social, institutional, and historical locations (Alfred, 2003). Second, all learners are primary members of a defined culture with a cultural identity; the degree to which they engage in learning is a function of this cultural identity. “Thus, when a person learns, they construct their own knowledge and meaning according to what they already know, within the social, historical, and linguistic contexts of their learning” (Alfred, 2003, p. 245).

Although the interpretations, themes, and meanings of Sociocultural Theory may vary, they typically involve ideas on human development and learning from social interactional, cultural, linguistic, institutional, and historical context (Alfred, 2003; Doehler & Mondada, 2004; Valenzuela et al., 2000). For example, according to Nasir and Hand (2006), Sociocultural Theory involves several central themes which include and state the following: (a) development and learning occur on multiple levels simultaneously (moment-to-moment, over months and years, and over historical and phylogenetics time); (b) cultural practices are an important unit of analysis for understanding developmental processes; (c) cultural tools and artifacts (including language) fundamentally influence learning and development and are mediators of psychological processes; (d) social others and social interactional processes play a key role in learning and development; and
(e) learning is constituted by changing relations in these social relationships, and the social world.

Analyzing data from the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1998-94 database, Kim (2005) examined conditions that eased students’ transition to college. This study focused primarily on students of immigrant parents. The number of participants and their ethnic background were not mentioned in the study; Haitian-Americans may or may not have been included. Results suggested that the alignment of parents’ and students’ goals increased student odds of attending a postsecondary institution the year after high-school graduation. More specifically, students whose parents reported frequently discussing academic issues with their teenagers were more likely to attend college. Further, parents who were fluent in a foreign language developed stronger identity-bonding with their children and had a greater commitment to advancing their children’s education. This research concluded that active participation in postsecondary school guidance by parents is more beneficial to students whose parents have lower levels of educational attainment.

The purpose of Bailey and Weininger’s (2002) study was to compare foreign-born and native minority college students in terms of the number of credits they earned and the likelihood of them transferring to a 4-year program and completing an associate and/or a Bachelor’s degree; 8,332 students responded to a survey from which data were collected. Findings indicated that foreign-born students appeared to have higher levels of educational achievement than did native students. Foreign-born students earned more credits and were more likely to complete an associate degree. In addition, foreign-born students who attended high school in the United States were more likely than native-born
students to transfer to a Bachelor’s program. Finally, female foreign-born students were less likely to enter a Bachelor’s program than their male counterparts. Although this study indicated that 50% of the students were from the Caribbean, the names of all the countries were not mentioned. Therefore, Haitian-Americans may or may not have been included in this study.

The purpose of a quantitative study conducted by Jackson, Kacanski, Rust, and Beck (2006) was to investigate the relationships between perceived barriers and supports to progress towards achieving the school, work, and life aspirations of low-income, inner-city, African American, Hispanic, and Caribbean immigrant youth. This study proposed three hypotheses: (a) higher levels of beliefs in the limitations of education are associated with lower educational and career aspirations; (b) less recent immigration status is associated with higher beliefs in the limitations of education and lower educational and career aspirations; and (c) higher levels of support are associated with lower beliefs in the limitations of education and higher educational and career aspirations. A total of 66 students participated in this study. Seventy-one percent were females, 49% were African-Americans, and 53% came from Caribbean countries. The names of all the Caribbean countries were not mentioned; therefore, it may or may not have included Haitian-American students.

Using a questionnaire, the researchers found that a higher level of beliefs in the limitations of education was significantly associated with lower educational and career aspirations. Further, low-income urban minority youth who were less recent immigrants had higher beliefs in the limitations of education for attaining future economic rewards and lower educational and career aspirations. Finally, this study did not find that higher
levels of perceived support were associated with lower beliefs in the limitations of education and higher educational and career aspirations.

Data collected from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health, which consisted of survey responses provided by 15,170 students, was applied in Perreira, Harris, and Lee’s (2006) study to examine the education of first-generation Hispanic, Asian, and African heritage students. This study may or may not have included Haitian-American students. The researchers found that first-generation youth of Hispanic, Asian, and African heritage obtained more education than their parents. Moreover, second-, third-, and higher-generation Blacks living in more ethnically mixed communities experienced a greater risk of dropping out. Furthermore, the findings suggested that dropout rates seemed to be the lowest among immigrant children and highest among the native (third- and higher-generation) youth. Last, the researchers found that first-generation students were more likely to transform cultural aspects of their lives into academic success than their U.S.-born peers.

In this section, educational research supporting Attribution Theory, Social Capital Theory, and Sociocultural Theory was discussed. The literature reviewed focused on educational factors and their relationship to academic success of students. Many of those studies did not identify Haitian-Americans or Haitian-American women specifically in their minority groups. However, Laguerre’s (1998) study provides a likely explanation for this phenomenon since he demonstrated that Haitian-Americans were becoming less distinct from Black Americans.
Summary

This chapter examined literature pertaining to Haitian-American women and education. It provided an overview of the history of women in education and a synopsis of Haitian history followed by cultural information on Haitians. Next, statistical information regarding the education of Haitian-Americans was discussed. Finally, this chapter examined various studies that explore factors contributing to academic success of educators.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The aim of this research was to identify factors that contribute to the educational success of Haitian-American women. Educational success in this research is defined as completing and graduating from college with at least a Bachelor’s degree from college. This chapter will discuss the methodology used for this research study. It will identify the type of research design used, population and sample, data collection procedure, variables in the study, instrumentation, null hypotheses, and statistical analysis.

Type of Research Design

A survey research method was used in this study. A quantitative approach was taken when analyzing the data from the surveys. Designing a quantitative research involves procedures for choosing the participants, data collection techniques (such as questionnaires), procedures for gathering data, and procedures for analyzing the data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 165). The quantitative research method presents statistical results represented with numbers (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 15). This type of research provides numerical description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of the population being studied (Creswell, 2003). Survey research is the type of quantitative method I chose for this study. “In survey research the investigator selects a
sample of respondents and administers a questionnaire or conducts interviews to collect information on variables of interest” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 304). According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001), survey research is very popular in education because it provides credible information that can be collected at a relatively low cost. Furthermore, with survey research, a small sample can be selected from a larger population in ways that permit generalizations on the population.

**Population and Sample**

**Participants**

Participants in the study were Haitian-American women with college degrees accessed as a result of telephone, email, and written correspondence with the project director of the National Haitian Student Alliance. The subjects for this study came from a compiled list of alumni from various universities associated with the National Haitian Student Alliance (NHSA). Currently, this association is connected with a number of colleges and graduates students from several schools, including University of Massachusetts, Seton Hall University, Andrews University, University of South Florida, University of Miami, University of New York, and New Jersey University. With the agreement to assist in this research, the NHSA project director provided a list of contact information, which included names, phone numbers, addresses, and/or email addresses of prospective participants. The list contained contact information of 250 prospective participants that fit the criteria for this study. With the assistance of the NHSA project director, the sample size needed to conduct this research was conveniently selected. A conveniently selected sample is defined as a group of subjects chosen on the basis of being accessible (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).
While this type of sample makes it easier to conduct research, there are important limitations. There is no precise way of generalizing from the sample to any type of population. This means that caution is needed in generalizing. (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 175)

Sample Size

Currently, the total population size of Haitian-American women who have college degrees is unknown. It was anticipated that a total of 200 Haitian-American women with college degrees would participate in this research based on the list of 250 contact information provided by the NHSA project director. Nevertheless, 213 Haitian-American women with college degrees agreed and participated in this study.

Instrumentation

Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women

The instrument that was used to collect data for this research is called Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women. Section 1 of this particular instrument was adopted from an existing questionnaire entitled Inventory of Academic Success of Female Administrators by Pauline Torres (2003) with modification (see Appendix G). Dr. Torres (2003) designed her instrument to measure factors pertaining to the academic success of Mexican-American women administrators. The Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women measures variables pertaining to the academic success of Haitian-American women with college degrees. More specifically, the demographic section from Torres’s (2003) inventory was adjusted to fit the present research. The formats are similar in that the instruments consist of two sections; Section 1 contains the demographic questions, and Section 2 contains questions relating to factors of academic
success. Permission was granted to me by Pauline Torres to adopt the inventory to suit this research (see Appendix D).

Section 1 of the Inventory of Academic Success of Female Administrators contains nine demographic questions. Out of those nine demographic questions, four were adjusted and used in Inventory of College Success for Haitian American Women because they were relevant to the Haitian-American women population. The following four were used from Dr. Torres’s (2003) inventory: “Ethnicity,” “Education,” “Annual household income,” and “Education level of your mother.” In addition, seven demographic questions were added to the Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women in order to conduct this research and test the independent variables in this study. Demographic questions about the following were added to the inventory: Education level of your father; Number of years taken to obtain your college degree; GPA in undergraduate; GPA in high school; Field of study; and Place of birth; and Location of current residency.

Section 2 of the Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women consists of 16 items pertaining to factors contributing to educational success. The questions were formulated based on previous research studies. The first question in Section 2 relates to language acquisition. This question is based on Saiz and Zoido’s (2005) studies on bilingualism that concluded that language acquisition was an asset for college graduates. The second question is based on Cabrera et al.’s (1999) study which suggested that educational background, more specifically prior academic ability, is an important factor for academic success. This question aims to identify whether prior academic achievements are factors that support educational success.
Questions 3-5 in Section 2 explore the importance of support and level of satisfaction they received from the colleges they attended and if these factors contributed to educational success. These questions were formulated because of Chee et al.’s (2005) and Falconer and Hays’s (2006) studies that suggested that the involvement and support of communities and organizations help promote academic achievements among students. Question 6 in Section 2 is based on De La Rosa’s (2006) study, which depicted that families’ socioeconomic level and support are important factors in predicting minority student academic success. Thus, the sixth question relates to the importance of family support in achieving academic success.

Question 7 in Section 2 took in account Pitre’s (2006) findings that students’ academic performance in high school is a factor that determines college academic success. More specifically, the seventh question intended to determine if the vigor of high-school curriculum contributes to educational success. Question 8 in Section 2 is based on Collier and Morgan’s (2008) study which suggested that time management is a factor that can determine college success. Questions 9-11 in Section 2 pertain to students’ access to resources, financial assistance, and college tuition. Based on Kodrzycki’s (2004) study, academic resources and affordability of college are also relevant factors when it comes to educational success. Questions 12-14 in Section 2 seek to examine whether self-perception, campuses’ ethnic diversity, and ethnic identity are important factors that aid in the completion of college. According to Zephir (2004), most successful Haitians understand their self-identity and are able to express their sense of self-worth and purpose. Furthermore, Zephir (2004) stated that the majority of Haitians believe in the concept of race equality. According to Spitzer (2000), intrinsic motivation predicts
academic achievement. Thus, question 15 in Section 2 pertains to self-motivation. Colin and Paperwalla’s (2003) study suggested that religion or spirituality is an important factor in the lives of most Haitian-Americans. Therefore, question 16 in Section 2 seeks to identify whether one’s spirituality contributes to educational success.

The items were placed on a Likert rating scale, which required the participants to indicate one of five fixed expressions: Very Important (5), Important (4), Somewhat Important (3), Of Little Importance (2), and Not Important (1). The items were scored from 1 to 5, with the highest score indicating a favorable perception, and the lowest score representing an unfavorable perception regarding the importance of the factors which influenced academic success (see Appendix C).

Validity

In order to establish the content validity of the Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women, I provided the instrument to several experts in the fields of higher education, law, teaching, research, and psychology. The following instruction was given to these experts:

You have been selected to be part of a pilot group for an inventory. In order to make this questionnaire a reliable instrument, your input is vital. Please take the time to analyze each question and indicate whether or not the questions are understandable and if you perceive them to be relevant to this study. Mark (+) for questions that are understandable and/or relevant. Mark (−) for questions that are NOT understandable and/or relevant. Then indicate what needs to be altered.

After incorporating the necessary changes, as recommended by the experts, the final inventory was deemed to have items with content validity of .90 or higher (see Table 1). Validity value of .70 or higher is generally considered acceptable (Gay, 1976).

Reliability
Cronbach’s alpha is a reliability test that requires only a single test administration to provide a unique estimate of the reliability for a given test (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). “Cronbach’s alpha is the average value of the reliability coefficients one would have obtained for all possible combinations of items when split into two half-tests” (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1. The closer Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

The reliability of the Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women was tested after the questionnaires were collected from the participants. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient of the instrument is .75. “An acceptable range of reliability for coefficients for most instruments is .70 to .90” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 245).

**Pilot Study**

In December of 2005, a field study was conducted to examine the accuracy and clarity of the inventory items. Eleven Haitian-American women with higher education from various fields of study were conveniently selected to assist in this process. Two were in the field of science, 3 were in the field of arts, 4 were in the field of education, and 2 were in “other” fields. The selected 11 participants lived either in close proximity or could easily be contacted by phone and email. They provided suggestions and comments on each of the items. After the information was collected from each member, the appropriate revisions were made on the inventory. Appendix B contains the original wording used in the inventory prior to the revisions.
A pilot study was later conducted using 11 participants. They provided suggestions and feedbacks regarding the questionnaire. At the request of the participants, the wording of some questions was changed for a clearer understanding of what was being asked.

Table 1

*Validity of Items*

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**Data Collection Procedure**

First, I applied to Andrews University Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (HSIRB) for permission to conduct this research study (see Appendix F). After receiving HSIRB approval, I sent letters, emailed, and called the project director of the National Haitian Student Alliance to assist in this study. I requested a list of as many
Haitian-American women with college degrees as possible from their database. Once a list of contact information had been compiled, I submitted an introduction of myself and the study, instructional letters, and surveys to 250 prospective participants (see Appendices A and D).

I utilized a web survey website (www.surveyconsole.com) to collect data. The site collected the responses anonymously. Survey Console Email (2006) uses a program that allows me to distribute as well as collect data. Everything is done using an internet browser. The survey builder from Survey Console allowed me to post the questionnaire by pasting the questions into a survey template. An integrated Emailing Engine allowed me to track responses and send email reminders.

The consent information was attached and collected from the survey. All participants indicated that they wished to participate in this study and read the “Participation letter” (see Appendix A). A total of 213 participants participated in this study. Once responses were collected, I downloaded the responses and analyzed the data in SPSS.

**Variables in the Study**

The dependent variables for this project were factors of educational success. These variables included (a) language acquisition, (b) prior academic achievement, (c) level of family support, (d) level of community support, (e) high-school curriculum, (f) access to resources, (g) self-perception, (h) self-motivation, (i) financial assistance, (j) campus ethnic diversity, (k) sense of ethnic identity, (l) spirituality, (m) college/university support, (n) satisfaction with college/university, (o) time management, and (p) affordability of tuition.
The independent variables were selected from the following demographic information: place of birth, fields of study, degrees obtained, number of years to complete college, SES during college, GPA in high school, GPA in college, mother’s education, father’s education and location of current residency. There were three categories of birth location: Haiti, United States, and other. There were three education levels: Bachelor’s degree, Master’s degree, and doctoral degree. There were four areas of study: Sciences, Business, Arts, and Education. There were five GPA levels for high school: 3.5-4.00, 3.0-3.49, 2.5-2.99, 2.0-2.49, and “not applicable.” There were five age levels for when degree(s) was obtained: 20-24, 25-35, 36-45, 46-55, and 56 and above. There were five SES levels: Under $20,000; $20,001-$30,000; $30,001-$40,000; $40,001-$50,000; and above $50,000. There were 4 years of completion possible: 4 or less, 5, 6, 7 or more. There were four educational levels for parents: high-school diploma or less, some college, Bachelor’s degree, and beyond. There were four GPA levels for college: 3.5-4.0, 3.0-3.49, 2.5-2.99, and 2.49 or less. There were three residency groups: Northeast Region, Southeast Region, and “other” regions. “Other” regions include the Midwest, Southwest, and West regions of the United States.

**Descriptive/Null Hypotheses**

The following descriptive analysis was tested: Which of the following success factors do Haitian-American women perceive influenced their educational success: language acquisition, prior academic achievement, level of family support, level of community support, high-school curriculum, access to resources, self-perception, self-motivation, financial assistance, campus ethnic diversity, sense of ethnic identity,
spirituality, college/university support, satisfaction with college/university, time management, and affordability of tuition?

The following null hypotheses were tested:

Null Hypothesis 1: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given between nationalized Haitian-American women and Haitian-American women born in the United States.

Null Hypothesis 2: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among those who received a Bachelor’s, a Master’s, or a doctoral degree.

Null Hypothesis 3: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among those in the fields of sciences, education, business, and arts.

Null Hypothesis 4: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on high-school GPA.

Null Hypothesis 5: Within these the factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on the number of years taken to complete college.

Null Hypothesis 6: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on the annual household income during college.

Null Hypothesis 7: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on their mother’s level of education.
Null Hypothesis 8: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on their father’s level of education.

Null Hypothesis 9: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on college GPA.

Null Hypothesis 10: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on their current location of residency.

**Statistical Analysis**

A parametric procedure, which allows value or absolute numbers to be given to variables, was used because the instrument yielded interval-scaled data for the independent variables. The hypotheses were tested by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with alpha = .01. Since there were numerous Univariate tests done, a more rigidly controlled level of significant difference was set at α= 0.01, in order to reduce the inflation of Type I error. Researchers avoid Type I error, to the degree that the level of significance is high (that is, a .01 level is better than .05 for avoiding Type I errors) (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

When significant differences were found among the sample means, post hoc tests were conducted to determine whether the differences were due to random sampling fluctuation.

For the first question, a descriptive analysis was done to determine the mean scores of each factor in predicting educationally successful Haitian-American women.

Hypotheses 2 through 10 used an ANOVA to compare groups in this study. Group comparisons were made between nationalized Haitian-American women and
Haitian-American women born in America; among Haitian-American women with Bachelor’s, Master’s, and doctoral degrees; among Haitian-American women in the fields of sciences, education, business, and arts; among Haitian-American women whose mothers had a high-school diploma or less, some college, Bachelor’s degree and beyond; among Haitian-Americans whose fathers had a high-school diploma or less, some college, Bachelor’s degree and beyond; among the number of years it took the Haitian-American women to receive their degrees; among the SES of the Haitian-American women during the time they were obtaining their degrees; among their GPAs in high-school; among their GPAs in college; and among their current location of residency.

Summary

This chapter discussed the procedure, instrument, and methodology that were used for this study. A quantitative approach was selected to analyze the data. The participants were conveniently selected from the National Haitian Student Alliance database. The NHSA project director provided me with a list of contact information for 250 Haitian-American women from various colleges and universities that fit this study. The Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women was utilized for this study. A total of 213 Haitian-American women participated. The independent and dependent variables were also included and discussed in this chapter.
CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this study was to explore the factors that influence academic success among Haitian-American women. This chapter presents first the sample description, second the descriptive statistics of all scales, and then the data findings obtained from all hypothesis testing.

Sample Description

Haitian-American women who held at least a 4-year college degree from various states were surveyed. According to the project director of the National Haitian Student Alliance, there are an estimated 500 members in the association (graduates and non-graduates alike). Of the members, it was uncertain of how many were college graduates alone. The director compiled a list of 250 members who would be able to participate in this study. Although the survey was sent to 250 Haitian-Americans college graduates, 213 participated in this study, representing a response rate of 85%. No reasons were given from those who did not participate.

Descriptive Characteristics of the Sample

The participants were asked to specify their place of birth, their highest level of education, their fields of study, their high-school grade point average, the number of years it took them to complete college, their household income upon obtaining their
undergraduate degrees, their parents’ highest level of education, their college grade point average, and their current location of residencies. Table 2 provides the frequency distribution information of the participants.

**Testing the Hypotheses**

One descriptive analysis question and eight hypotheses were formulated to compare factors of success that contribute to Haitian-American women successfully completing a degree. These hypotheses are built around 10 independent variables, namely, place of birth, highest degree level, fields of study, years to complete college, high-school GPA, household income during college, mother’s level of education, father’s level of education, college GPA, and current location of residency. All hypotheses are tested with $\alpha= 0.01$. Since there were numerous Univariate tests done, a more rigidly controlled level of significant difference was set at $\alpha= 0.01$, in order to reduce the inflation of Type I error.

**Descriptive Analysis Result**

Question 1 stated, “How influential do Haitian-American women feel the following 16 variables were towards their attainment of educational success: language acquisition, prior academic achievement, level of family support, level of community support, high-school curriculum, access to resources, self-perception, self-motivation, financial assistance, campus ethnic diversity, sense of ethnic identity, spirituality, college/university support, satisfaction with college/university, time management, and affordability of tuition?”
Table 2

*Characteristics of the Participants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place of Birth</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>41.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>51.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>55.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>31.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fields of Study</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High-school GPA</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5-4.00</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>44.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0-3.49</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5-2.99</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.0-2.49</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong># of Years to Complete College</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 or less</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>60.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 or more</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Household Income during college</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under $20,000</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$20,001-$30,000</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30,001-$40,000</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$40,001-$50,000</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above $50,000</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2—Continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s Level of Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school diploma or less</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>48.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>31.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree and beyond</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father’s Level of Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school diploma or less</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree and beyond</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College GPA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5-4.00</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0-3.49</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>55.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5-2.99</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.49 or less</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Location of Residency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northeast region</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southeast region</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>49.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other regions</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*aMay not add to 100% due to missing values.

The instrument used in this study, called Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women, contains 15 Likert-type items. Each of these items has a scoring of 0 to 5 points. Table 3 shows the means, the standard deviation, and the actual range for all the responses regarding the factors that this sample indicated contributed to their educational success.

The results indicated that self-motivation had the highest mean score. Financial assistance had the second highest mean score, followed closely by accessibility to resource and self-perception. Knowledge of second language was the factor that received the lowest scores. This study considered any scores between 4 and 5 to be important.
Therefore, these results suggested that the participants perceived that self-motivation was the most important factor which helped them successfully complete college, followed by financial assistance, accessibility to resources, self-perception, time management, spiritual life, family support, prior academic achievement, and affordability of college tuition. Furthermore, the participants viewed knowledge of second language as the least important factor that contributes to obtaining college degrees.

Result of Hypothesis #1

Null hypothesis 1 stated that within the factors of success, there is no difference in the level of importance given between nationalized Haitian-American women and Haitian-American women born in the United States.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in the importance of the success factors given between the Haitian-American women who were born in the United States, Haiti, and other places. There were no significant differences found in the importance given to the following success factors between the three groups: prior academic achievement, university support, community support, satisfaction with university, family support, high-school curriculum, time management, access to resources, affordability of college, financial assistance, self-perception, campus ethnic diversity, ethnic identify, self-motivation, and spiritual life. However, based on place of birth, there was significant difference found in the importance given to the success factor of knowledge of second language \((F_{(2, 205)} = 8.38, p<0.01)\).
Table 3

Descriptive Characteristics of Responses on the Inventory of College Success for Haitian American Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{x} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Minimum Range</th>
<th>Maximum Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility to resources</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual life</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior academic achievements</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordability of college tuition</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rigor of high school curriculum</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with college/university</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic identity</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University support</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus ethnic diversity</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of second language</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important.

Table 4 gives the result of the ANOVA tests. A Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was done by using the Games-Howell procedure to identify the differences among the groups. The Games-Howell procedure was used because the Levene’s rule of homogeneity was violated (\( p=0.006 \)) due to the variances not being equal in group size. The Post-Hoc revealed that those born in Haiti (\( \bar{x}=3.42, SD=1.46 \)) had significantly higher ratings on knowledge of second language than those born in the U.S. (\( \bar{x}=2.65, SD=1.31 \)). No other significant group differences were found.
**Table 4**

*One-way ANOVA for Hypothesis: Comparing Means Based on Birth Places of Haitian-American Women*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Haiti</th>
<th>USA</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p (Sig.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(n = 88)</td>
<td>(n = 109)</td>
<td>(n = 13)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of second</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>8.380</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior academic achievement</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>2.020</td>
<td>.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University support</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.180</td>
<td>.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with university</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>.690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>2.250</td>
<td>.108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school curriculum</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.420</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.203</td>
<td>.817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to resources</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>3.100</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordability of college</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td>.517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>0.302</td>
<td>.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>3.600</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus ethnic diversity</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic identify</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>0.498</td>
<td>.609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual life</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td>.515</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important.

* = the test is significant at the .01 level.
Null hypothesis 2 stated that within these factors of success, there is no difference in the level of importance given among those who received a Bachelor’s, a Master’s, or a doctoral degree.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in the importance of the success factors given between the Haitian-American women who received a Bachelor’s, a Master’s, or a doctoral degree. There were no significant differences found in the importance given to the following success factors: knowledge of second language, prior academic achievement, university support, community support, satisfaction with university, family support, high-school curriculum, time management, access to resources, financial assistance, self-perception, campus ethnic diversity, ethnic identify, self-motivation, and spiritual life. However, significant difference was found for Affordability of college ($F_{(2, 203)} = 6.55, p<0.01$) based on their highest level of education. A Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was done by using the Bonferroni procedure to identify the differences among the groups. Table 5 provides the results of the ANOVA tests. A significance in the Post-Hoc test indicated that those with Bachelor’s degrees ($\bar{x} = 4.41, SD= 0.82$) perceived Affordability of college to be more important than those with doctoral degrees ($\bar{x} = 3.59, SD=1.30$). No other significant group differences were found.
Table 5

*One-way ANOVA for Hypothesis: Comparing Means Based on Highest Degree Level Obtained Among Haitian-American Women*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bachelors (n = 118)</th>
<th>Masters (n = 68)</th>
<th>Doctorate (n = 22)</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p (Sig.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of second</td>
<td>3.03 1.36 118</td>
<td>2.98 1.42 66</td>
<td>2.50 1.54 22</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>.258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior academic achievement</td>
<td>4.26 0.85 118</td>
<td>4.24 0.94 67</td>
<td>4.19 1.17 21</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>.942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University support</td>
<td>3.85 1.06 117</td>
<td>3.63 1.02 68</td>
<td>3.32 1.25 22</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>3.03 1.28 116</td>
<td>2.97 1.24 67</td>
<td>2.82 1.14 22</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>.771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with university</td>
<td>3.96 0.94 116</td>
<td>3.82 1.20 68</td>
<td>3.50 1.10 22</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>4.39 0.94 117</td>
<td>4.40 0.99 68</td>
<td>4.27 1.24 22</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-school curriculum</td>
<td>3.94 0.98 118</td>
<td>3.82 1.15 68</td>
<td>4.23 1.02 22</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>4.48 0.81 115</td>
<td>4.42 0.87 68</td>
<td>4.50 0.74 22</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>.843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to resources</td>
<td>4.61 0.72 118</td>
<td>4.48 0.77 67</td>
<td>4.45 0.74 22</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>.406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordability of college</td>
<td>4.41 0.82 116</td>
<td>4.06 1.28 68</td>
<td>3.59 1.30 22</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>.002*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance</td>
<td>4.58 0.96 117</td>
<td>4.67 0.79 67</td>
<td>4.32 1.17 22</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>4.47 0.77 117</td>
<td>4.58 0.72 67</td>
<td>4.70 0.73 20</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>.354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus ethnic diversity</td>
<td>3.33 1.18 115</td>
<td>3.07 1.11 68</td>
<td>3.09 1.19 22</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic identify</td>
<td>3.65 1.10 115</td>
<td>3.85 1.12 67</td>
<td>4.00 1.00 21</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>.279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>4.82 0.41 118</td>
<td>4.84 0.41 68</td>
<td>5.00 0.00 22</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual life</td>
<td>4.42 1.07 118</td>
<td>4.17 1.23 68</td>
<td>4.23 1.15 22</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>.330</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important.  
* = the test is significant at the .01 level.
Result of Hypothesis #3

Null hypothesis 3 stated that within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among those in the fields of sciences, education, business, arts, and “Other.”

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in the importance of the success factors given among Haitian-American women in fields of sciences, education, business, arts, and “Other.” There were no significant differences found in the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: prior academic achievement, university support, community support, satisfaction with university, family support, high-school curriculum, time management, access to resources, affordability of college, financial assistance, self-perception, campus ethnic diversity, ethnic identify, self-motivation, and affordability of college. However, significant difference was found based on their fields of study in the importance given to the success factor of *Spiritual life* \( (F_{(4,203)} = 3.74, p < 0.01) \). Table 6 gives the results of the ANOVA tests. A Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was done by using the Games-Howell procedure to identify the differences among the groups. The Games-Howell procedure was used because the Levene’s rule of homogeneity was violated \( (p=.000) \) due to the variances not being equal in group size. A significance in the Post-Hoc test indicated that those in the fields of science \( (\bar{x} = 4.70, SD = 0.66) \) perceived *Spiritual life* to be more important than those in “Other” fields \( (\bar{x} = 3.92, SD = 1.44) \). No other significant group differences were found.
Table 6

One-way ANOVA for Hypothesis: Comparing Means Based on the Fields of Study of Haitian-American Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Science</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Arts</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(n = 66)</td>
<td>(n = 36)</td>
<td>(n = 27)</td>
<td>(n = 26)</td>
<td>(n = 56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of 2nd lang.</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior acad. achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University support</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>4.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>university</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS curriculum</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time manage</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to resources</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afford college</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>4.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>4.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus ethnic diversity</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>4.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic identity</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual life</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>4.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important. * = the test is significant at the .01 level.
Result of Hypothesis #4

Null hypothesis 4: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on their high-school GPA.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in the importance of the success factors given based on their high-school GPA of the Haitian-American women. There were no significant differences found in the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: knowledge of second language, university support, community support, satisfaction with university, family support, high-school curriculum, time management, access to resources, affordability of college, financial assistance, self-perception, campus ethnic diversity, ethnic identify, self-motivation, and spiritual life. However, significant difference was found based on their high-school GPA in the importance given to the success factor of Prior academic achievement \((F_{4, 202} = 5.05, p < 0.01)\). Table 7 gives the results of the ANOVA tests. Levene’s rule of homogeneity was not violated \((p = .014)\). A Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was done by using the Bonferroni procedure to identify the differences among the groups. A significance in the Post-Hoc test indicated that those who obtained 3.5-4.00 GPA \((\bar{X} = 4.45, SD = 0.70)\) in high school perceived Prior academic achievement to be more important than those who obtained 2.5-2.99 GPA \((\bar{X} = 3.64, SD = 1.19)\) in high school. No other significant group differences were found.
Table 7

One-way ANOVA for Hypothesis: Comparing Means Based on the High School GPA of Haitian-American Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>3.5- 4.00 (n = 95)</th>
<th>3.0- 3.49 (n = 80)</th>
<th>2.5-2.99 (n = 26)</th>
<th>2.0-2.49 (n = 3)</th>
<th>N/A (n = 5)</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Know. 2nd lang.</td>
<td>2.89 1.33 94</td>
<td>3.13 1.44 80</td>
<td>2.84 1.49 25</td>
<td>1.67 1.15 3</td>
<td>3.20 1.79 5</td>
<td>1.050</td>
<td>.385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior acad. ach.</td>
<td>4.45 0.70 94</td>
<td>4.24 0.93 80</td>
<td>3.64 1.19 25</td>
<td>3.33 1.52 3</td>
<td>4.20 0.84 5</td>
<td>5.040</td>
<td>.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Univ. support</td>
<td>3.63 1.11 94</td>
<td>3.83 1.08 80</td>
<td>3.80 1.02 26</td>
<td>4.00 1.00 3</td>
<td>3.40 1.34 5</td>
<td>0.553</td>
<td>.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>2.98 1.18 95</td>
<td>2.93 1.32 78</td>
<td>3.44 1.22 25</td>
<td>2.67 2.08 3</td>
<td>2.00 1.00 5</td>
<td>1.690</td>
<td>.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfy w/ Univ.</td>
<td>3.83 1.01 94</td>
<td>3.99 0.99 80</td>
<td>3.76 1.27 25</td>
<td>3.33 2.08 3</td>
<td>3.40 1.34 5</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td>.536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>4.32 1.05 94</td>
<td>4.39 1.04 80</td>
<td>4.58 0.76 26</td>
<td>4.33 0.57 3</td>
<td>4.20 1.30 5</td>
<td>0.370</td>
<td>.830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HS curriculum</td>
<td>4.18 0.99 95</td>
<td>3.83 0.99 80</td>
<td>3.54 1.10 26</td>
<td>3.00 1.73 3</td>
<td>3.80 1.10 5</td>
<td>3.210</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time manage</td>
<td>4.37 0.91 95</td>
<td>4.54 0.73 78</td>
<td>4.48 0.77 25</td>
<td>4.00 1.73 3</td>
<td>4.40 1.34 5</td>
<td>0.640</td>
<td>.635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to resources</td>
<td>4.60 0.71 94</td>
<td>4.45 0.86 80</td>
<td>4.61 0.57 26</td>
<td>5.00 0.00 3</td>
<td>4.40 0.55 5</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>.519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afford college</td>
<td>4.06 1.16 94</td>
<td>4.25 1.07 79</td>
<td>4.58 0.58 26</td>
<td>4.33 1.15 3</td>
<td>3.00 1.58 5</td>
<td>2.750</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fin. assist</td>
<td>4.59 0.94 95</td>
<td>4.54 1.03 78</td>
<td>4.69 0.84 26</td>
<td>5.00 0.00 3</td>
<td>4.00 1.00 5</td>
<td>0.727</td>
<td>.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>4.56 0.70 93</td>
<td>4.48 0.85 79</td>
<td>4.62 0.57 26</td>
<td>4.00 1.00 3</td>
<td>4.50 4.50 5</td>
<td>0.572</td>
<td>.683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus ethnic diversity</td>
<td>3.19 1.12 94</td>
<td>3.32 1.13 78</td>
<td>3.23 1.21 26</td>
<td>2.67 1.53 3</td>
<td>2.40 1.67 5</td>
<td>0.965</td>
<td>.428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic identify</td>
<td>3.84 1.06 95</td>
<td>3.72 1.10 76</td>
<td>3.56 1.33 25</td>
<td>4.00 1.00 3</td>
<td>3.60 0.89 5</td>
<td>0.418</td>
<td>.796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>4.84 0.39 95</td>
<td>4.85 0.39 80</td>
<td>4.85 0.37 26</td>
<td>4.67 0.58 3</td>
<td>5.00 0.00 5</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual life</td>
<td>4.39 1.05 95</td>
<td>4.29 1.17 80</td>
<td>4.65 0.85 26</td>
<td>3.00 1.00 3</td>
<td>3.60 1.67 5</td>
<td>2.330</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important.

* = the test is significant at the .01 level.
Result of Hypothesis #5

Null hypothesis 5: There is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on the number of years taken to obtain a college degree to these factors of success.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in the importance of the success factors given between the Haitian-American women based on the number of years taken to obtain a college degree. There were no significant differences found in the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: knowledge of second language, prior academic achievement, university support, community support, satisfaction with university, family support, high-school curriculum, time management, access to resources, affordability of college, financial assistance, self-perception, campus ethnic diversity, ethnic identity, and spiritual life. However, significant difference was found based on the numbers of years taken to obtain a college degree in the importance given to the success factor of Self-motivation \( (F(4, 203) = 3.64, p<0.01) \). Table 8 gives the results of the ANOVA tests. A Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was done by using the Games-Howell procedure to identify the differences among the groups. The Games-Howell procedure was used because the Levene’s rule of homogeneity was violated \( (p=.000) \) due to the variances not being equal in group size. A significance in the Post-Hoc test indicated that those who obtained their college degrees in 6 years \( (\bar{x} = 5.00, SD = 0.00) \) perceived Self-motivation to be more important than those who received their degrees in 5 years \( (\bar{x} = 4.70, SD = 0.54) \) and 4 years or less \( (\bar{x} = 4.90, SD = 0.31) \). No other significant group differences were found.
Table 8

One-way ANOVA for Hypothesis: Comparing Means Based on Number of Years to Complete College of Haitian-American Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>4 or less years (n = 126)</th>
<th>5 years (n = 56)</th>
<th>6 years (n = 14)</th>
<th>7 or more years (n = 12)</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of 2nd lang.</td>
<td>2.98 ± 1.42</td>
<td>3.05 ± 1.26</td>
<td>2.79 ± 1.76</td>
<td>2.30 ± 1.42</td>
<td>0.905</td>
<td>.439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior academic achievement</td>
<td>4.34 ± 0.89</td>
<td>4.18 ± 0.82</td>
<td>4.21 ± 0.80</td>
<td>3.67 ± 1.44</td>
<td>2.220</td>
<td>.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University support</td>
<td>3.71 ± 1.08</td>
<td>3.71 ± 1.04</td>
<td>3.79 ± 1.25</td>
<td>4.00 ± 1.21</td>
<td>0.274</td>
<td>.844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>2.94 ± 1.24</td>
<td>3.18 ± 1.25</td>
<td>2.71 ± 1.14</td>
<td>2.92 ± 1.56</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td>.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>university</td>
<td>3.80 ± 1.06</td>
<td>3.93 ± 0.97</td>
<td>3.86 ± 1.17</td>
<td>4.42 ± 1.17</td>
<td>1.340</td>
<td>.264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>4.33 ± 1.04</td>
<td>4.55 ± 0.81</td>
<td>4.29 ± 1.07</td>
<td>4.25 ± 1.14</td>
<td>0.802</td>
<td>.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-school curriculum</td>
<td>4.07 ± 0.97</td>
<td>3.91 ± 1.11</td>
<td>3.43 ± 0.85</td>
<td>3.42 ± 1.31</td>
<td>2.890</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>4.45 ± 0.83</td>
<td>4.29 ± 0.90</td>
<td>4.79 ± 0.43</td>
<td>4.92 ± 0.29</td>
<td>2.840</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to resources</td>
<td>4.59 ± 0.66</td>
<td>4.50 ± 0.76</td>
<td>4.29 ± 1.20</td>
<td>4.73 ± 0.65</td>
<td>1.010</td>
<td>.388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordability of college</td>
<td>4.03 ± 1.14</td>
<td>4.45 ± 0.81</td>
<td>4.14 ± 1.46</td>
<td>4.83 ± 0.39</td>
<td>3.550</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance</td>
<td>4.53 ± 0.95</td>
<td>4.69 ± 0.80</td>
<td>4.43 ± 1.45</td>
<td>4.92 ± 0.29</td>
<td>0.983</td>
<td>.402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>4.51 ± 0.80</td>
<td>4.47 ± 0.69</td>
<td>4.71 ± 0.72</td>
<td>4.82 ± 0.40</td>
<td>0.959</td>
<td>.413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus ethnic diversity</td>
<td>3.15 ± 1.19</td>
<td>3.33 ± 1.03</td>
<td>3.14 ± 1.17</td>
<td>3.58 ± 1.37</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td>.506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic identity</td>
<td>3.69 ± 1.18</td>
<td>3.91 ± 0.87</td>
<td>3.50 ± 0.94</td>
<td>4.00 ± 1.28</td>
<td>0.903</td>
<td>.441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>4.90 ± 0.31</td>
<td>4.70 ± 0.54</td>
<td>5.00 ± 0.00</td>
<td>4.83 ± 0.39</td>
<td>4.460</td>
<td>.005*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual life</td>
<td>4.23 ± 1.23</td>
<td>4.41 ± 0.97</td>
<td>4.64 ± 0.93</td>
<td>4.50 ± 1.00</td>
<td>0.863</td>
<td>.461</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important.
* = the test is significant at the .01 level.
Result of Hypothesis #6

Null hypothesis 6: There is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on the annual household income during college to these factors of success.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in the importance of the success factors given between the Haitian-American women based on their annual household income during college. There were no significant differences found in the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: knowledge of second language, prior academic achievement, community support, satisfaction with university, family support, high-school curriculum, time management, access to resources, affordability of college, campus ethnic diversity, ethnic identity, self-motivation, self-perception, university support, and spiritual life. However, significant differences were found based on the numbers of years taken to obtain a college degree in the importance given to the success factors of Financial assistance \(F(4, 197) = 6.16, p<0.01\). Table 9 gives the results of the ANOVA tests. A Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was done by using the Games-Howell procedure to identify the differences among the groups. The Games-Howell procedure was used because the Levene’s rule of homogeneity was violated \(p=.000\) due to the variances not being equal in group size. A significance in the Post-Hoc test indicated that those with a household income during college of $30,001-$40,000 \(\bar{x} = 4.79, SD = 0.47\) perceived Financial assistance to be significantly more important than those with a household income during college of Above $50,000 \(\bar{x} = 4.00, SD = 1.38\). No other significant group differences were found.
**Table 9**

One-way ANOVA for Hypothesis: Comparing Means Based on Income Levels of Haitian-American Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income Level</th>
<th>Knowledge 2nd lang.</th>
<th>Prior academic achievement</th>
<th>University support</th>
<th>Community support</th>
<th>Satisfy with university</th>
<th>H.S. curriculum</th>
<th>Time management</th>
<th>Access to resources</th>
<th>Afford college</th>
<th>Financial assistance</th>
<th>Self-perception</th>
<th>Campus ethnic diversity</th>
<th>Ethnic identity</th>
<th>Self-motivation</th>
<th>Spiritual life</th>
<th>( F )</th>
<th>( p )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under $20,000 (n = 59)</td>
<td>[2.78 \pm 1.40]</td>
<td>[4.22 \pm 1.04]</td>
<td>[3.98 \pm 0.99]</td>
<td>[3.16 \pm 1.28]</td>
<td>[3.93 \pm 1.11]</td>
<td>[3.86 \pm 1.04]</td>
<td>[4.68 \pm 0.57]</td>
<td>[4.64 \pm 0.69]</td>
<td>[4.33 \pm 0.96]</td>
<td>[4.75 \pm 0.71]</td>
<td>[4.56 \pm 0.65]</td>
<td>[3.16 \pm 1.21]</td>
<td>[3.72 \pm 1.04]</td>
<td>[4.85 \pm 0.41]</td>
<td>[4.59 \pm 1.00]</td>
<td>0.578</td>
<td>0.679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$20,001-$30,000 (n = 47)</td>
<td>[2.96 \pm 1.46]</td>
<td>[4.41 \pm 0.80]</td>
<td>[3.91 \pm 1.05]</td>
<td>[3.74 \pm 1.24]</td>
<td>[3.83 \pm 1.14]</td>
<td>[3.89 \pm 0.91]</td>
<td>[4.40 \pm 0.95]</td>
<td>[4.53 \pm 0.93]</td>
<td>[4.19 \pm 1.21]</td>
<td>[4.76 \pm 0.74]</td>
<td>[4.59 \pm 0.78]</td>
<td>[3.47 \pm 1.16]</td>
<td>[3.82 \pm 1.04]</td>
<td>[4.91 \pm 0.28]</td>
<td>[4.06 \pm 1.41]</td>
<td>0.978</td>
<td>0.420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30,001-$40,000 (n = 39)</td>
<td>[3.16 \pm 1.39]</td>
<td>[4.33 \pm 0.93]</td>
<td>[3.59 \pm 1.09]</td>
<td>[3.18 \pm 1.25]</td>
<td>[4.05 \pm 1.00]</td>
<td>[4.03 \pm 1.09]</td>
<td>[4.43 \pm 0.80]</td>
<td>[4.61 \pm 0.59]</td>
<td>[4.26 \pm 0.98]</td>
<td>[4.79 \pm 0.47]</td>
<td>[4.63 \pm 0.59]</td>
<td>[2.97 \pm 1.17]</td>
<td>[3.74 \pm 1.16]</td>
<td>[4.80 \pm 0.41]</td>
<td>[4.06 \pm 0.97]</td>
<td>2.170</td>
<td>0.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$40,001-$50,000 (n = 17)</td>
<td>[3.24 \pm 1.09]</td>
<td>[3.94 \pm 0.93]</td>
<td>[3.71 \pm 0.77]</td>
<td>[3.41 \pm 1.23]</td>
<td>[3.71 \pm 0.92]</td>
<td>[3.94 \pm 1.20]</td>
<td>[4.24 \pm 1.03]</td>
<td>[4.35 \pm 0.61]</td>
<td>[4.12 \pm 0.99]</td>
<td>[4.65 \pm 0.86]</td>
<td>[4.59 \pm 0.71]</td>
<td>[3.53 \pm 1.12]</td>
<td>[4.06 \pm 0.97]</td>
<td>[4.61 \pm 0.39]</td>
<td>[4.00 \pm 0.87]</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above $50,000 (n = 42)</td>
<td>[2.90 \pm 1.45]</td>
<td>[4.19 \pm 0.80]</td>
<td>[3.43 \pm 1.23]</td>
<td>[2.80 \pm 1.21]</td>
<td>[3.73 \pm 1.03]</td>
<td>[4.10 \pm 1.03]</td>
<td>[4.39 \pm 0.80]</td>
<td>[4.45 \pm 0.74]</td>
<td>[3.98 \pm 1.22]</td>
<td>[4.00 \pm 1.38]</td>
<td>[4.35 \pm 0.98]</td>
<td>[3.10 \pm 1.08]</td>
<td>[4.36 \pm 1.04]</td>
<td>[4.35 \pm 0.61]</td>
<td>[4.44 \pm 1.23]</td>
<td>0.410</td>
<td>.645</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important.

* = the test is significant at the .01 level.
Result of Hypothesis #7

Null hypothesis 7: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among those women whose mothers had at least an Associate’s degree and those women whose mothers had less than an Associate’s degree.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in the importance of the success factors given between the Haitian-American women whose mothers had at least an Associate’s degree and those women whose mothers had less than an Associate’s degree. There were no significant differences found in the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: knowledge of second language, prior academic achievement, university support, community support, satisfaction with university, family support, high-school curriculum, time management, access to resources, affordability of college, self-perception, campus ethnic diversity, ethnic identity, self-motivation, and spiritual life. However, significant difference was found based on their mother’s level of education in the importance given to the success factors of Financial assistance ($F_{(2, 204)} = 6.09, p < 0.01$). Table 10 gives the results of the ANOVA tests. A Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was done by using the Games-Howell procedure to identify the differences among the groups. The Games-Howell procedure was used because the Levene’s rule of homogeneity was violated ($p = 0.003$) due to the variances not being equal in group size. A significance in the Post-Hoc test indicated that those whose mothers obtained their high-school diploma or less ($\bar{X} = 4.79, SD = 0.62$) perceived Financial assistance to be significantly more important than those whose mothers received some college ($\bar{X} = 4.31, SD = 1.22$). No other significant group differences were found.
Table 10

One-way ANOVA for Hypothesis: Comparing Means Based on Mother’s Level of Education of the Haitian-American Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>High school diploma or Less (n = 104)</th>
<th>Some college (n = 68)</th>
<th>Bachelor’s degree and beyond (n = 37)</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of 2\textsuperscript{nd} lang. Prior acad. achievement</td>
<td>3.06 1.50 103</td>
<td>2.79 1.32 68</td>
<td>3.06 1.29 36</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td>.451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University support</td>
<td>4.22 1.00 102</td>
<td>4.31 0.80 68</td>
<td>4.24 0.86 37</td>
<td>0.213</td>
<td>.808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support Satisfaction with university</td>
<td>3.03 1.27 101</td>
<td>2.94 1.24 68</td>
<td>3.00 1.27 37</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>.904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>3.92 1.09 102</td>
<td>3.78 1.06 68</td>
<td>3.81 0.97 37</td>
<td>0.407</td>
<td>.666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-school curriculum</td>
<td>3.75 1.08 104</td>
<td>4.18 0.88 68</td>
<td>4.05 1.13 37</td>
<td>3.810</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>4.41 0.89 102</td>
<td>4.42 0.92 67</td>
<td>4.57 0.55 37</td>
<td>0.490</td>
<td>.613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to resources</td>
<td>4.50 0.84 103</td>
<td>4.51 0.72 68</td>
<td>4.65 0.54 37</td>
<td>0.524</td>
<td>.593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordability of college</td>
<td>4.26 1.05 104</td>
<td>4.17 1.09 66</td>
<td>3.97 1.24 37</td>
<td>0.935</td>
<td>.394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance</td>
<td>4.79 0.62 102</td>
<td>4.31 1.22 68</td>
<td>4.41 1.07 37</td>
<td>6.090</td>
<td>.003*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>4.53 0.78 104</td>
<td>4.55 0.74 67</td>
<td>4.47 0.71 34</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus ethnic diversity</td>
<td>3.27 1.24 102</td>
<td>3.10 1.05 68</td>
<td>3.28 1.09 36</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>.604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic identify</td>
<td>3.71 1.18 101</td>
<td>3.73 1.04 67</td>
<td>3.92 0.97 36</td>
<td>0.480</td>
<td>.620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>4.87 0.34 104</td>
<td>4.88 0.37 68</td>
<td>4.73 0.51 37</td>
<td>2.130</td>
<td>.122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual life</td>
<td>4.38 1.13 104</td>
<td>4.32 1.14 68</td>
<td>4.16 1.14 37</td>
<td>0.526</td>
<td>.592</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important.

* = the test is significant at the .01 level.
Result of Hypothesis #8

Hypothesis 8: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among those women whose fathers had at least an Associate’s degree and those women whose fathers had less than an Associate’s degree.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in the importance of the success factors given between the Haitian-American women whose fathers had at least an Associate’s degree and those women whose fathers had less than an Associate’s degree. There were no significant differences found in the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: knowledge of second language, prior academic achievement, university support, community support, satisfaction with university, family support, high-school curriculum, time management, access to resources, affordability of college, self-perception, campus ethnic diversity, ethnic identity, self-motivation, and financial assistance. However, significant difference was found based on their father’s level of education in the importance given to the success factors of Spiritual life ($F_{(2, 203)} = 4.95, p<0.01$). Table 11 gives the results of the ANOVA tests. A Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was done by using the Bonferroni procedure to identify the differences among the groups. The Levene’s rule of homogeneity was not violated ($p=.014$). A significance in the Post-Hoc test indicated that those whose fathers obtained a high-school diploma or less ($\bar{x}= 4.52$, $SD= 1.01$) perceived Spiritual life to be significantly more important than those whose fathers received a Bachelor’s degree and beyond ($\bar{x}= 3.95$, $SD= 1.28$). No other significant group differences were found.
Table 11

One-way ANOVA for Hypothesis: Comparing Means Based on Father’s Level of Education of the Haitian-American Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>High school diploma or less (n = 84)</th>
<th>Some college (n = 67)</th>
<th>Bachelor’s degree and beyond (n = 55)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of 2nd lang.</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior acad. achievement</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University support</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>university</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-school curriculum</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to resources</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordability of college</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus ethnic diversity</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic identity</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual life</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important.

* = the test is significant at the .01 level.
Result of Hypothesis #9

Hypothesis 9: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on their college GPA.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in the importance of the success factors given based on their college GPA of the Haitian-American women. There were no significances found in the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: knowledge of second language; prior academic achievement; university support; satisfaction with university; family support; high school curriculum; time management; access to resources; affordability of college; financial assistance; self-perception; campus ethnic diversity; ethnic identity; self-motivation; and spiritual life. However, significant difference was found based on their college GPA in the importance given to the success factor of Community support \( (F_{(3, 204)} = 5.55, p < 0.01) \). Table 12 gives the results of the ANOVA tests. A Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was done by using the Bonferroni procedure to identify the differences among the groups. The Levene’s rule of homogeneity was not violated \( (p = .775) \). A significance in the Post-Hoc test indicated that those who obtained college GPA’s of 3.0-3.49 (\( \bar{x} = 3.07, SD = 1.20 \)) and 2.5-2.99 (\( \bar{x} = 3.23, SD = 1.25 \)) perceived Community support to be more important than those with a GPA of 3.5-4.0 (\( \bar{x} = 2.21, SD = 1.17 \)). No other significant group differences were found.
Table 12

One-way ANOVA for Hypothesis: Comparing Means Based on the College GPA of Haitian-American Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>3.5-4.00 (n = 33)</th>
<th>3.0-3.49 (n = 119)</th>
<th>2.5-2.99 (n = 47)</th>
<th>2.49 or less (n = 9)</th>
<th>( \bar{X} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{X} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{X} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{X} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of 2\textsuperscript{nd} lang.</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.363</td>
<td>.779</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior academic achievement</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University support</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.785</td>
<td>.504</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>.001*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with university</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-school curriculum</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to resources</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>.207</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordability of college</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.942</td>
<td>.421</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>.520</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus ethnic diversity</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>.298</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic identity</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.265</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Spiritual life</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.570</td>
<td>.635</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important. * = the test is significant at the .01 level.
Result of Hypothesis #10

Hypothesis 10: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on their current location of residency to the factors of success.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine whether there were differences in the importance of the success factors given based on the current location of residency of the Haitian-American women. There were no significances found in the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: knowledge of second language; prior academic achievement; satisfaction with university; family support; high-school curriculum; access to resources; affordability of college; financial assistance; self-perception; community support; ethnic identity; self-motivation; and spiritual life. However, significant differences were found based on their current location of residency in the importance given to the success factors of University support \( (F(2, 201) = 5.12, p<0.01) \), Time management \( (F(2, 199) = 6.34, p<0.01) \), and Campus ethnic diversity \((F(2, 199) = 7.27, p<0.01)\). Table 13 gives the results of the ANOVA tests. A Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was done by using the Bonferroni procedure to identify the differences among the groups. A significance in the Post-Hoc test indicated that those who live in the Southeast Region of the United States \( (\bar{X} = 3.94, SD= 1.01) \) perceived University support to be more important than those who lived in the Northeast Region of the United States \( (\bar{X} = 3.43, SD= 1.19) \). Furthermore, those who live in the “other” regions of the United States \( (\bar{X} = 4.80, SD= 0.41) \) perceive Time management to be more important than those who live in the Northeast Region of the United States \( (\bar{X} = 4.18, SD= 1.02) \). Lastly, those who live in the Southeast Region of the United States \( (\bar{X} = 3.45, SD= 1.01) \).
Table 13

One-way ANOVA for Hypothesis: Comparing Means Based on the Current Location of Residency of Haitian-American Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Northeast region (n = 77)</th>
<th>Southeast region (n = 106)</th>
<th>“other” regions (n = 20)</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p (Sig.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of second language</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>.513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior academic achievement</td>
<td>4.13 (SD = 0.98, N = 76)</td>
<td>4.38 (SD = 0.75, N = 105)</td>
<td>4.15 (SD = 1.23, N = 20)</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>.156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University support</td>
<td>3.43 (SD = 1.19, N = 77)</td>
<td>3.94 (SD = 1.01, N = 105)</td>
<td>3.70 (SD = 0.92, N = 20)</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>.007*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>2.80 (SD = 1.29, N = 76)</td>
<td>3.12 (SD = 1.23, N = 104)</td>
<td>3.10 (SD = 1.21, N = 20)</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with university</td>
<td>3.72 (SD = 1.20, N = 77)</td>
<td>3.99 (SD = 0.94, N = 104)</td>
<td>3.95 (SD = 0.89, N = 20)</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>4.27 (SD = 1.11, N = 77)</td>
<td>4.44 (SD = 0.93, N = 105)</td>
<td>4.40 (SD = 0.88, N = 20)</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>.539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-school curriculum</td>
<td>4.01 (SD = 1.07, N = 77)</td>
<td>3.87 (SD = 1.01, N = 106)</td>
<td>4.20 (SD = 0.89, N = 20)</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>4.18 (SD = 1.02, N = 76)</td>
<td>4.55 (SD = 0.35, N = 104)</td>
<td>4.80 (SD = 0.41, N = 20)</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>.002*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to resources</td>
<td>4.39 (SD = 0.76, N = 77)</td>
<td>4.69 (SD = 0.72, N = 105)</td>
<td>4.30 (SD = 0.80, N = 20)</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordability of college</td>
<td>4.00 (SD = 1.31, N = 76)</td>
<td>4.31 (SD = 0.91, N = 105)</td>
<td>4.10 (SD = 1.17, N = 20)</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial assistance</td>
<td>4.39 (SD = 1.14, N = 77)</td>
<td>4.70 (SD = 0.83, N = 105)</td>
<td>4.57 (SD = 0.84, N = 19)</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-perception</td>
<td>4.43 (SD = 0.81, N = 74)</td>
<td>4.56 (SD = 0.73, N = 106)</td>
<td>4.80 (SD = 0.52, N = 20)</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus ethnic diversity</td>
<td>3.11 (SD = 1.22, N = 76)</td>
<td>3.45 (SD = 1.03, N = 104)</td>
<td>2.45 (SD = 1.23, N = 20)</td>
<td>7.27</td>
<td>.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic identity</td>
<td>3.72 (SD = 1.19, N = 75)</td>
<td>3.81 (SD = 0.99, N = 104)</td>
<td>3.84 (SD = 1.25, N = 19)</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>.840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>4.78 (SD = 0.45, N = 77)</td>
<td>4.88 (SD = 0.36, N = 106)</td>
<td>4.95 (SD = 0.22, N = 20)</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual life</td>
<td>4.14 (SD = 1.22, N = 77)</td>
<td>4.52 (SD = 0.96, N = 106)</td>
<td>4.10 (SD = 1.48, N = 20)</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. 1—Not Important; 2—Of Little Importance; 3—Somewhat Important; 4—Important; 5—Very Important.

* = the test is significant at the .01 level.
perceived *Campus ethnic diversity* to be more important than those who live in the “other” regions of the United States ($\bar{x} = 2.45, SD = 1.23$). No other significant group differences were found.

**Summary**

For this research, data were collected from 213 Haitian-American women with college degrees. A descriptive analysis indicated that self-motivation was perceived as the most important factor for their success. This factor was followed by financial assistance, accessibility to resources, self-perception, time management, spiritual life, family support, prior academic achievement, and affordability of college tuition.

Hypothesis 1 showed significant differences in the mean scores for *Knowledge of second language* based on participants’ place of birth. Hypothesis 2 revealed significant differences in the mean scores for *Affordability of college* between those who hold Bachelor’s and doctoral degrees. Hypothesis 3 revealed significant differences in the mean scores for *Spiritual life* between those in the fields of science and those in “Other” fields. Hypothesis 4 revealed significant differences in the mean scores for *Prior academic achievement* between those who obtained a 3.5-4.00 GPA in high school and those who obtained a 2.5-2.99 GPA in high school.

Hypothesis 5 revealed significant differences in the mean scores for *Self-motivation* between those who obtained their college degrees in 6 years, 5 years, and 4 years or less. Hypothesis 6 revealed significant differences in the mean scores for *Financial assistance* between those with household income during college of $30,001-$40,000 and above $50,000. Hypothesis 7 revealed significant differences in the mean scores for *Financial assistance* between those whose mothers obtained their high-school
diploma or less and those whose mothers received some college education. Hypothesis 8 revealed significant differences in the mean scores for Spiritual life between those whose fathers obtained their high-school diploma or less and those whose fathers received their Bachelor’s degree and beyond. Hypothesis 9 revealed significant differences in the mean scores for Community support between those who obtained college GPA’s of 3.49 or less and those who obtained a GPA of 3.5-4.0. Hypothesis 10 revealed significant differences in the mean scores for University support between those who live in the Southeast Region of the United States and those who live in the Northeast Region of the United States. Significant differences in the mean scores for Time management were found between those who live in the “other” regions of the United States and those who live in the Northeast Region of the United States. Lastly, significant differences in the mean scores for Campus ethnic diversity were found between those who live in the Southeast Region of the United States and those who live in the “other” regions of the United States.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND CONCLUSIONS

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 gave a general introduction to the study, while Chapter 2 reviewed some related literature on the history of women in education, the history of Haitian-Americans, and general factors related to education. Chapter 3 explained the methodology used in this study, and chapter 4 analyzed the data to determine if there are significant differences in educational success factors among Haitian-American women. This final chapter of the dissertation restates the research problem, gives an overview of the related literature, and reviews the major methods used in the study. The final sections of the chapter summarize the results and discuss the implications of these findings.

Statement of the Problem

Although many studies are conducted and published each year on different groups and education, very little research has been done on Haitian-American women in education. Such research is vital in order to inform educators, students, and families of the factors that influence the educational success (or lack thereof) of this minority group.

In general, Haitians view education as a means to obtain a stable, successful life. Education is extremely valued in the Haitian culture. Furthermore, many Haitians come to the United States with the hope of advancing their education. According to Rumbaut
(1999), 67% aspire to obtain advanced degrees, and another 24% would be dissatisfied with less than a college degree.

Although there are studies that examine the factors that enable women, minority women in particular, to obtain at least a Bachelor’s degree (Torres, 2003), there are no studies that look at factors directly related to the academic success of Haitian-American women. Thus, the aim of this study was to examine and provide research-based information regarding educational variables that are inferential in the lives of educated Haitian-American women.

**Overview of Literature**

This study explored the collective influence and historical impact of women in education, the history of Haitian-Americans, and factors related to the pursuit of higher education of minorities. Previous researchers have widely explored women and minorities in education. This review adds to the existing literature by providing an overview of how a combination of factors contributes to higher education of Haitian-American women.

**Women in Education**

It took years before women, particularly Black women, were granted the privilege to become educated in the United States. History teaches that women were not always allowed the privilege of getting higher education. Society viewed women as less intelligent and less important than man and did not see the importance of educating women (Horany, 2002). History reveals that due to slavery, racism, and other negative attitudes towards African-Americans, it took Black women an even longer period before
being allowed in the education arena (Gregory, 1995). “Scholars who have studied women’s education have found that it is a complex affair, one not easily categorized, and one which does not quite fit into more traditional historical periods” (McClelland, 1992, p. 3). History shows that after the Civil War laws were amended, Black Americans were finally allowed the rights to formal education (Zamani, 2003). Ultimately, more and more Black women have embraced education as a means to further equality in America (Gregory, 1995).

Haitians in Education

The literature suggests that Haitian immigration and travel to the United States have been occurring for many years (Colin & Paperwalla, 2003). Moreover, today, due to the continuous political issues and impoverished state of the island, a number of Haitian immigrants continue to be drawn to the opportunities that America provides. Here in North America many are free to pursue their educational dreams. Rodriguez (2002) noted that it is not uncommon for immigrant minorities to choose to leave their countries and come to the United States in search of a better life. Many Haitians come to the United States with future plans, which include learning English and getting an education (Norris-Tirrell, 2002). In a study that compared different immigrant groups, Norris-Tirrell (2002) found that Haitians had the highest percentage of individuals reporting that they speak (40%), read (25.5%), and write (23.2%) English.

Exploring Educational Factors

There are many educational studies that have examined factors which promote and demote the advancement of higher education among minorities. Educational research
that looked at the Attribution Theory, Social Capital Theory, and Sociocultural Theory were discussed. Many of those studies failed to identify the specific minority subgroups used in their study and thus may or may not have included Haitian-Americans in their research. Laguerre (1998) suggested in his study, interestingly enough, that with time and the increasing interaction with Black Americans, many Haitian-Americans were becoming less distinct from Black Americans.

The aim of Weiner’s (1979) Attribution Theory was to identify the components of success and failure for academics. For example, Bye et al.’s (2007) study suggested there is a positive correlation between motivation and college learning experience. Similarly, Hwang et al.’s (2002) study indicated that high-achieving students perceived motivation as a positive factor associated with getting a good job and having a successful life. More specifically, Spitzer’s (2000) study suggested that self-regulation, self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, self-esteem, and social support are reliable predictors of academic performance. Choa and Good’s (2004) study identified five important internal resources that enhanced their learning and explained their reasons for being students: motivation, financial investment, career development, life transition, and support systems.

Coleman’s concept of Social Capital refers to the roles of family and community support in preparation for and success in college. For example, Walker and Satterwhite’s (2002) study concluded that students who reported more family support were more likely to complete their college education. Furthermore, parental involvement seemingly impacts students’ persistence rate, adjustment level, and self-confidence. Another example is Chee et al.’s (2005) study that suggested that women assessed the value of education not only through the traditional means of income, status, and career ladders but
also through familial and community roles. Also, a good relationship between student and teacher and/or between student and parent appears to motivate one to fulfill their teachers’ and/or parents’ expectations. Graunke and Woosley’s (2005) study indicated that the extent to which faculty members interacted with their students and showed genuine concerns about their academic success appeared to have an impact on students’ academic performance. Likewise, Falconer and Hays’s (2006) study found that a positive connection with teachers, a positive influence from peers, family and community expectations, and a strong belief in the efficacy of mentors and networking are factors that are very influential in the career and academic development of African-American college students.

The Sociocultural Theory typically involves ideas on human development and learning from social interactional, cultural, linguistic, institutional, and historical context. For example, Kim’s (2005) study suggested that parents who were fluent in a foreign language developed stronger identity-bonding with their children and had a greater commitment to advancing their children’s education. Moreover, Bailey and Weininger’s (2002) study found that foreign-born students appeared to have higher levels of educational achievement than did native students. Perreira et al.’s (2006) findings suggested that drop-out rates seemed to be the lowest among immigrant children and highest among the native (third- and higher-generation) youth. Perreira et al. suggested that first-generation students were more likely to transform cultural aspects of their lives into academic success than were their U.S.-born peers.
Methodology

The instrument that was used to collect data for this research was called Inventory of College Success for Haitian-American Women. Section 1 of this particular instrument was adopted from an existing questionnaire entitled Inventory of Academic Success of Female Administrators designed by Dr. Torres. The demographic section from Torres’s (2003) inventory was modified to fit the present research. The formats I used remained the same, consisting of two sections, section 1, the demographic questions, and section 2, questions relating to factors of academic success.

I utilized a survey website, Survey Console Email, to collect the data. Of the 250 surveys sent to prospective participants, 213 were used in the analysis. Pre-study approvals and permissions were obtained from my dissertation committee, Dr. Torres, the Human Subject Review Committee of Andrews University, and the National Haitian Student Alliance.

Delimitations of the Study

This study is delimited to Haitian-American women who hold at least a college degree. The study included only those women who chose to participate by completing the survey. The subjects, Haitian-American women with college degrees, came from a compiled list of alumni from various universities connected with the National Haitian Student Alliance.

Sample Description

The director of the National Haitian Student Alliance compiled a list of 250 members who fit the description of this study. The survey was sent to 250 Haitian-
Americans college graduates, and 213 chose to participate in this study, representing a response rate of 85.2%. Data collected from the participants indicated that 51% were born in the United States, 41% were born in Haiti, and 6% were born in other places. Moreover, 55.4% of the participants held Bachelor’s degrees, 31.9% held Master’s degrees, and 10.3% held doctorate degrees. Thirty-one percent were in the science field; 16.9% were in the business field; 12.7% were in the arts field; 12.2% were in the education field; and 26.3% specify that their field of study fell in the “other” category. During their high-school years, 44.6% received GPAs of 3.5-4.0; 37.6% received GPAs of 3.0-3.49; 12.2% received GPAs of 2.5-2.99; 1.4% received GPAs of 2.0-2.49. In my sample, 2.3% attended high school in Haiti to which the 4.0 scale GPA was not applicable.

Findings of the Study

Eleven research questions were asked to look at what influenced the educational success among the educated Haitian-American women. The ten variables examined included place of birth, fields of study, degrees obtained, number of years to complete college, SES during college, GPA in high school, mother’s education, father’s education, GPA in undergraduate, and location of current residency. The eleven research questions and results are summarized below.

Research Question 1: How influential do Haitian-American women feel the following 16 variables were towards their attainment of educational success: language acquisition, prior academic achievement, level of family support, level of community support, high-school curriculum, access to resources, self-perception, self-motivation, financial assistance, campus ethnic diversity, sense of ethnic identity, spirituality,
college/university support, satisfaction with college/university, time management, and affordability of tuition?

This study found that Haitian-American women reported self-motivation as the most important factor that influenced their educational success. Financial assistance was reported as the second most important factor, followed by financial assistance, accessibility to resources, self-perception, time management, spiritual life, family support, prior academic achievement, and affordability of college tuition. Knowledge of second language was reported as the least important factor that influenced their educational success.

Research Question 2: Is there a difference between nationalized Haitian-American women and Haitian-American women born in the United States on the levels of importance given to these success factors?

Null Hypothesis 1: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the level of importance given between nationalized Haitian-American women and Haitian-American women born in the United States.

Significant relationship was found between one’s place of birth and the importance given to the success factor of Knowledge of second language. No other significant differences were found among one’s place of birth in the importance given by the participants to the following success factors: Prior academic achievement; University support; Community support; Satisfaction with university; Family support; High-school curriculum; Time management; Access to resources; Affordability of college; Financial assistance; Self-perception; Campus ethnic diversity; Ethnic identify; Self-motivation; Affordability of college; and Spiritual life. However, the findings suggest that those born
in Haiti perceived *Knowledge of second language* to be more important than those born in the U.S. No other significant group differences were found.

Research Question 3: Is there a difference among three groups of educational attainment (Bachelor’s, Master’s, or doctoral degree levels) and the importance given to these success factors?

Null Hypothesis 2: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the level of importance given among those who received a Bachelor’s, a Master’s, or a doctoral degree.

There were no significant relationships found between one’s obtained educational level and the importance given to the following success factors: *Knowledge of second language; Prior academic achievement; University support; Community support; Satisfaction with university; Family support; High-school curriculum; Time management; Access to resources; Financial assistance; Self-perception; Campus ethnic diversity; Ethnic identify; Self-motivation; and Spiritual life*. However, significant relationship was found between one’s obtained educational level and the importance given to the success factor of *Affordability of college*. These findings suggest that those with Bachelor’s degrees perceived *Affordability of college* to be more important than those with doctoral degrees. No other significant group differences were found.

Research Question 4: Is there a difference among five groups based on their fields of study (field of science, education, business, art, and “other”) and the importance given to these success factors?
Null Hypothesis 3: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among those in the fields of sciences, education, business, and arts.

There were no significant relationships found between one’s educational field of study and the importance given to the following success factors: Prior academic achievement; University support; Community support; Satisfaction with university; Family support; High-school curriculum; Time management; Access to resources; Affordability of college; Financial assistance; Self-perception; Campus ethnic diversity; Ethnic identify; Self-motivation; and Affordability of college. However, significant relationships were found between one’s educational field of study and the importance given to the success factor of Spiritual life. These findings suggest that those in the fields of Science perceived Spiritual life to be more important than those in “Other” fields. No other significant group differences were found.

Research Question 5: Is there a difference among five groups based on their high-school Grade Point Average (3.5-4.0, 3.0-3.49, 2.5-2.99, 2.0-2.49, and GPA-not applicable) and the levels of importance given to these success factors?

Null Hypothesis 4: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on high-school GPA.

There were no significant relationships found between one’s high-school GPA and the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: Knowledge of second language; University support; Community support; Satisfaction with university; Family support; High-school curriculum; Time management; Access to resources; Affordability of college; Financial assistance; Self-perception; Campus ethnic
diversity; Ethnic identify; Self-motivation; and Spiritual life. However, significant relationships were found between one’s high-school GPA and the importance given to the success factor of Prior academic achievement. These findings suggest that those who obtained 3.5-4.00 GPA in high school perceived Prior academic achievement to be more important than those who obtained a 2.5-2.99 GPA in high school. No other significant group differences were found.

Research Question 6: Is there a difference among four groups based on the number of years taken to complete college (4 or less, 5, 6, and 7 or more) and the levels of importance given to these success factors?

Null Hypothesis 5: There is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on the number of years taken to complete college to the factors of success.

There were no significant relationships found between the number of years taken to complete college and the importance given to the following success factors:

Knowledge of second language; Prior academic achievement; University support; Community support; Satisfaction with university; Family support; High-school curriculum; Time management; Access to resources; Affordability of college; Financial assistance; Self-perception; Campus ethnic diversity; Ethnic identify; and Spiritual life. However, significant relationship was found between the number of years taken to complete college and the importance given to the success factor of Self-motivation. These findings suggest that those who obtained their college degrees in 6 years perceived Self-motivation to be more important than those who received their degrees in 5 years and 4 years or less. No other significant group differences were found.
Research Question 7: Is there a difference among five groups based on their annual household income during college (less than $20,000, $20,001-$30,000, $30,001-$40,000, $40,001-$50,000, and above $50,000) and the levels of importance given to these success factors?

Null Hypothesis 6: There is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on the annual household income during college to these factors of success.

There were no significant relationship between one’s annual household income during college and the importance given to the following success factors: Knowledge of second language; Prior academic achievement; Community support; Satisfaction with university; University support; Family support; High-school curriculum; Time management; Access to resources; Affordability of college; Campus ethnic diversity; Self-perception; Ethnic identify; Self-motivation; and Spiritual life. However, significant relationship was found between one’s annual household income during college and in the importance given to the success factor of Financial assistance. These findings suggest that those with household income during college of $30,001-$40,000 perceive Financial assistance to be significantly more important than those with household income during college of above $50,000. No other significant group differences were found.

Research Question 8: Is there a difference among three groups based on their mother’s highest level of education (high-school diploma or less, some college, and Bachelor’s degree or beyond) and the levels of importance given to these success factors?
Null Hypothesis 7: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on their mother’s level of education to the factors of success.

There were no significant relationships between one’s mother’s educational level and the importance given to the following success factors between the groups:

Knowledge of second language; Prior academic achievement; University support; Community support; Satisfaction with university; Family support; High-school curriculum; Time management; Access to resources; Affordability of college; Self-perception; Campus ethnic diversity; Ethnic identity; Self-motivation; and Spiritual life. However, significant relationship was found between one’s mother’s educational level and the importance given to the success factor of Financial assistance. These findings suggest that those whose mothers obtained their high-school diploma or less perceived Financial assistance to be significantly more important than those whose mothers’ received some college education. No other significant group differences were found.

Research Question 9: Is there a difference among three groups based on their father’s highest level of education (high-school diploma or less, some college, and Bachelor’s degree or beyond) and these levels of importance given to these success factors?

Null Hypothesis 8: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on their father’s level of education to the factors of success.

There were no significant relationships found between one’s father’s educational level and the importance given to the following success factors: Knowledge of second
language; Prior academic achievement; University support; Community support; Satisfaction with university; Family support; Financial assistance; High-school curriculum; Time management; Access to resources; Affordability of college; Self-perception; Campus ethnic diversity; Ethnic identity; and Self-motivation. However, significant relationship was found between one’s fathers’ educational level and the importance given to the success factor of Spiritual life. These findings indicate those whose fathers obtained their high-school diploma or less perceived Spiritual life to be significantly more important than those whose fathers received their Bachelor’s degree and beyond. No other significant group differences were found.

Research Question 10: Is there a difference among four groups based on their undergraduate Grade Point Average (3.5-4.0, 3.0-3.49, 2.5-2.99, and 2.49 or less) and the levels of importance given to these success factors?

Null Hypothesis 9: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on college GPA.

There were no significant relationships found in the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: Knowledge of second language; Prior academic achievement; University support; Satisfaction with university; Family support; High-school curriculum; Time management; Access to resources; Affordability of college; Financial assistance; Self-perception; Campus ethnic diversity; Ethnic identity; Self-motivation; and Spiritual life. However, significant relationship was found based on their college GPA in the importance given to the success factor of Community support. These findings suggest that those who obtain college GPA’s of 3.0-3.49 and 2.5-2.99
perceived *Community support* to be more important than those with a GPA of 3.5-4.0. No other significant group differences were found.

Research Question 11: Is there a difference among three groups based on their current location of residency (Northeast Region, Southeast Region, and “other” regions) and the levels of importance given to these success factors? “Other” regions included the Midwest Region, the Southwest Region, and Western Region of the United States.

Null Hypothesis 10: Within these factors of success, there is no difference in the levels of importance given among the women based on their current location of residency to the factors of success.

There were no significant relationships found in the importance given to the following success factors between the groups: *Knowledge of second language; Prior academic achievement; Satisfaction with university; Family support; High-school curriculum; Access to resources; Affordability of college; Financial assistance; Self-perception; Community support; Ethnic identify; Self-motivation; and Spiritual life*. However, significant relationships were found based on their current location of residency in the importance given to the success factors of *University support, Time management*, and *Campus ethnic diversity*. These findings suggest that those who live in the Southeast Region of the United States perceived *University support* to be more important than those who live in the Northeast Region of the United States. In addition, those who live in the “other” regions of the United States perceived *Time management* to be more important than those who live in the Northeast Region of the United States. Lastly, those who live in the Southeast Region of the United States perceived *Campus*
ethnic diversity to be more important than those who live in the “other” regions of the United States. No other significant group differences were found.

**Discussion of Findings**

The attempt has been made in this study to examine the factors that contribute to the educational success of Haitian-American women. This study showed that there were more similarities than differences in the perceptions of Haitian-American women on educational success across the 16 dependent variables measured when classified into the following groups: place of birth, present level of education, fields of study, grade point average obtained in high school, number of years taken to complete college, household income during undergraduate studies, mother’s level of education, and father’s level of education, GPA in undergraduate, and location of current residency. Nevertheless, some differences were noted among the groups. This section discusses findings, compares research to other studies, and highlights the limitations of my study.

My findings suggest that Haitian-American women view self-motivation as the most important factor contributing to their educational success, followed by financial assistance, accessibility to resources, self-perception, time management, spiritual life, family support, prior academic achievement, and affordability of college tuition. Other studies (Bui, 2002; Bye et al., 2007; Cabrera et al., 1999; Choa & Good, 2004; De La Rosa, 2006; Spitzer, 2000) found similar results with other ethnic groups that may or may not have included Haitian-American women. These nine factors appear to be the key elements that contributed to the educational success of Haitian-American women in my study.
Overall in this study, Haitian-American women perceived knowledge of second language to be the least important factor contributing to their success in college. Although the participants did not identify knowledge of second language as an important factor, further analysis of the data revealed that Haitian-American women born in Haiti did perceive knowledge of second language to be more important than those born in the U.S. This may be attributed to the fact that when individuals from foreign countries plan to study in a college or university in the United States, they are required to take an English proficiency test demonstrating an acceptable level of English mastery before being admitted into any class. This being the case, the Haitian-American women born in Haiti might have seen the need to learn English as much more important than those who were native-born in the United States. No other differences were noted among the factors studied based on their places of birth. The groups agreed on all the other factors. These results suggest that there were more similarities between the groups than differences.

This study found that Haitian-American women with Bachelor’s degrees perceived affordability of college to be more important than those with doctoral degrees. Perhaps one of the most challenging situations for students once they have entered college is figuring out how they will afford or pay for their college tuition. Although I am uncertain as to why Haitian-American women with Bachelor’s degrees perceived affordability of college to be more important than those with doctoral degrees, I wonder if this might suggest that soliciting/obtaining financial assistance is a more daunting experience for those pursuing B.A. degrees than those in doctoral programs. Might there also be more substantial financial assistance for those pursuing doctoral degrees when
compared to those pursuing an undergraduate degree? Further studies that look more into this factor might shed greater light on this finding. No further differences in the level of importance given among those who received a Bachelor’s, a Master’s, or a doctoral degree were found. They agreed on all the other factors. Once more, this shows that there are more similarities between the groups than differences.

Another finding in my study suggested that the factor of spirituality was perceived to be more important for those in the fields of Science than those in “Other” fields for Haitian-American women. The reason why these two groups have different views on spirituality is unclear to me. However, future researchers might be able to explore this further by conducting studies that look at the role that spirituality plays among Haitian-American women from different disciplines, possibly asking not only how they would define spirituality, but also in what ways they perceive spirituality to be a great support to them. This study did not examine the differences between the two groups in terms of how they defined spirituality or how long they engaged in spiritual activities, nor did it examine their religious backgrounds. Such information might provide some understanding of this result. However, no further differences in the levels of importance given among those in the fields of sciences, education, business, and arts were noted. The groups agreed on all the other factors.

The participants in this study who obtained a 3.5-4.00 GPA in high school significantly perceived prior academic achievement to be more important than those who obtained a 2.5-2.99 GPA in high school. Pitre (2006) found that students’ academic performance in high school was a factor that contributed to college academic success. I would like to suggest that my study supports this finding. Perhaps students with higher
GPAs in high school felt like their prior academic achievement and success helped them feel more confident in their success in college. Again, no other differences in the levels of importance given among the women based on their high-school GPA were found. More similarities than differences were noted between the groups.

It appears that the Haitian-American women who spent a longer time completing college attributed their success more to motivation than did those completing in less time. Concretely, my study suggested that those who obtained their college degrees in 6 years perceived self-motivation to be more important than those who received their degrees in 5 years and 4 years or less. Most likely those Haitian-American women who spent more years in college might have come across more challenges while in school, necessitating more self-talk to stay motivated in order to achieve their goals. Future studies might want to take a look at how self-motivation is affected by the length of time one takes to complete his/her degree. No other differences in the levels of importance given among the women based on the number of years taken to complete college to the factors of success were found. They agreed on all the other factors.

This study found that those with household incomes during college of $30,001-$40,000 perceived financial assistance to be significantly more important than those with household incomes during college of above $50,000. Socioeconomic status of parents did appear to significantly contribute to the perception of what the participants felt was an important contributor toward their college success when these two groups were compared. Logically, it is more likely that the parents with incomes above $50,000 were better able to financially assist and/or support their students in college than those with lesser incomes. Parents struggling with finances might have few or no resources to use
when their offspring need financial assistance, creating a feeling of being more
vulnerable as a student. Thus, this result appears to suggest that Haitian-American
women with low SES during college significantly attributed their success in college more
to obtaining financial assistance than the other groups. Not having to worry about how to
financially pay for one’s studies would probably help any student feel less stressed-out
and more supported in his/her educational endeavor.

Another finding in this study suggested that those whose mothers obtained their
high-school diploma or less perceived financial assistance to be significantly more
important than those whose mothers received some college education. Normally, the less
education parents receive, the lower they are on the socioeconomic ladder, and, most
likely, the less ability they have to provide funds for their children’s education. Financial
assistance, then, becomes extremely important for students from these families if they
wish to study in college. Also, understanding how to apply and obtain these resources,
grants, loans, and pursue other alternative ways to finance college education might be
something a mother could process or advise on more easily if she too had apply and had
gone to college. Further analysis of the data revealed that regardless of their mothers’
education level, the Haitian-American women in this study all viewed financial assistance
as an important factor that contributed to their success. Once more, no further differences
in the levels of importance given among the women based on their mother’s level of
education to the factors of success were found. The groups revealed more similarities on
the other factors in this study.

With regard to fathers, this study found that those whose fathers obtained their
high-school diploma or less perceived spiritual life to be significantly more important
than those whose fathers received their Bachelor’s degree and beyond. Bonderud and Fleischer’s (2004) study indicated that students whose parents have low education levels tend to show greater religious engagement, religious commitment, spirituality, and spiritual growth and to be more involved in a spiritual quest than are students whose parents had higher education levels. Perhaps this holds true in this study. The fathers with a high-school diploma or less may do more to instill in their children the importance of spirituality in their lives than other fathers with higher education. Might this explain why the Haitian-American women whose fathers obtained their high-school diploma or less viewed spiritual life as a more important factor that contributed to their success than those whose fathers received their Bachelor’s degree? Conceivably, these women learned to incorporate spirituality in their education from observing the spiritual lives of their father. Further analysis of the data revealed that no further differences in the levels of importance given among the women based on their father’s level of education to the factors of success were found. More similarities than differences, however, were noted between the groups.

The findings also suggested that those who obtained college GPA’s of 3.0-3.49 and 2.5-2.99 perceived community support to be more important than those with a GPA of 3.5-4.0. Further research is needed to explain further this finding. Studies that examine the relationship between community support and college GPAs among Haitian-American women might shed further light on this topic. Nevertheless, no other differences in the levels of importance given among the women based on college GPA were found. The groups agreed on all the other factors.
The Haitian-American women in this study currently live in various parts of the United States. I wanted to see if there would be any differences in their perceptions on the factors based on their current location. The results of this study suggested that those who live in the Southeast Region of the United States perceived university support to be more important than those who live in the Northeast Region of the United States. In addition, those who live in the “other” regions of the United States perceived time management to be more important than those who live in the northeast region of the United States. Finally, those who live in the Southeast Region of the United States perceived campus ethnic diversity to be more important than those who live in the “other” regions of the United States. It is unclear as to why these differences occurred. However, further research that examines the lives, influences, views, and/or education of Haitian-American women around the United States could help provide an explanation to these findings. Nevertheless, no other differences in the levels of importance given among the women based on their current location of residency to the factors of success were noted. Once again, more similarities were found between the groups.

**Conclusion**

Although the media often presents negative information about Haiti and its people, research and information on the educational success of Haitian-American women redirects our focus on the positive contributions of this group. With this in mind, it is believed that this study makes important contributions to understanding some factors that are associated with promoting higher education among Haitian-American women.

Within the limits of the analysis, interesting findings have emerged. From this research it was revealed that 9 out of the 16 factors studied contributed to the success of
Haitian-American women. The 9 factors are self-motivation, financial assistance, accessibility to resources, self-perception, time management, spiritual life, family support, prior academic achievement, and affordability of college tuition. Furthermore, it was determined that several factors are viewed as not being important contributors to the success of Haitian-American women. These factors are community support, knowledge of second language, university support, satisfaction with university, high-school curriculum, campus ethnic diversity, and ethnic identity. Knowledge of a second language was perceived as the factor that contributed the least to the success of Haitian-American women.

Haitian-American women have not gained much recognition in research, and often have been included among the African-American populations in many studies. Thus, little is known about this unique group of people, and in this case, those elements that contributed specifically to the success of these women in pursuant of their higher education. I set out to learn more about these women, taking into consideration their historical and cultural differences, and explore the factors that supported them towards achieving educational success. This study is exceptional in that no other studies have exclusively examined the educational success of Haitian-American women.

The results of this study can serve as a guide for others to create programs tailored to motivate other Haitian-American women to obtain their college degrees. The focus of these programs should be on ways to enlighten Haitian-American women on the factors that promote their educational success with the knowledge of the factors that do not contribute to their success. These programs should magnify the success factors that contributed to their academic excellence. This study can also be used to educate Haitian
parents on the importance of being involved in the education of their children. If parents in the Haitian communities were made aware through presentations and testimonials of others of how essential their involvements were in their children’s college education, perhaps more would be inclined to participate, show support, and get involved in the process.

**Recommendations**

Based on the results of my study, I would like to recommend the following points to college administrators, Haitian-American women, and Haitian families:

1. College/University administrators should continue to provide Haitian-American students with information on various ways they can finance their education. Financial assistance was identified as an important factor that contributed to the success of Haitian-American women in this study. With the increase of college tuition, Haitian-American women would benefit from understanding that there are still means of financing their education. Institutions can offer free sessions for current and upcoming students to teach them on ways to finance their education. They can educate the students on various grants, scholarships, and loans. Since there are a number of scholarships available each year for students, for example, the colleges and universities can educate the students on how to gain knowledge and apply to them. In addition, they can inform students about work-study programs, which will allow them to work in order to finance their education while attending school.

2. College/University administrators should be aware of the demographic background (GPAs, family SES, etc.) when recruiting Haitian-American women. By being aware of their demographic background they could provide them with resources to
better guide them through their higher education pursuit. For example, colleges and universities can create and provide the students with a list of community resources that help them advance in the studies. Perhaps they can create a resource referral list that contains information on how students can get access to computers and books at discounted prices or free of charge, information on transportation services for internships, practicum and/or volunteer purposes, and tutoring services that are available to students.

3. Haitian-American women would benefit from knowing about the nine factors that appear to be the key elements that contribute to their educational success. In this study those nine factors were viewed as important contributors to the college success of Haitian-American women. By understanding those nine essential factors, many more Haitian-American women would be successful. A booklet that contains the information found in this study can be handed out to upcoming and current Haitian-American women in the churches, schools, and communities. In addition, Haitian-American students can benefit from mentoring programs in the communities that link them with other Haitian-American women who have successfully graduated from college. Furthermore, Haitian-American women can create or get involved in support groups that will enable them to teach, encourage, and motivate each other while pursuing their college careers.

4. Haitian families should understand the key elements that promote successful Haitian-American women. Families play an intricate role in promoting college success in their children. By understanding those nine factors, they can help college become a reality for their children. This information can be presented to Haitian parents in the churches, schools, and/or communities. The presentations can also contain information on how Haitian parents can get involved in the education of their children. They can learn
about preparatory programs their children can join to get them motivated early on in life about college. For example, they can encourage their children to volunteer whenever they can in hospitals, schools, churches, and/or communities where they will get a chance to see various professionals at work. These can possibly create and develop the interests of their children in the field they would like to study in college.

5. Haitian-American women would benefit from understanding the importance of high-school achievement as they advance toward college. This study shows that prior academic achievement was a beneficial factor for those with higher GPAs. Haitian-American women in high school would benefit from knowing that their hard work and excellence in high school can benefit them in college. They should be encouraged to study hard, participate in study groups, and schedule time daily to study so that they will do their best in school.

**Suggestions for Additional Research**

While conducting this study, I came across a number of topics that have sparked my interest. With the completion of this study, I hope to embark on more studies pertaining to Haitian-American women and other studies that examine educational enrichment programs and language acquisition programs for immigrant children. Nevertheless, it is hoped that the findings in this study be used as a springboard or framework for other research. The following are some suggestions of possible research that can result from this study:

1. A study should be conducted that correlates different ethnic groups to see if the findings of this study are unique to Haitian-American Women.
2. A longitudinal study should be conducted on Haitian immigrants today to see whether they and/or their children would complete college and the factors involved.

3. It is also suggested that more studies be conducted using other factors with Haitian-American women and/or other minority groups.

4. Last, a qualitative approach to this study is also recommended. Personal interviews and/or case studies would provide additional support, direction, and information on the pursuit of higher education among Haitian-American women.

With limited studies on Haitian-American women in education, this study hopes to inspire many others to explore this field of research.
APPENDIX A

PARTICIPATION LETTER
Appendix A

Participation letter

Dear fellow professional Haitian-American women:

My name is Magdana Louis, a doctoral student at Andrews University in Berrien Springs Michigan. I am currently embarking on a research project “Factors that contribute to the educational success of Haitian-American women” under the supervision of Dr. Nancy Carbonell in the Department of Educational Psychology.

As Haitian-American women with a college degree, you were randomly selected to participate in a survey which will analyze the many factors that contribute to your educational endeavors and successes. Such random selection helps to insure a representative sample of the whole group without fear of favor. If you choose to participate as I hope, be aware that this questionnaire will take no more than 10 minutes of your time. The information obtained from the survey will be used in writing my doctoral dissertation. Your participation in completing this survey is greatly appreciated. The information will not only benefit present and future Haitian-American students, it will also bring awareness to our colleges and universities. Please note that there is no cost to you and you will receive no money for participating. There are no risks involved.

All of your responses will be kept strictly confidential and no reference will be made to you as a person. All information will be coded and stored in the computer for analysis. Your participation in this study is highly crucial to the completion of the project.

Please feel free to forward this email/ letter to anyone who fits the description for this study. Consider the benefit we can all derive from such a study. Please check “yes” to the first question on the survey indicating that you have read this letter.

Sincerely

Magdana Louis
Appendix B
Preliminary Questionnaire

My name is Magdana Louis, a doctoral student at Andrews University in Berrien Springs Michigan. I am currently embarking on a research project entitled, “Factors that contribute to the educational success of Haitian-American women.”

You have been selected to be part of a pilot group for my dissertation inventory. In order to make this questionnaire a reliable instrument, your input is vital. Please take the time to analyze each question and indicate whether or not the questions are understandable and if you perceive them to be relevant to this study.

Once I’ve collected your responses, I will email you a revised inventory until I have successfully obtained a reliable instrument.

Mark (+) for questions that are understandable and/or relevant
Mark (–) for questions that are NOT understandable and/or relevant. Then indicated what needs to be altered.

Inventory of College Success for Haitian American Women

Part I – Demographic information

Directions: Please complete this section by marking the appropriate choice

1. Ethnicity
   ____ Haitian-American    ____American-American
   ____ Anglo-American    ____ Latino-American
   ____ Other (specify)________

   UNDERSTABLE  RELEVANT

   _______________  _____________

   COMMENT:______________________________________________________

2. Place of Birth
   ____ Haiti      ____ United States
   ____ Other (specify)_____

   UNDERSTABLE  RELEVANT

   _______________  _____________

   COMMENT:______________________________________________________
3. Which State in the U.S. do you currently reside? __________________
   UNDERSTABLE  RELEVANT
   __________    __________
   COMMENT:______________________________________________________

4. Education
   _____Associate’s Degree  _____Master’s Degree
   _____Bachelor’s Degree  _____Doctorate Degree
   UNDERSTABLE  RELEVANT
   __________    __________
   COMMENT:______________________________________________________

5. Field of Study
   _____Sciences  _____Arts
   _____Business  _____Education
   UNDERSTABLE  RELEVANT
   __________    __________
   COMMENT:______________________________________________________

6. From which University/College did you receive your highest degree?
   __________________________________________
   UNDERSTABLE  RELEVANT
   __________    __________
   COMMENT:______________________________________________________

7. GPA (Grade Point Average) in High School (circle one):
   A   B   C   D   F
   UNDERSTABLE  RELEVANT
   __________    __________
   COMMENT:______________________________________________________

8. GPA (Grade Point Average) in College/University (circle one):
   A   B   C   D   F
   UNDERSTABLE  RELEVANT
   __________    __________
9. Age at the time you received your highest degree?
   ____20 to 24   ____36 to 45   ____56 and above
   ____25 to 35   ____46 to 55

   UNDERSTABLE   RELEVANT

10. Annual household income when you were receiving your Bachelor’s Degree
    ___Under $20,000   ___$60,001-$70,000
    ___$20,001-$30,000   ___$70,001-$80,000
    ___$30,001-$40,000   ___$80,001-$90,000
    ___$40,001-$50,000   ___$90,001-$100,000
    ___$50,001-$60,000   ___Above $100,000

   UNDERSTABLE   RELEVANT

11. Education level of your mother
    ___Less than 9\textsuperscript{th} grade   ___Some College
    ___Graduation equivalent   ___Associate’s Degree
    Diploma (G.E.D.)   ___Bachelor’s Degree
    ___High school diploma   ___Master’s Degree
    ___Technical or Trade   ___Doctorate Degree

   UNDERSTABLE   RELEVANT

12. Education level of your father
    ___Less than 9\textsuperscript{th} grade   ___Some College
    ___Graduation equivalent   ___Associate’s Degree
    Diploma (G.E.D.)   ___Bachelor’s Degree
    ___High school diploma   ___Master’s Degree
    ___Technical or Trade   ___Doctorate Degree

   UNDERSTABLE   RELEVANT
Part II – Language Acquisition

During your college years…

1. What language(s) does your father speak? _________________________________

2. What language(s) does your mother speak? _________________________________

3. What language(s) do you speak? _________________________________

4. How well do you speak Haitian Creole? (check one)
   ___ Very fluently
   ___ Somewhat fluently
   ___ Can communicate basic ideas
   ___ Can speak only some basic words and phrases
   ___ No knowledge of Haitian Creole
5. How well do you speak French? (check one) 
   ___Very fluently  
   ___Somewhat fluently  
   ___Can communicate basic ideas  
   ___Can speak only some basic words and phrases  
   ___No knowledge of Haitian Creole  

   UNDERSTABLE       RELEVANT
   _________________   _____________

   COMMENT:______________________________________________________

6. How well do you speak English? (check one) 
   ___Very fluently  
   ___Somewhat fluently  
   ___Can communicate basic ideas  
   ___Can speak only some basic words and phrases  
   ___No knowledge of Haitian Creole  

   UNDERSTABLE       RELEVANT
   _________________   _____________

   COMMENT:______________________________________________________

7. What language(s) do your parents speak at home? ____________________________  

   UNDERSTABLE       RELEVANT
   _________________   _____________

   COMMENT:______________________________________________________

8. What language(s) do you speak at home? ___________________________________  

   UNDERSTABLE       RELEVANT
   _________________   _____________

   COMMENT:______________________________________________________

Part III – Factors that Contribute to Academic Success

Directions: Reflect back on your high school and college years. What factors contributed to your academic success? Read each statement, and then indicate the level that the item was important to your graduation with a Bachelor’s Degree

5- Very important  
2- Of little importance
1. How important was your ability to learn a second language to the completion of your college education?

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**COMMENT:**

2. How important was your prior academic achievement to the completion of your college education?

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**COMMENT:**

3. How important was family support to the completion of your college education?

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**COMMENT:**

4. How important was family support to the completion of your college education?

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**COMMENT:**

5. How important to your college graduation was the challenge of your high school curriculum?

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6. How important was community support to the completion of your college education?

5  4  3  2  1
Very important  Important  Somewhat important  Of little important  Not important

COMMENT: _______________________________________________________

7. How important was your accessibility to resources to the completion of your college education?

5  4  3  2  1
Very important  Important  Somewhat important  Of little important  Not important

COMMENT: _______________________________________________________

8. How important was stress management to the completion of your college education?

5  4  3  2  1
Very important  Important  Somewhat important  Of little important  Not important

COMMENT: _______________________________________________________

9. How important was your level of self perception to the completion of your college education?

5  4  3  2  1
Very important  Important  Somewhat important  Of little important  Not important

COMMENT: _______________________________________________________

10. How important was motivation to the completion of your college education?

5  4  3  2  1
Very important  Important  Somewhat important  Of little important  Not important
11. How important was financial assistance to the completion of your college education?

5 4 3 2 1
Very important Important Somewhat important Of little important Not important

12. How important was campus ethnic diversity to the completion of your college education?

5 4 3 2 1
Very important Important Somewhat important Of little important Not important

13. How important was your sense of ethnic identity to the completion of your college education?

5 4 3 2 1
Very important Important Somewhat important Of little important Not important

14. How important was spirituality to the completion of your college education?

5 4 3 2 1
Very important Important Somewhat important Of little important Not important

15. How important to your college graduation was the support you received from the university you attended?

5 4 3 2 1
Very important Important Somewhat important Of little important Not important
16. How important to your college graduation was the level of satisfaction you felt with the college or university you chose to attend?

5 4 3 2 1
Very important Important Somewhat important Of little important Not important
APPENDIX C

INVENTORY OF COLLEGE SUCCESS FOR HAITIAN-AMERICAN WOMEN
Appendix C

Inventory of College Success for Haitian American Women

___Yes, I wish to participate in the survey. I have read the “Participation letter” and understand that there is no payment to me and no cost for participating, I want to remain anonymous.

Part I – Demographic information

Directions: Please complete this section by marking the appropriate choice

1. Ethnicity
   ___ Haitian-American
   ___ African-American
   ___ Anglo-American
   ___ Latino-American
   ___ Other (specify)

2. Place of Birth
   ___ Haiti
   ___ United States
   ___ Other (specify)

3. Which State in the U.S. do you currently live in?
   ______________________

4. Education
   ___ Bachelor’s Degree
   ___ Doctorate Degree
   ___ Master’s Degree

5. Field of Study
   ___ Sciences
   ___ Arts
   ___ Business
   ___ Education
   ___ Other (specify)

6. GPA (Grade Point Average) in High School (circle one):
   3.5-4.00
   3.0-3.49
   2.5-2.99
   2.0-2.49
   1.5-1.99
1.0-1.49
Below 1.0

7. GPA (Grade Point Average) in undergraduate (circle one):
   3.5-4.00
   3.0-3.49
   2.5-2.99
   2.0-2.49
   1.5-1.99
   1.0-1.49
   Below 1.0

8. How many years did it take you to obtain your college degree?
   ____4 or less
   ____5
   ____6
   ____7
   ____8 or more

9. Annual household income when you were receiving your Bachelor’s Degree
   ____Under $20,000  ____$20,001-$30,000
   ____$30,001-$40,000  ____$40,001-$50,000
   ____$50,001-$60,000  ____Above $100,000

10. Education level of your mother
    ____Less than 9th grade
    ____Graduation equivalent Diploma (G.E.D).
    ____High school diploma
    ____Technical or Trade
    ____Some College
    ____Associate’s Degree
    ____Bachelor’s Degree
    ____Master’s Degree
    ____Doctorate Degree

11. Education level of your father
    ____Less than 9th grade
    ____Graduation equivalent Diploma (G.E.D).
    ____High school diploma
    ____Technical or Trade
    ____Some College
    ____Associate’s Degree
    ____Bachelor’s Degree
    ____Master’s Degree
Part II – Factors that Contribute to Academic Success

Directions: Reflect back on your high school and college years. Read each statement, and rate each one according to how important it was in contributing to your academic success.

5- Very important  2- Of little importance
4- Important 1- Not important
3- Somewhat important

1. How important was your knowledge of a second language towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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2. How important was your prior academic achievements towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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3. How important was the support you received from the university you attended towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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4. How important was community support towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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5. How important was the level of satisfaction you felt with the college or university you chose to attend towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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6. How important was family support towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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7. How important was the rigor of your high school curriculum towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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8. How important was time management towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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9. How important was your accessibility to resources towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education (e.g. internet, computer, library etc…)?

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10. How important was the affordability of college tuition towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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11. How important was financial assistance towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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12. How important was your level of self-perception towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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13. How important was campus ethnic diversity towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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14. How important was your sense of ethnic identity towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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15. How important was self-motivation towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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<th>Somewhat important 3</th>
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16. How important was your spiritual life towards aiding you to successfully complete your college education?

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APPENDIX D

LETTER FROM PAULINE LENERTZ TORRES
Appendix D

Pauline Lenertz Torres, Ed.D. • 5068 Glenmont Dr. • Houston, Texas 77063-5541

October 18, 2005

Magdana Louis
4215 Coquina Circle #D
Bradenton, Florida 34208

Dear Ms. Louis:

Thank you for your interest in my 2003 doctoral dissertation, Factors which Contribute to the Success of Mexican American Women in Texas Higher Education. This letter is written to give you permission to use the copyrighted survey entitled “Inventory of Academic Success of Female Administrators”, with a modification for Haitian American women in Part I of the instrument. Upon completion of your survey, please send me a copy of your data analysis and conclusions. I wish you well in your pursuit of knowledge for the benefit of all.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Dr. Pauline Lenertz Torres
APPENDIX E

LETTER FROM THE NATIONAL HAITIAN STUDENT ALLIANCE
April 24, 2006

To Whom It May Concern:

The National Haitian Student Alliance has agreed to assist Magdana Louis in her dissertation. We are connected to a number of Haitian-American students and professionals from various universities around the United States and Haiti. We will be able to provide her with some contact information that will help her in her research. We understand that upon the completion of this research we will be provided with the results of her findings. Her current research on Factors that contribute to the educational success of Haitian-American women will help educators, current and future students, to gain a better understanding of this topic and use this information to promote these factors among Haitian-American women. This in turn will lead to an increase in the number of successful Haitian-American women within our communities.

Sincerely,

Yvecar Momperousse

Yve-Car Momperousse, Project Director
APPENDIX F

LETTER FROM HUMAN SUBJECT REVIEW COMMITTEE OF A.U.
May 4, 2006

Ms. Magdana Louis
4215 Coquina Circle, Apt D
Bradenton, FL 34208-5128

Ms. Louis,

RE: APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL OF RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS
IRB Protocol #: 06-048  Application Type: Original  Dept: Education
Review Category: Exempt  Action Taken: Approved  Advisor: Dr. Nancy Carbonell
Protocol Title: Factors that contribute to the educational success of Haitian-American women

This letter is to advise you that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed and approved your proposal for research. You have been given clearance to proceed with your research plans.

All changes made to the study design and/or consent form, after initiation of the project, require prior approval from the IRB before such changes can be implemented. Feel free to contact our office if you have any questions.

The duration of the present approval is for one year. If your research is going to take more than one year, you must apply for an extension of your approval in order to be authorized to continue with this project.

Some proposal and research design designs may be of such a nature that participation in the project may involve certain risks to human subjects. If your project is one of this nature and in the implementation of your project an incidence occurs which results in a research-related adverse reaction and/or physical injury, such an occurrence must be reported immediately in writing to the Institutional Review Board. Any project-related physical injury must also be reported immediately to the University physician, Dr. Loren Hamel, by calling (269) 473-2222.

We wish you success as you implement the research project as outlined in the approved protocol.

Sincerely,

Samuel Millen
Graduate Assistant
Institutional Review Board
Cc: Dr. Nancy Carbonell

Office of Scholarly Research
(269) 471-6360  Fax: (269) 471-6246  E-mail: irb@andrews.edu
Andrews University, Berrien Springs, MI 49104

COPY
APPROVED
APPENDIX G

DR. TORRES’S QUESTIONNAIRE
Appendix G

INVENTORY OF ACADEMIC SUCCESS OF FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS

Part I—Demographic Information

Directions: Please complete this section by marking the appropriate choice.

1. Ethnicity
   ___ African American
   ___ Anglo American
   ___ Asian American
   ___ Central American
   ___ Cuban American
   ___ Mexican American
   ___ Puerto Rican
   ___ Other (specify)

2. Education
   ___ Bachelor's Degree
   ___ Master's Degree
   ___ Doctorate Degree

3. Please mark the statement that best applies to you:
   ___ I attended community college prior to enrolling in a university.
   ___ I did not attend community college prior to enrolling in a university.

4. From which university did you receive your Bachelor’s degree?

5. Age at the time you received your Bachelor’s Degree
   ___ 25 to 35
   ___ 36 to 45
   ___ 46 to 55
   ___ 56 and above

6. Marital status at the time you received your Bachelor’s Degree
   ___ Single
   ___ Married
   ___ Separated
   ___ Divorced

7. Annual household income when you received your Bachelor’s Degree
   ___ Under $20,000
   ___ $20,001-$30,000
   ___ $30,001-$40,000
   ___ $40,001-$50,000
   ___ $50,001-$60,000
   ___ $60,001-$70,000
   ___ $70,001-$80,000
   ___ $80,001-$90,000
   ___ $90,001-$100,000
   ___ Above $100,000
8. Education level of your mother

[ ] Less than 9th grade [ ] Some college
[ ] Graduation Equivalency [ ] Associate's Degree
    Diploma (G. E. D.) [ ] Bachelor's Degree
[ ] High school diploma [ ] Master's Degree
[ ] Technical or Trade School [ ] Doctorate Degree

9. Your current position on campus

[ ] Associate Dean [ ] Director
[ ] Associate Vice President [ ] Manager
[ ] President [ ] Provost
[ ] Bursar [ ] Registrar
[ ] Coordinator [ ] Vice President
[ ] Dean [ ] Other administrator
[ ] Department Chair

Part II—Factors that Contribute to Academic Success

Directions: Reflect back on your high school and college years. What factors contributed to your academic success? Read each statement, and then indicate the level that the item was important to your graduation with a Bachelor's Degree.

5—Very Important  4—Important  3—Somewhat Important  2—Of Little Importance  1—Not Important

3. How important to your college graduation was your having a competitive spirit?

5  4  3  2  1
Very Important Important Somewhat Important Of Little Importance Not Important

2. How important to your college graduation was your having an ethnically mixed group of friends?

5  4  3  2  1
Very Important Important Somewhat Important Of Little Importance Not Important

3. How important to your graduation were others' expectations of you?

5  4  3  2  1
Very Important Important Somewhat Important Of Little Importance Not Important
4. How important to your college graduation was the challenge of your high school curriculum?

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5. How important to your college graduation were the attitudes of your high school teachers, coaches, counselors and administrators toward you?

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6. How important to your college graduation was your high school involvement in clubs or sporting activities?

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7. How important to your college graduation were the expectations your parents had of you?

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8. How important to your college graduation was your family's regular participation in recreational or cultural events?

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9. How important to your college graduation was the financial support your parents gave you?

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10. How important to your college graduation was the influence that at least one positive female role model had on you when you were maturing?

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11. How important to your graduation was your involvement in a community center that provided academic support when you were a teenager?

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12. How important to your college graduation was your ability to access community resources?

Very Important | Important | Somewhat Important | Of Little Importance | Not Important
5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1

13. How important to your college graduation were the expectations you set for yourself and your belief that you could achieve your goals?

Very Important | Important | Somewhat Important | Of Little Importance | Not Important
5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1

14. How important to your graduation was your ability to manage anger?

Very Important | Important | Somewhat Important | Of Little Importance | Not Important
5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1

15. How important to your college graduation was your ability to balance natural biological cycles that affected your well-being during the month?

Very Important | Important | Somewhat Important | Of Little Importance | Not Important
5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1

16. How important to your college graduation was the support you received from the university you attended?

Very Important | Important | Somewhat Important | Of Little Importance | Not Important
5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1

17. How important to your college graduation was your involvement in at least one campus club, team, or organization?

Very Important | Important | Somewhat Important | Of Little Importance | Not Important
5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1

18. How important to your college graduation was the level of satisfaction you felt with the college or university you chose to attend?

Very Important | Important | Somewhat Important | Of Little Importance | Not Important
5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1

19. How important to your graduation were affirmative action policies?

Very Important | Important | Somewhat Important | Of Little Importance | Not Important
5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1

20. How important to your graduation was campus ethnic diversity?

Very Important | Important | Somewhat Important | Of Little Importance | Not Important
5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1
REFERENCE LIST


VITA
VITA
MAGDANA LOUIS

Educational Background
2008 Ph.D. candidate in Educational Psychology
Andrews University, Berrien Springs, Michigan

2006 Specialist Degree, Ed.S., in School Psychology
Andrews University, Berrien Springs, Michigan

2001 Master in Social Work
Andrews University Berrien Springs, Michigan

2000 Bachelor of Social Work with Minor in Psychology
Southwestern Adventist University, Keene, Texas

Professional Experience
2006- current Certified Multilingual School Psychologist
Clayton County Public Schools, Morrow, Georgia

2005- 2006 School Psychology Internship
Manatee County School District, Bradenton, Florida

2005 Student teaching for Educational Psychology course
Andrews University, Berrien Springs, Michigan

2003- 2005 Social worker and Spanish Instructor
Lakeland Outpatient Rehabilitation Center, Niles, Michigan

2002-2003 Missionary/English teacher
Universidad Adventista de Centro America, Alajuela, Costa Rica

2001-2002 Assistant Coordinator
Community Service Assistantship Program, Berrien Springs, Michigan

2000-2001 Social Work Internship
Pioneer Memorial Social Services, Berrien Springs, Michigan
Brandywine Elementary School, Greenfield, Indiana

1999-2000 City of Keene Program Coordinator
HAP/Housing Assistance Program, Keene, Texas

1999-2000 Social Work Internship
John Peter Smith Hospital, Fort Worth, Texas